US GAAP/IFRS accounting differences identifier tool

October 2016
Overview

The US GAAP/IFRS Accounting Differences Identifier Tool is designed to help entities that are considering a future conversion to IFRS, typically during the diagnostic phase of a conversion project, or in conjunction with a transaction. While the Identifier Tool is intended to help users identify some of the more common accounting differences between US GAAP and IFRS that may affect a converting entity’s financial statements, no resource can possibly identify all of the differences that exist between the two sets of standards. Many differences depend on an entity’s specific industry, the nature and extent of its transactions, and, where choices are available, accounting policy elections. Accordingly, the Identifier Tool should be viewed as a starting point for analyzing potential accounting differences, not a comprehensive checklist. It is not a substitute for a careful reading of the appropriate US GAAP and IFRS literature, or the guidance contained in EY’s US Financial Reporting Developments publications (FRDs) or our annual publication International GAAP®.

IFRS standards often are more “principles-based” with less interpretive and application guidance than their US counterparts. As a result, while some might read an IFRS standard to require an approach similar to that contained in its more detailed US counterpart, others might not. As the more general IFRS standards are not always interpreted similarly by entities in the same or similar circumstances, not everyone will agree on whether an accounting difference actually exists.

The Identifier Tool was developed from the perspective of a US entity that is converting to IFRS. Therefore, when the required accounting treatment an entity presently follows under US GAAP would comply with IFRS, but alternative accounting treatments are also permitted under IFRS, such alternatives may not be described herein.

Tool organization

The Identifier Tool is organized by accounting topic, as of 31 May 2016, with each topic consisting of an overview and specific questions. We believe that no discussion of differences should lose sight of the fact that the two sets of standards are often grounded in the same basic principles, so each topic’s overview begins with a discussion of the similarities between US GAAP and IFRS. A list of the relevant primary accounting literature as of 31 May 2016 is presented for each topic. Although the authoritative guidance for many topics will change as a result of the FASB’s and IASB’s ongoing standards development and/or convergence efforts, knowledge of current differences is more relevant for transaction-driven conversions. Also, an understanding of current differences will help entities more meaningfully follow the Boards’ convergence projects so they can provide constructive comments to the Boards on the direction of those projects. Each topic’s overview section contains a brief description of any convergence and other standard-setting efforts undertaken by the FASB and IASB. Because the Boards are actively discussing the convergence projects and updating the related timetables, entities should periodically consult the FASB and IASB websites and other EY resources for current developments and more details.

The overview for each accounting topic also provides a discussion of IFRS 1, First-time Adoption of International Financial Reporting Standards. IFRS 1 is a complex, rules-based standard containing the accounting requirements a reporting entity must follow in converting to IFRS, including a number of elective exemptions and mandatory exceptions. While the Identifier Tool discusses some of the more significant provisions within IFRS 1 that may affect a reporting entity’s conversion, the complexity of IFRS 1 requires a thorough examination and analysis. Each topic includes a series of questions designed to identify accounting differences based on the literature. A “Yes” response to the question indicates a situation or transaction that could result in a potential accounting difference, and therefore requires additional evaluation. The Identifier Tool provides a summary of key US GAAP and IFRS literature relevant to the specific question, as well as key implications that might be drawn from the differences in the literature. Based on this information, users should answer the question “Identified difference?” by indicating “Yes” if a difference exists, or “No” if a difference does not exist. In some circumstances, the existence of an accounting difference will depend on the entity’s election of an IFRS policy choice, in which case “Depends on Policy Election” should be selected. To document the rationale in reaching a conclusion, the “Describe” section of the Identifier Tool should be completed, as necessary.

Within each individual question, specific convergence and IFRS 1 implications generally are discussed only when they are supplemental to the discussion in the topic overview. Therefore, information described in both the overview and individual question sections must be considered in determining any convergence ramifications or possible opening balance sheet adjustments.
Revision to December 2015 Tool

The 2016 edition of the Identifier Tool has been updated for new standards and interpretations issued as of 31 May 2016. In general, the differences reflect guidance finalized by the FASB and IASB prior to 31 May 2016. However, this tool has not been updated for the following standards with delayed effective date and related consequential amendments: IFRS 9, Financial Instruments, ASU 2016-01, Recognition and Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities, IFRS 15, Revenue from Contracts with customers, ASU 2014-09, Revenue from Contracts with Customers, IFRS 16, Leases, and ASU 2016-02, Leases. In an effort to provide an analysis that is currently applicable, we have not incorporated these standards into the analysis of differences, other than in our discussion of convergence. These standards will affect a wide range of topics. For example, IFRS 15 and ASU 2014-09 will affect revenue from contracts with customers, sale of certain nonfinancial assets and capitalization of certain costs (e.g., advertisement costs), among other items.

The Identifier Tool does not include any guidance related to IFRS for Small and Medium-sized Entities (IFRS for SMEs) as well as Private Company Council (PCC) alternatives that are embedded within US GAAP.

Appendix I provides a summary of changes to the questions within each accounting topic.

* * *

The Identifier Tool is intended to be a helpful resource for companies that are beginning to analyze the numerous accounting decisions and changes inherent in a conversion to IFRS. Conversion is, of course, more than just an accounting exercise, and identifying accounting differences is only the first step in the process. Successfully converting to IFRS also involves ongoing project management, systems and process change analysis, tax considerations, and a review of all company agreements that are based on financial data and measures. EY’s assurance, tax, and advisory professionals are available to share their experiences and to assist companies in analyzing all aspects of the conversion process — from the earliest diagnostic stages until ultimate adoption of the international standards.

Ernst & Young LLP

October 2016
This edition of the Identifier Tool has been updated for the effects of new standards and interpretations issued by the FASB and the IASB and standards-setting developments of both Boards, including their convergence projects as of 31 May 2016. The Identifier Tool has not been updated for any standard-setting activity subsequent to 31 May 2016, even in cases where it otherwise mentioned. The Identifier Tool have not been updated for IFRS 9, Financial Instruments, ASU 2016-01, Recognition and Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities, IFRS 15, Revenue from Contracts with customers, ASU 2014-09, Revenue from Contracts with Customers, IFRS 16, Leases, and ASU 2016-02, Leases.

This appendix provides a summary of significant changes from the December 2015 edition to the questions within each accounting topic. This list does not include changes to the convergence and IFRS 1 sections of the Identifier Tool.

Financial statement presentation

► Question 3 was updated for the issuance of ASU 2015-17, Balance Sheet Classification of Deferred Taxes.

Equity method investments / Associates

► Question 5 was updated for the issuance of ASU 2016-07, Simplifying the Transition to the Equity Method of Accounting.

Business combinations

► Question 8 was added to reflect a difference resulting from the issuance of ASU 2015-16, Simplifying the Accounting for Measurement-Period Adjustments.

Financial Instruments

► Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the Liabilities and Equity subsection were updated for the issuance of ASU 2014-16, Determining Whether the Host Contract in a Hybrid Financial Instrument Issued in the Form of a Share Is More Akin to Debt or to Equity.

► Question 7 (in the December 2015 version) of the Liabilities and Equity subsection was deleted because ASU 2015-03, Simplifying the Presentation of Debt Issuance Costs, became effective.

► Question 16 of the Derivatives and Hedging subsection was updated for the issuance of ASU 2016-05, Effect of Derivative Contract Novations on Existing Hedge Accounting Relationships.

Income taxes

► Question 6 was updated for the issuance of ASU 2015-17, Balance Sheet Classification of Deferred Taxes.

Share-based payment

► Question 2 was added and questions 10, 12 and 18 (9, 11 and 17 in the December 2015 version) were updated for the issuance of ASU 2016-09, Improvements to Employee Share-Based Payment Accounting.

Employee benefits, other than share-based payment

► Question 2 was added to reflect the different methods used to determine the discount rates assumption.

Earnings per share

► Question 3 was updated for the issuance of ASU 2016-09, Improvements to Employee Share-Based Payment Accounting.

Statement of cash flows

► Questions 5 and 7 were updated for the issuance of ASU 2016-09, Improvements to Employee Share-Based Payment Accounting.
Accounting topics

Financial statement presentation ........................................................................................................ 1
Consolidation ................................................................................................................................ 21
Joint ventures and joint operations ................................................................................................. 34
Equity method investments / Associates ....................................................................................... 39
Business combinations ..................................................................................................................... 56
Inventory ...................................................................................................................................... 67
Property, plant and equipment ...................................................................................................... 73
Intangible assets ............................................................................................................................. 81
Impairment of long-lived assets held and used .............................................................................. 91
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets ....................................................... 96
Financial instruments .................................................................................................................... 103
  Recognition and measurement ........................................................................................................ 107
  Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities .............................................................. 133
  Liabilities and equity .................................................................................................................... 152
  Derivatives and hedging ................................................................................................................ 194
Fair value measurements ................................................................................................................. 241
Foreign currency matters ................................................................................................................ 245
Leases ......................................................................................................................................... 253
Income taxes .................................................................................................................................. 265
Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations ............................................ 287
Revenue recognition ...................................................................................................................... 304
Share-based payments .................................................................................................................... 327
Employee benefits other than share-based payments .................................................................... 360
Earnings per share ........................................................................................................................... 382
Segment reporting .......................................................................................................................... 389
Subsequent events and going concern ............................................................................................ 392
Statement of cash flows ................................................................................................................... 401
Borrowing costs ............................................................................................................................... 412
Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations .......................................................... 418
Index of questions

Financial statement presentation

1. Is the entity required to present a complete set of financial statements? ................................................. 1
2. Did the entity apply an accounting policy retrospectively or make a retrospective restatement of items in its financial statements or reclassify items in its financial statements? ................................................. 2
3. Does the entity have deferred taxes classified as current? ........................................................................... 4
4. Did the entity refinance any short-term borrowings after the reporting period but before issuance of the financial statements? ......................................................................................... 5
5. Was debt callable at the balance sheet date due to a covenant violation for which the entity received a waiver or loan modification after the balance sheet date? ................................................. 6
6. Does the entity have components of other comprehensive income? .......................................................... 7
7. Does the entity have equity method investees? ........................................................................................... 8
8. Does the entity present extraordinary items in its income statement? .......................................................... 9
9. Does the entity classify its expenses solely by function without additional disclosure of certain expenses by nature (e.g., depreciation and amortization expense and employee benefits expense)? 10
10. Does the entity disclose changes in equity in the notes to the financial statements? ................................. 11
11. Does the entity have additional line items, headings or subtotals that it believes are relevant to an understanding of the entity’s financial performance, but that are not presented due to the SEC’s prohibition of non-GAAP measures in the financial statements? ................................................................. 12
12. Does the entity prepare interim financial information and have costs that benefit more than one interim period? ......................................................................................................................... 13
13. Does the entity have both receivables and payables with the same counterparty and a right of setoff? .... 14
13(a). Does the entity currently offset fair value amounts related to derivative contracts subject to a master netting agreement and present a net amount on the balance sheet? ......................................................... 15
13(b). Does the entity offset amounts recognized as payables under repurchase agreements against amounts recognized as receivables under reverse repurchase agreements and present as a net amount in the balance sheet? ........................................................................................................... 16
13(c). Is the entity a broker-dealer in securities that offsets payables against receivables arising from unsettled regular-way trades? ............................................................................................................ 17
13(d). Is the entity a construction contractor that offsets advances received on cost-plus contracts? .......... 18
13(e). Is the entity a bank or savings institution that offsets reciprocal account balances with other banks in the process of collection or payment? .................................................................................. 19

Consolidation

1. Does the reporting entity have variable interest entities (VIEs) or interests in other entities? ..................... 21
2. Does the reporting entity have an interest in another entity that is subject to potential voting rights? ......... 22
3. Is the reporting entity an investment company or does it have interests in investment companies? .......... 23
4. Does the reporting entity have de facto control over any non-consolidated entities? ............................... 24
5. Can a gain or loss be recognized upon consolidation of an entity that is not a business? ......................... 25
6. Do any consolidated entities apply different accounting policies from those of the reporting entity? ....... 26
7. Do any consolidated entities have different reporting dates from those of the reporting entity? ............. 27
8. Has there been a decrease in ownership interest in a subsidiary or the sale or transfer of a group of assets? 28
9. In addition to consolidated financial statements, does the reporting entity also present its own parent-only (i.e., separate or non-consolidated) financial statements? .......................................................... 29

Page 1
Joint ventures and joint operations .................................................................34
1. Has the investor entered into any contractual agreements with another party(ies) that may provide for joint control over an activity or an entity? ................................................................. 35
2. Has the investor made any non-monetary contributions to joint ventures? .................................................. 37

Equity method investments / Associates ..................................................................39
1. Does the investor hold currently exercisable potential voting rights in investees or are such rights held by others? ................. 40
2. Does the investor have investments in limited partnerships, limited liability companies, trusts or similar entities? ................................................................. 41
3. Does the investor have “held for sale” equity method investments? ................................................................. 42
4. Does the investor have any equity method investments/associates for which the fair value option has been selected? ................................................................. 43
5. Does the investor have an equity method investment that was initially accounted for under the cost method or ASC 320-10 but later changed to the equity method (e.g., due to a subsequent acquisition)? 44
6. Are there disposals (e.g., partial, or deemed) of equity method investments that result in loss of significant influence? ......................................................................... 46
7. Has there been an impairment in equity method investments? ......................................................................... 47
8. Have the equity method investees/associates experienced losses in excess of the investor’s interest? 48
9. Do any equity method investees/associates apply different accounting policies from those of the investor? 49
10. Do any equity method investees/associates have different reporting dates from that of the investor? 50
11. In addition to consolidated financial statements, does the investor also present its own parent-only (i.e., separate or non-consolidated) financial statements? ................................................................. 51
12. Upon acquisition of an investment in an associate, did the consideration given include amounts contingent on future events? ......................................................................... 52
13. Has the investor made any non-monetary contributions to its equity method investee/associate? 54

Business combinations .............................................................................................56
1. Did the entity have an obligation to transfer additional consideration to the former owners of the acquiree if specified future events occur or conditions are met? 57
2. Did the entity acquire less than 100% of the acquiree? ......................................................................... 58
3. Did the acquirer recognize assets and liabilities arising from pre-acquisition contingencies? 59
4. Did the entity exchange its share-based payment awards for awards held by employees of the acquired entity? ......................................................................... 61
5. Did the entity acquire operating leases where the acquiree was the lessor? 62
6. Did any transactions occur between entities under common control? 62
7. Is pushdown accounting applied in the separate financial statements of an acquired subsidiary? 64
8. Did the acquirer recognize an adjustment to a provisional amount during the measurement period (i.e., a measurement-period adjustment)? 65

Inventory .....................................................................................................................67
1. Does the reporting entity use the LIFO method to value inventory? ......................................................................... 67
2. Has the reporting entity recorded inventory write-downs to the lower of cost or market (LCM) within the reporting period? ......................................................................... 68
3. Have inventories that were written down to their market value recovered in value during the reporting period? ......................................................................... 69
4. Does the reporting entity use different costing methods for inventories that are similar in nature and use to the entity? ................................................................. 69
5. Has the Company recorded a permanent inventory markdown under the retail inventory method (RIM)? .... 70
6. Does the reporting entity classify major spare parts as inventories? ......................................................... 71
7. Has the entity recorded an asset retirement obligation (ARO) that was incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used a long-lived asset to produce inventory during that period? .... 71

**Property, plant and equipment** .................................................................................................................. 73
1. Is the reporting entity interested in changing its current approach for subsequent measurement of a class of PP&E to the revaluation model allowed under IFRS? ............................................................... 74
2. Does the reporting entity depreciate property plant and equipment using a composite estimated life for an entire asset as opposed to following a component approach? ...................................................................... 76
3. Has the reporting entity incurred costs relating to a major inspection or overhaul of PP&E? ................. 77
4. Does the reporting entity have PP&E that could be considered investment property? ............................ 78
5. Did the reporting entity change its depreciation methods for any item of PP&E during fiscal years beginning before 15 December 2005 (or 2005 and earlier for calendar year entities)? ...................... 79

**Intangible assets** ............................................................................................................................................. 81
1. Did the entity incur costs relating to research and development activities (other than software development costs)? ........................................................................................................... 83
2. Did the entity incur costs relating to computer software that was sold, leased, or otherwise marketed? ...... 84
3. Did the entity incur costs relating to computer software developed for internal-use? .................................... 85
4. Did the entity purchase computer software for its own use? ........................................................................ 86
5. Does the entity account for intangible assets at cost? .................................................................................... 86
6. Did the entity incur advertising expenditures? ............................................................................................. 87
7. Did the entity acquire an assembled workforce as part of an asset acquisition? ........................................ 89
8. Does the entity own any emission rights under a “cap and trade” program? ............................................. 90

**Impairment of long-lived assets held and used** ............................................................................................ 91
1. Has an impairment loss on long-lived assets been recognized? Do impairment indicators of long-lived assets exist at the date of transition to IFRS? .................................................................................. 92
2. Are there indicators that long-lived assets held and used for which an impairment loss was recorded have recovered their value? ................................................................................... 95

**Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets** ................................................................. 96
1. Does the entity have goodwill? ..................................................................................................................... 97
2. Did the entity recognize a goodwill impairment charge on goodwill recognized in an acquisition of less than 100% of the acquiree? .................................................................................. 98
3. Does the entity have indefinite-lived intangible assets? ............................................................................. 100
4. Are there indicators that indefinite-lived intangible assets for which an impairment loss was recorded have recovered their value? ................................................................................... 102

**Financial instruments** ................................................................................................................................... 103

**Recognition and measurement** .................................................................................................................. 107
1. Does the reporting entity have investments in equity securities that do not have readily determinable fair values, such as unquoted equity securities? ................................................................. 109
2. Does the reporting entity have a financial instrument for which the fair value option was elected under ASC 825-10? ................................................................. 110
3. Has the entity transferred any debt or equity securities into or out of the trading category? ................. 112
4. Does the reporting entity have investments in loans or other receivables (either originated or acquired by the entity)? ...................................................................................................................... 115
5. Does the reporting entity have an investment in a foreign currency monetary asset (e.g., foreign currency debt instrument) classified as available-for-sale? .......................................................................................................................... 117
6. Does the reporting entity have debt securities classified as AFS or HTM whose fair value is less than cost (i.e., impaired)? .................................................................................................................................................. 117
7. Does the reporting entity have equity securities classified as AFS whose fair value is less than cost? ...... 120
8. Does the entity hold financial assets that previously recorded an “other-than-temporary” loss, which have subsequently recovered? ............................................................................................... 121
9. Has the reporting entity originated a financial liability or originated or acquired any financial assets and is amortizing the premium or discount using the effective yield method? .................................................... 121
10. Has there been a change in the expectation of cash flows to be received related to a loan, debt security, or debt issuance? ...................................................................................................................... 123
11. Has the entity sold any investments during the period that were classified as HTM? .......................... 125
12. Does the entity hold any debt securities that are not traded in an active market? ............................... 127
13. Are transaction costs related to the purchase of securities measured at fair value (either as AFS securities or under ASC 946-320) excluded as a part of the securities’ cost basis at initial recognition? ..... 131

Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities ........................................................................ 133
1. Has the reporting entity transferred an entire financial asset or groups of entire financial assets to an entity (including a special-purpose entity) and derecognized such assets? If no, Questions 2 through 7 do not need to be answered and evaluated. .......................................................................................................................... 136
2. Has the reporting entity achieved partial derecognition by transferring a portion of an entire financial asset? ........................................................................................................................................ 138
3. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity subject to a performance guarantee? ....................................................................................................................................... 141
4. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity pursuant to a transfer arrangement that includes a “cleanup call” that would allow the entity (transferor) to liquidate the trust or SPE (the transferee) under specified conditions? ........................................................................ 143
5. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity pursuant to a transfer arrangement that includes a “removal-of-accounts provision” (ROAP)? .................................................. 144
6. Has the reporting entity transferred a financial asset in conjunction with a total return swap with the same transferee? ..................................................................................................................................... 146
7. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets and retained servicing rights? ............................. 147
8. Has the reporting entity received or pledged collateral in connection with a securities lending transaction or repurchase agreement? ................................................................................................. 149

Liabilities and equity ............................................................................................................................ 152
1. Has the entity issued any equity instruments other than simple common stock? For example, has it issued preferred stock, or instruments with redemption features, or equity instruments with conversion features? ........................................................................................................................ 154
2. Has the entity issued puttable common or preferred shares? For example, has the entity issued shares that are puttable at any time or at certain times at the option of the holder? ........................................ 159
3. Has the reporting entity issued contingently redeemable common or preferred equity instruments? For example, are the instruments optionally redeemable or automatically redeemed based on events that are not certain to occur? ................................................................. 161
4. Has the entity issued redeemable preferred shares that are convertible by the holder? ................................................................. 162
5. Does the reporting entity (or a consolidated subsidiary) hold any previously purchased shares of its own stock? Does it enter into market-making activities or hedging activities that involve its own stock? ..... 165
6. Has the entity issued any debt instruments other than simple fixed-rate debt with a stated maturity? For example, has the entity issued convertible debt, debt with variable interest rates, or debt that is puttable by the holder or callable by the entity? ................................................................. 166
7. Has the entity issued any debt with prepayment features? ............................................................................................................. 171
8. Does the entity have any debt instruments that are carried at amortized cost with premium or discount and issuance costs amortized based on the effective interest method? ................................................................. 172
9. Has the entity issued any convertible debt instruments that can be settled in a conversion only by delivering the full amount of shares due in exchange for the debt instrument? ................................................................. 174
10. Has the reporting entity settled a gross share settled convertible instrument? ........................................................................... 175
11. Has the entity issued any convertible debt instruments that are settled in conversion using a method other than gross physical settlement? Do any convertible instruments offer multiple settlement alternatives? ........................................................................... 177
12. Has the entity modified or exchanged debt instruments during the period? ................................................................................................. 179
13. Has the entity issued equity derivatives? For example, has it entered into forward contracts requiring it and the counterparty to transact in the entity’s shares in the future? Has the entity entered into option contracts that will allow one of the parties the right to require the other party to transact in the entity’s shares in the future? ........................................................................... 181
14. Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows it to put the entity’s own shares to the counterparty (purchased put), or call the entity’s own shares from the counterparty (purchased call)? Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows the counterparty to call the entity’s own shares from it (written call)? Is the entity a party to an equity forward contract requiring it to sell, and the counterparty to purchase, the entity’s own shares (forward sale)? ........................................................................... 186
15. Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows the counterparty to put the entity’s own shares back to the entity (a written put option)? ........................................................................... 188
16. Is the entity a party to an equity forward contract that requires it to purchase its own shares from the counterparty? ........................................................................... 190
17. Has a consolidated subsidiary issued any equity derivatives (options or forwards) on its shares, or the parent entity issued any such contracts on the subsidiary’s shares? ........................................................................... 191
18. Has the entity made rights issues to its existing shareholders to acquire common shares of the entity in exchange for a fixed amount denominated in a currency other than the entity’s functional currency? ........................................................................... 192

Derivatives and hedging ......................................................................................................................................................................................... 194
1. Does the reporting entity have a potential derivative with no notional amount? ................................................................. 196
2. Does the reporting entity hold potential derivatives that are not capable of “net settlement”? ................................................................. 197
3. Does the entity hold any potential derivative contracts that qualify for the normal purchase and normal sale scope exception in ASC 815? ........................................................................... 199
4. Does the entity have any contracts that do not qualify for the normal purchase normal sale exemption because the price in the contract is based on an underlying that is not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased? ........................................................................... 200
5. Does the entity have any weather derivatives? .......................................................................................................................... 201
6. Does the entity have “regular-way” purchases of financial assets? ........................................................................................................... 203
7. Does the entity have any contracts with payments that are indexed to the sales or service revenues of another party to the contract? ................................................................. 204
8. Does the entity enter into loan commitments? ................................................................. 205
9. Does the entity have embedded put and call options in debt hosts? ......................................... 207
10. Has the entity entered into any contracts that do not meet the definition of a financial asset or financial liability and that are denominated in a currency other than the functional currency or local currency of a substantial party to the contract? ........................................... 209
11. Are there any derivatives embedded in hybrid instruments that were entered into in 1998 or earlier? .......... 211
12. Does the entity have any contracts that were reassessed, and, as a result, the conclusion about whether the instrument (or embedded feature) met the definition of a derivative changed? .......................... 212
13. Has the entity bifurcated an embedded derivative for income statement purposes but continued to present the derivative combined with its host on the balance sheet? .................................................. 213
14. Does the entity assess the effectiveness of its hedges for which it applies special hedge accounting every three months, even if it prepares only annual financial statements? ................................................................. 214
15(a). Does the entity seek to hedge any component of held-to-maturity securities? ......................... 215
15(b). Does the entity seek to utilize a written option as a hedging instrument? .......................... 215
15(c). Does the entity seek to hedge the foreign currency risk associated with a firm commitment to acquire a business in a business combination? ................................................................. 215
16. Does the entity have derivatives in a hedge relationship that were novated from the original counterparty to another counterparty? ........................................................................ 217
17. Does the entity apply the “shortcut” method to hedges using interest rate swaps? .......................... 219
18. If the entity applied fair value or cash flow hedge accounting to a financial asset or liability (or to their related cash flows), has the entity designated specific sub-components of risk such as risk associated with (a) changes in the designated benchmark interest rate, (b) changes in foreign currency exchange rates, or (c) changes in credit risk? ........................................................................ 220
19. Has the entity designated a hedging instrument in a fair value hedge as hedging only a portion of the hedged debt instrument's period until maturity? ........................................................................... 221
20. Does the application of ASC 815's fair value hedge methodology to financial assets or liabilities result in hedge ineffectiveness because the hedging instrument's cash flows do not coincide with all of the cash flows related to the hedged item (e.g., the portion of an interest flow consisting of a spread related to credit risk, cash flows beyond a specific expected call date)? ................................................................. 223
21. Does the entity execute portfolio fair value hedges of the benchmark interest rate risk associated with the hedged financial instruments? ........................................................................... 224
22. Does the entity have a hedged forecasted transaction that is no longer “highly probable” of occurring? Does the entity have a formerly hedged transaction that is “no longer expected to occur”? ................................................................. 226
23. Does the entity use a purchased option as a hedging instrument in a cash flow hedge? .................. 228
24. Does the entity apply the “change in variable cash flows” method (see 815-30-35-16 through 35-24) when measuring ineffectiveness of a swap designated in a cash flow hedge under US GAAP? ................................................................. 229
25. Has the entity executed cash flow hedges of forecasted transactions that subsequently resulted in the recognition of a non-financial asset (e.g., inventory or property, plant and equipment) or non-financial liability? ........................................................................... 231
26. A reporting entity characterized by a multinational ownership structure often includes parent, subsidiaries, and intervening subsidiaries with different functional currencies. Does the reporting entity desire that its operating units' foreign currency risk associated with forecasted transactions be hedged? .. 232
27. Does the entity hedge its net investment in a foreign entity? ................................................................. 234
28. Would the reporting entity like to designate a non-derivative (that is, a debt instrument) or a combination of a derivative and a non-derivative instrument as the hedging instrument of a foreign currency risk? ........................................................................... 235
Index of questions

29. Does the entity employ a central treasury-type function, utilizing internal foreign currency derivative contracts to achieve hedge accounting for stand-alone subsidiaries, while offsetting such exposures with a third party on a net basis? ................................................................. 237

30. Does the reporting entity hedge its foreign currency risks associated with a forecasted intercompany transaction (e.g., royalty revenue)? ................................................................. 238

Fair value measurements .................................................................................................................. 241

1. Has the reporting entity recognized “day 1” gains or losses on the initial recognition of financial instruments? ................................................................................................................... 242

2. Does the reporting entity measure the fair value of its alternative investments based on net asset value (NAV), as a practical expedient? ................................................................. 243

Foreign currency matters ................................................................................................................. 245

1. Is the share capital of a reporting entity denominated in a currency other than its functional currency? ...... 246

2. Does the reporting entity have a corporate structure comprised of multiple levels of subsidiaries and parent companies, with different functional currencies, that are ultimately consolidated into the reporting entity? ........................................................................................................ 247

3. Does the reporting entity have a consolidated or equity method investee that is a foreign entity that is held for disposal? ........................................................................................................ 249

4. Does the reporting entity have subsidiaries, associates or joint ventures located in countries that are considered hyperinflationary? .................................................................................. 250

5. Has the reporting entity changed its functional currency from the reporting currency to a foreign currency? ......................................................................................................................... 251

Leases ............................................................................................................................................. 253

1. Has the reporting entity entered into any arrangements that convey the right to use an asset or assets other than property, plant or equipment? ................................................................. 254

2. Has the reporting entity entered into any leases involving land and building? .................................. 255

3. Has the reporting entity entered into any lease arrangements as a lessee? ................................................................. 256

4. Has the reporting entity used its incremental borrowing rate to determine the present value of the minimum lease payments for purposes of lease classification and accounting? ................................ 257

5. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements involving real estate that are classified as operating leases for which the entity considers the real estate to be investment property? ................................................................. 258

6. Has the reporting entity entered into any sale-leaseback transactions involving assets other than real estate? .......................................................................................................................... 259

7. Has the reporting entity entered into any sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate? ............. 260

8. Does the reporting entity have any arrangements for which it is the lessee and it is involved in the construction of the asset to be leased? ........................................................................................................ 261

9. Has the reporting entity entered into any lease arrangements as a lessor? ................................................................. 262

10. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements involving real estate as the lessor? .............. 263

11. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements classified as a leveraged lease? .................. 264

Income taxes ..................................................................................................................................... 265

1. Do the tax bases of an entity’s assets and liabilities differ depending on the manner in which the assets are recovered or the liabilities are settled? ................................................................. 266

2. Does the entity have any uncertain income tax positions? ................................................................. 267
3. Has the entity recognized any deferred tax assets or liabilities associated with temporary differences initially arising from transactions that were not business combinations and that at the time of the transaction did not affect accounting or taxable profit or loss (e.g., acquisitions of assets)? ........................................ 268
4. Has the entity recorded a valuation allowance related to some or all of the entity’s recognized deferred tax assets? ........................................................................................................ 268
5. Has the enacted or “substantively enacted” tax law changed during the year? .......................................... 269
6. Does the entity have both current and noncurrent deferred tax assets and liabilities reflected in its balance sheet? ........................................................................................................ 270
7. Does the entity have investments in foreign subsidiaries or foreign corporate joint ventures? ......................... 270
8. Does the entity have investments in domestic subsidiaries or domestic corporate joint ventures? .................. 271
9. Does the entity have either domestic or foreign investments accounted for under the equity method other than foreign or domestic subsidiaries or corporate joint ventures? ........................................ 273
10. Did the entity increase its interest in a foreign equity method investee such that it was required to consolidate the entity as a foreign subsidiary? ........................................................................ 274
11. Does the entity have nonmonetary assets and liabilities that are measured in the entity’s functional currency but have a tax basis that is determined in a different currency? .................................................. 274
12. Is the entity or any of its subsidiaries subject to a different tax rate depending on whether its taxable profits are distributed or undistributed (e.g., a lower rate applies if dividends are paid)? ............................................................... 275
13. Did the entity have any changes to deferred taxes that were originally charged or credited to equity (i.e., “backwards tracing”) or a category different from the origination of deferred tax? ........................................... 276
14. Does the entity have any intercompany transfers of assets that resulted in the payment of tax and such assets remain within the group? ............................................................................... 277
15. Has the entity entered into any leveraged lease transactions? ........................................................................ 278
16. Is the entity engaged in activities that entitles it to special deductions for tax purposes? ................................ 279
17. Is the entity subject to an alternative or parallel income tax that imposes a different tax or tax rate? Is the entity subject to a modified taxable income calculation or a system that requires tax payments by an entity that would otherwise not be taxpaying under the normal income tax regime? 280
18. Did the entity change its tax status (i.e., to or from taxable to nontaxable) during the year? ......................... 281
19. Does an entity in the group prepare separate financial statements and is it either part of a consolidated tax return group or otherwise engaged in tax sharing with other members of the group or outside the group? .................................................................................. 282
20. Does the entity qualify as a regulated enterprise in the scope of ASC 980? .................................................. 282
21. Does the entity operate in multiple taxing jurisdictions with varying tax rates which affects the estimated effective income tax rate used for interim reporting? .................................................. 283
22. Did the entity adjust its expectation of the realizability of deferred tax assets during an interim period? .......... 284
23. Did the entity change its judgment about uncertain tax positions during an interim reporting period? ........ 285
24. Were there any effects on the entity related to intraperiod tax allocation during an interim reporting period? ................................................................................................................................. 286

Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations .............................................................. 287

1. Does the reporting entity have potential obligations resulting from past events that have not been recorded because it is not “probable” under ASC 450 that an outflow of resources will be required to settle the obligation? .................................................. 289
2. Does the company have provisions that are or could be materially different if recorded at their present value? ................................................................................................................................. 290
3. Has the entity recognized a provision in which all possible outcomes in an estimated range were equally likely? ................................................................................................................................. 291
4. Does the reporting entity expect that a third party will reimburse (or pay directly) part or all of the costs required to settle a provision, including insurance recoveries? ................................................................. 292
5. **Does the reporting entity have any potential liability for environmental remediation costs?** ................................................................. 293
6. Does the reporting entity have any potential liability for AROs? .............................................................................................................. 294
7. Has the entity recorded an ARO that was incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used a long-lived asset to produce inventory during that period? ......................................................... 298
8. Has the reporting entity committed to a restructuring plan or another exit activity? ................................................................. 299
9. Does the entity have any onerous contracts? ...................................................................................................................... 300
10. Does the entity have an onerous contract related to an operating lease? .................................................................................. 302

**Revenue recognition** .................................................................................................................................................. 304

1. Is the entity engaged in specialized industry areas or specific transactions for which specific US GAAP guidance exists? ...................................................................................................................... 306
2. Does the reporting entity have revenue transactions associated with the sale of goods? ................................................................. 307
3. Does the reporting entity earn revenues from providing services to its customers? ................................................................................ 308
4. Has the reporting entity entered into bill-and-hold sales arrangements? .................................................................................... 309
5. Has the reporting entity entered into any multiple-element arrangements? .................................................................................... 309
6. Does the entity receive upfront fees such as initiation, entrance or membership fees? ............................................................................... 312
7. Is revenue recognized using the completed contract method for long-term construction-type contracts? .......................................................... 312
8. Does the reporting entity have long-term construction-type contracts for which revenue is recognized using the POC method? .................................................................................................................. 313
9. Does the reporting entity have long-term construction-type contracts that include change orders? .......................................................... 314
10. Does a reporting entity either have long-term construction type contracts that include a number of deliverables within a single contract or does the reporting entity have a number of contracts with the same party? ........................................................................... 315
11. Does the entity provide consideration to its customers, including resellers, such as discounts, coupons, rebates, and “free” products or services? ................................................................................................................................. 316
12. Does the reporting entity provide certain “customer loyalty” rewards to provide its customers with incentives to buy its goods and services (e.g., frequent flier miles provided by airlines)? ................................................................. 317
13. Does the reporting entity recognize revenue associated with advertising barter transactions? ............................................................................. 318
14. Does the entity receive government grants? .......................................................................................................................... 319
15. Does the entity sell software to its customers? .......................................................................................................................... 320
16. Is the entity engaged in the cable and satellite TV operations industry? ............................................................................................ 320
17. Does the entity engage in real estate sales activities? ...................................................................................................................... 322
18. Does the entity offer extended payment terms to its customers? ........................................................................................................ 323
19. Does the entity enter into service concession arrangements (also referred to as public-private partnerships)? .............................................. 324

**Share-based payments** .................................................................................................................................................. 327

1. Does the entity have share-based payment awards that vest in installments (i.e., graded vesting) based on service conditions only? ................................................................................................................... 329
2. After the adoption of ASU 2016-09 under US GAAP, does the entity elect to recognize forfeitures of awards as they occur? ................................................................................................................... 330
3. Does the entity have share-based payment awards whose service inception date precedes the grant date? ................................................................................................................................. 331
4. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to non-employees? ............................................................................................ 333
Index of questions

5. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to non-employees that include a performance condition? ................................................................. 336
6. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to employees that include a performance condition? ................................................................. 338
7. Has the entity modified the terms of an unvested share-based payment award resulting in a longer requisite service period as well as incremental compensation cost? ................................................................. 339
8. Has the entity modified any share-based payment equity awards because the existing vesting conditions were improbable of achievement? ................................................................. 341
9. Has the entity modified the terms of a share-based payment award after the employee has been terminated? ................................................................. 342
10. Does the entity receive a tax deduction for its share-based payment plan? ................................................................. 344
11. Is the entity required to pay employer payroll or other employment taxes on employee share-based compensation arrangements? ................................................................. 346
12. Does the entity repurchase (or net settle) shares upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy the entity’s statutory withholding requirements? ................................................................. 347
13. Does the share-based payment award include a condition other than a service, performance, or market condition? ................................................................. 350
14. Has the reporting entity granted a share-based payment award that includes a non-compete clause? ................................................................. 352
15. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards that can be cash-settled upon a contingent event? ................................................................. 353
16. Does the share-based payment award contain a cash repurchase feature at fair value at the employee’s election? ................................................................. 354
17. Does the entity’s share-based payment plan provide an equity repurchase feature at fair value at the employer’s election? ................................................................. 355
18. Is the entity that is issuing share-based payment awards a nonpublic entity? ................................................................. 356
19. Does the entity have an employee stock purchase plan (ESPP) that allows employees to buy the entity’s stock over a period of time at a discount from the market price at the date of grant? ................................................................. 357

Employee benefits other than share-based payments ................................................................. 360

1. Does the reporting entity have defined benefit pension or other postretirement benefit plans located in countries where a deep market for high-quality corporate bonds is not available to determine the discount rate for the benefit obligation? ................................................................. 360
2. Does the reporting entity develop its discount rate assumption using a spot rate yield curve or hypothetical bond portfolio (specific bond matching approach)? ................................................................. 361
3. Does the reporting entity have unrecognized actuarial gains and losses associated with its defined benefit plan? ................................................................. 363
4. Does the reporting entity have prior service costs or credits associated with its defined benefit plan? ................................................................. 364
5. Does the reporting entity use an actuarial method other than the projected unit credit method to estimate the present value of its liability for defined benefit plans? ................................................................. 365
6. Is there a defined benefit asset recognized on the balance sheet? ................................................................. 366
7. Does the reporting entity include an expected return on plan assets as a component of net periodic benefit cost? ................................................................. 368
8. Are plan benefits covered by insurance policies? ................................................................. 369
9. Has the reporting entity’s defined benefit plan experienced a curtailment? ................................................................. 371
10. Has the reporting entity’s defined benefit plan experienced a plan settlement? Does the reporting entity have defined benefit plans that pay lump-sums to plan participants? ................................................................. 372
11. Does the reporting entity participate in a multiemployer plan? ................................................................. 374
Earnings per share ........................................................................................................................................... 382
1. Is the reporting entity an investment company or a wholly owned subsidiary? ........................................... 382
2. Does the reporting entity compute diluted EPS for contingently issuable shares or for potential common shares using the treasury stock method or reverse treasury stock method? ........................................ 384
3. Does the reporting entity calculate diluted EPS using the treasury stock method for share-based payments? ........................................................................................................................................ 385
4. Has the reporting entity issued a contract that may be settled in common stock or in cash at the election of either the entity or the holder? ........................................................................................................... 386
5. Does the reporting entity have participating securities classified as liabilities under US GAAP? .................. 386
6. Does the reporting entity have a contingently convertible instrument with a contingency based on a market price trigger? ........................................................................................................................................ 387
7. Has the reporting entity issued mandatorily convertible instruments? .......................................................... 387

Segment reporting ........................................................................................................................................... 389
1. Does the reporting entity utilize a “matrix” form organizational structure? .................................................. 389
2. Is a measure of liabilities for each reporting segment regularly provided to the chief operating decision maker (“CODM”)? ........................................................................................................................................ 390
3. Does the entity-wide geographic area information disclose long-lived assets? ............................................ 390
4. Does the entity aggregate any of its operating segments? .............................................................................. 391

Subsequent events and going concern ........................................................................................................... 392
1. Have events occurred after the balance sheet date but before the financial statements are issued? .......... 394
2. Is the entity an SEC Filer? .................................................................................................................................. 395
3. Has the entity reissued its financial statements (e.g., in reports filed with the SEC or other regulatory agencies)? ........................................................................................................................................ 396
4. Are there circumstances that indicate substantial doubt as to an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern that are expected to arise beyond one year after the balance sheet date (prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-15) or the date the financial statements are issued, or available to be issued if applicable (subsequent to the adoption of ASU 2014-15)? .................................................................................. 398
5. Is substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern alleviated as a result of consideration of management’s plans? (subsequent to the adoption of ASU 2014-15) ................................................................................................................................. 399

Statement of cash flows ................................................................................................................................... 401
1. Is the entity a defined benefit plan or other employee benefit plan or investment company? ...................... 402
2. Does the entity use the indirect method to report cash flows from operating activities? ................................ 403
3. Does the reporting entity have bank overdrafts that are repayable on demand? .......................................... 404
4. Has the reporting entity paid or received interest or received any dividends during the period? .................. 404
Index of questions

5. Did the entity pay any dividends or repurchase shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation? ................................................................. 405
6. Has the reporting entity paid any income taxes? ................................................................................. 406
7. Did the entity retain cash as a result of the tax deductibility of increases in the value of equity instruments issued under share-based payment arrangements that are not included in amounts that are recognizable for financial reporting purposes? ................................................................................. 407
8. Did the entity enter into any hedges? .................................................................................................. 408
9. Does the entity have discontinued operations? .................................................................................. 409
10. Does the entity calculate a cash flow per share amount but not present it in its financial statements solely because cash flow per share is prohibited under US GAAP? ......................................................... 410

Borrowing costs ....................................................................................................................................... 412
1. Does the reporting entity acquire, construct or produce assets that take a substantial period of time to get ready for their intended use? ........................................................................................................ 412
2. Does the reporting entity capitalize interest related to any equity method investments? .................. 413
3. Has the reporting entity incurred interest or borrowing costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, construction, or production of a qualifying asset? ........................................................................ 414
4. Did the reporting entity borrow funds specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset? .................. 415
5. Did the reporting entity borrow funds generally and use them to obtain qualifying assets? ........ 416
6. Has the reporting entity incurred any derivative gains and losses as part of the capitalized interest cost? .................................................................................................................. 416

Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations ................................................................ 418
1. Does the entity have long-lived assets or asset groups that have been or will be disposed of? ........ 419
2. Does the entity have a component that either has been disposed of or is classified as held for sale? .... 420
3. Does an accumulated foreign currency translation adjustment exist that is associated with an asset or disposal group classified as held for sale? .................................................................. 421
4. Has a subsequent increase in the fair value of an asset or disposal group held for sale occurred? .......... 422
5. Does the entity plan to distribute a non-current asset or disposal group to its owners? .................. 423
Financial statement presentation

Similarities:

There are many similarities between US GAAP and IFRS relating to financial statement presentation. Both require a statement of financial position, a statement of profit and loss (i.e., income statement) and a statement of comprehensive income (in either a single continuous statement or two consecutive statements), a statement of cash flows, and accompanying notes to the financial statements. Both also require the changes in shareholders’ equity to be presented. However, US GAAP allows the changes in shareholders’ equity to be presented in the notes to the financial statements while IFRS requires the changes in shareholders’ equity to be presented as a separate statement. Further, both require that the financial statements be prepared on the accrual basis of accounting (with the exception of the cash flow statement) except for rare circumstances (e.g., when liquidation basis of accounting is appropriate).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 205, Presentation of Financial Statements</td>
<td>► IAS 1, Presentation of Financial Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 220, Comprehensive Income</td>
<td>► IAS 8, Accounting Policies, Changes in Accounting Estimates and Errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 250, Accounting Changes and Error Corrections</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 470, Debt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► SEC Regulation S-X (SEC registrants only)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any current convergence plans in this area.

The IASB currently has a project on its agenda to amend IAS 1, Presentation of Financial Statements, specifically related to the classification of liabilities, to clarify that classification of liabilities as either current or noncurrent is based on the rights that are in existence at the end of the reporting period. The IASB issued its Exposure Draft, Classification of Liabilities, in February 2015 and in December 2015 discussed comment letters received on that proposal. The IASB continues to deliberate issues pertaining to the proposed amendments. Concurrently, the FASB has tentatively decided to replace today’s rules-based guidance for determining whether to classify debt as current or noncurrent on the balance sheet with a principle-based approach to reduce cost and complexity. Its proposal, if finalized, would result in an increased convergence with IFRS. An exposure draft is expected in the fourth quarter of 2016.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

There are no exemptions under IFRS 1 to presentation and disclosure requirements. Accordingly, all periods should be presented in accordance with IFRS. Entities should be aware of the differences discussed in this section so that any classification differences between US GAAP and IFRS can be presented correctly in the opening IFRS balance and the comparative periods to be presented.
1. Is the entity required to present a complete set of financial statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 205-10-45-1 through 45-4 and 205-10-50-1; SEC Regulation S-X</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.38 through 44, 54 through 60 and 77 through 85; IFRS 1.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative information</strong></td>
<td><strong>Comparative information</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC 205-10-45 notes that the presentation of comparative financial statements in annual and other reports enhances the usefulness of such reports. In any one year it is ordinarily desirable that the statement of financial position, the income statement and the statement of changes in equity (if presented) be presented for one or more preceding years as well as for the current year. Also, footnotes which appeared on the statements from the preceding years should be repeated, or at least referred to, in the comparative statements to the extent that they continue to be of significance.</td>
<td>IAS 1 requires comparative information for the previous period for all amounts reported in the current period’s financial statements. At a minimum, an entity should present two statements of financial position, two statements of profit or loss and other comprehensive income (either as separate statements or as a combined statement of other comprehensive income), two statements of cash flows and two statements of changes in equity and related notes. IFRS 1 requires presentation of at least three balance sheets when an entity first applies IFRS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC Regulation S-X (Rules 3-01, 3-02 and 3-04) requires two years of balance sheets, three years of statements of income and cash flows and disclosure of changes in shareholders’ equity, which may be included as a financial statement or in the notes. For smaller reporting companies, SEC Regulation S-X (Rule 8-02) requires only two years of balance sheets, statements of income and cash flows and disclosure of changes in shareholders’ equity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Line item presentation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Line item presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various accounting standards require specific presentation of financial statement line items, but there is no comprehensive standard that addresses presentation requirements for the statement of financial position or income statement in their entirety. SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 5-02, indicates the various line items and certain additional disclosures which, if applicable, should appear on the face of the balance sheets or related notes. Rule 5-03 provides this information for items that should appear on the face of the income statements.</td>
<td>IAS 1 provides a list of line items that at a minimum must be presented in both the statement of financial position and statement of comprehensive income. In addition, IAS 1 requires an entity to present additional line items, headings and subtotals in each of these statements when such presentation is relevant to an understanding of either the entity’s financial position or performance, respectively. If additional subtotals are presented, IAS 1 has requirements on how the subtotals should be presented.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 Smaller reporting company is defined in Regulation S-K, Item 10.f, as an entity having a public float of less than $75 million or, for registrants whose shares are not traded, less than $50 million in annual revenues.
### Classification as current and noncurrent

**US GAAP** does not require an entity to present a classified statement of financial position. Rather, it provides guidance on how to classify assets and liabilities as current or noncurrent if an entity chooses to do so.

Article 5 of SEC Regulation S-X (Rule 5-02) generally requires classification of assets and liabilities as current and noncurrent.

Article 5 generally applies to commercial and industrial entities while Articles 6, 7 and 9 apply to registered investment companies, insurance companies and banks, respectively. Those Articles have different requirements with respect to financial statement presentation (e.g., entities that apply Articles 6, 7 and 9 are not required to present a classified balance sheet).

**Classification as current and noncurrent**

IAS 1 requires an entity to present a classified statement of financial position unless a presentation in increasing or decreasing order of liquidity would be reliable and more relevant. IAS 1 also indicates that a presentation in order of liquidity is likely to be more relevant for an entity that does not supply goods or services within a clearly identifiable operating cycle.

### Implications:

Under US GAAP, comparative financial statements generally are presented; however, a single year may be presented in certain circumstances. Public companies must follow SEC rules, which generally require balance sheets for the two most recent years, while all other statements must cover the three-year period ending on the balance sheet date. Under IFRS, as a minimum comparative information must be disclosed in respect of the previous period for all amounts reported in the financial statements.

US GAAP has no general requirement to prepare the statement of financial position and income statement in accordance with a specific layout; however, public companies must follow the detailed requirements in SEC Regulation S-X. IAS 1 does not prescribe a standard layout, but does include a list of minimum items. These minimum items are less prescriptive than the requirements in SEC Regulation S-X.

US GAAP does not require presentation of a classified statement of financial position although it is required by SEC Regulation S-X for certain public companies. Under IFRS, an entity must present either a classified statement of financial position or one based on liquidity.

### Identified difference?

Describe: 
Click here to enter text.
2. Did the entity apply an accounting policy retrospectively or make a retrospective restatement of items in its financial statements or reclassify items in its financial statements?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 250-10-45</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.10(f), 41</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 250-10 does not require a statement of financial position as at the beginning of the earliest comparative period when an entity retrospectively applies a new accounting principle, or retrospectively applies a change in reporting entity, or restates prior period financial statements for a correction of an error.</td>
<td>IAS 1 requires a statement of financial position at the beginning of the preceding period when an entity applies an accounting policy retrospectively, or makes a retrospective restatement or reclassification that has a material effect on the balances at the beginning of the preceding period. When there is not a material effect on the comparative statement of financial position at the beginning of the preceding period, there is no need to present an additional statement of financial position. However, in such cases, an entity includes a statement in the notes that the retrospective restatement had no effect on the comparative statement of financial position. When an entity is required to present an additional statement of financial position as of the beginning of the preceding period, it must disclose information about the nature, amount and reason for the reclassification in accordance with IAS 1.41 and IAS 8.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

IFRS requires a third statement of financial position to be presented in these circumstances while US GAAP does not require any additional periods to be presented.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
3. Does the entity have deferred taxes classified as current?

Deferred tax assets are the deferred tax consequences attributable to deductible temporary differences and carryforwards. Deferred tax liabilities are the deferred tax consequences attributable to taxable temporary differences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-45-4 through 45-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-17, *Balance Sheet Classification of Deferred Taxes*, in a classified statement of financial position, an entity is required to separate deferred tax liabilities and assets into a current amount and a noncurrent amount. Deferred tax liabilities and assets are classified based on the nature of the related asset or liability giving rise to the temporary difference, except for tax losses and credit carryforwards, which are based on the expected timing of realization. Following the adoption of ASU 2015-17, an entity is required to classify all deferred tax liabilities and assets as noncurrent, instead of separating deferred taxes into current and noncurrent amounts.

(For public business entities (PBEs), ASU 2015-17 is effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those annual periods. For non-PBEs, it is effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within annual periods beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted. The amendments can be applied prospectively or retrospectively.) | When an entity presents a classified statement of financial position, it may not classify deferred tax assets and liabilities as current. |

Implications:

Prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-17, an entity is required to present deferred taxes as current or noncurrent. IFRS does not allow deferred taxes to be presented as current. Following the adoption of ASU 2015-17, there will no longer be a difference in classification of deferred taxes between US GAAP and IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
4. Did the entity refinance any short-term borrowings after the reporting period but before issuance of the financial statements?

Refinancing a short-term obligation on a long-term basis means either replacing it with a long-term obligation or with equity securities or renewing/extending/replacing it with short-term obligations for an uninterrupted period extending beyond one year from the date of the entity's statement of financial position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 470-10-45-12A through 45-21</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.72 through 73</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A short-term obligation should be excluded from current liabilities, if the entity has the intent to refinance the obligation on a long-term basis, and the intent to refinance the short-term obligation on a long-term basis is supported by the ability to consummate the refinancing in the following ways:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) after the date of the entity's statement of financial position but before the statement of financial position is issued or available to be issued, a long-term obligation or equity securities have been issued for the purpose of refinancing the short-term obligation on a long-term basis.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) before the statement of financial position is issued or available to be issued, the entity has entered into a financing agreement that permits the entity to refinance on a long-term basis on readily determinable terms, and:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) the agreement does not expire within one year from the statement of financial position date and during that period the agreement is not cancelable by the lender (except for violation of a provision with which compliance is objectively determinable or measureable)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) no violation of any provision in the agreement exists at the statement of financial position date or thereafter but prior to issuance of the statement of financial position (or if one exists a waiver has been obtained) and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) the lender is expected to be financially capable of honoring the agreement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If at the end of the reporting period, the entity expects and has the discretion to refinance or roll over the obligation for at least 12 months after the reporting period under an existing loan facility, it classifies the obligation as noncurrent. However, when refinancing or rolling over the obligation is not at the discretion of the entity (e.g., there is no arrangement for refinancing), it is classified as current even if an agreement to refinance on a long-term basis is completed after the reporting period but before the financial statements are authorized for issue.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Implications:

US GAAP allows a loan to be classified as noncurrent if a refinancing that meets specific criteria is completed after the statement of financial position date but before issuance of the financial statements. IFRS requires that at the end of the reporting period the entity expects and has the discretion to refinance or roll over the obligation for at least 12 months after the reporting period under an existing loan facility to classify the obligation as noncurrent.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

### Yes  No  Depends on policy election

---

**5. Was debt callable at the balance sheet date due to a covenant violation for which the entity received a waiver or loan modification after the balance sheet date?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 470-10-45-11 and 470-10-45-1 470-10-55-2 through 55-6</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.74 and 75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Debt that is callable at the balance sheet date must be classified as current unless: (1) the creditor has waived or subsequently lost the right to demand repayment (e.g., the entity received a waiver or cured the violation after the balance sheet date and the obligation is not callable when the financial statements are issued or are available to be issued) for more than one year from the statement of financial position date, or (2) for long-term debt that contains a grace period within which the borrower may cure the violation, it is probable that the violation will be cured within that period, thus preventing the debt from becoming callable. If the debt is callable at the balance sheet date due to a covenant violation at the balance sheet date or a covenant violation would have occurred absent a loan modification, <em>and</em> it is probable that the borrower will not be able to cure the default (i.e., comply with the covenant) at measurement dates that are within the next 12 months, the debt should be classified as current.</td>
<td>When an entity breaches a provision of a long-term loan arrangement on or before the end of the reporting period with the effect that the liability becomes payable on demand, it classifies the liability as current even if the lender agreed after the reporting period but before authorization of the financial statements for issue, not to demand payment as a consequence of the breach. However, if the lender agreed <em>before</em> the end of the reporting period to provide a grace period ending at least 12 months after the reporting period during which an entity can rectify the breach and the lender cannot demand immediate repayment, an entity classifies the liability as noncurrent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Under US GAAP, debt for which there has been a covenant violation may be presented as noncurrent in certain circumstances if a lender agreement to waive or modify the violated item exists before the financial statements are issued or available to be issued. IFRS requires that the debt be presented as current unless the lender agreement was reached before the balance sheet date.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

6. Does the entity have components of other comprehensive income?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 220-10- 45-1C, 45-14 and 45-14A</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.81A and 82A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The total of accumulated other comprehensive income is reported separately from retained earnings and additional paid in capital (APIC) in a statement of financial position. An entity should present all items that meet the definition of comprehensive income for the period in which those items are recognized. Components included in other comprehensive income should be classified based on their nature. An entity presents on the face of the financial statement or in a separate disclosure in the notes to the financial statements the changes in the accumulated balances for each component of comprehensive income included in that separate component of equity. In addition to the presentation of changes in accumulated balances, an entity presents separately for each component of other comprehensive income, current period reclassifications out of accumulated other comprehensive income and other amounts of current-period other comprehensive income. | IAS 1 does not require the presentation or disclosure of accumulated other comprehensive income in the statement of financial position. The other comprehensive income section of the statement of profit or loss and other comprehensive income should present line items for amounts of other comprehensive income in the period, classified by nature (excluding the share of the other comprehensive income of associates and joint ventures accounted for using the equity method) and grouped into those that, in accordance with other IFRSs:
   ▶ will not be reclassified subsequently to profit or loss; and
   ▶ will be reclassified subsequently to profit or loss when specific conditions are met. Additionally, the share of the other comprehensive income of associates and joint ventures accounted for using the equity method must be presented in aggregate as a single line item, classified between those items that will or will not be subsequently reclassified to profit or loss. |
Implications:

US GAAP requires the display of a total of accumulated other comprehensive income in the statement of financial position which IFRS does not specifically require.

IFRS requires that components of other comprehensive income that will be reclassified to profit or loss at some point in the future be presented separately from items that will never be reclassified. US GAAP does not have a similar requirement because US GAAP does not provide for components of accumulated other comprehensive income to be transferred directly to, or immediately reported in, retained earnings without being recycled through net income. Accordingly, an entity will have to determine if it has items that will never be reclassified out of accumulated other comprehensive income after the adoption of IFRS and report those items separately.

Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

7. Does the entity have equity method investees?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**US GAAP — 323-10-45-1 through 45-2; SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 5-03**

Under US GAAP, the investor’s share of earnings or losses of an investee(s) should ordinarily be shown in the income statement as a single amount. (Note however, that the investor’s share of extraordinary items\(^2\) and its share of accounting changes reported in the financial statements of the investee should be classified in a similar manner unless they are immaterial in the income statement of the investor in accordance with ASC 225-20.)

For entities not subject to other Articles in SEC Regulation S-X (e.g., investment companies, insurance companies, and banks), Rule 5-03 indicates that the equity in earnings of unconsolidated subsidiaries and 50% or less owned persons should be presented below income tax expense and above income or loss from continuing operations. It does indicate however, that if justified by the circumstances, this item may be presented in a different position and a different manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.82 and 86</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Under IFRS, the share of the profit or loss of associates and joint ventures accounted for using the equity method is a required line item in the statement of comprehensive income (or separate income statement, i.e., as a component of profit or loss, if two statements are being presented).

In general, IAS 1 indicates that an entity amends the ordering of items when this is necessary to explain the elements of financial performance.

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\(^2\) In January 2015, the FASB issued ASU 2015-01, which eliminated the concept of extraordinary items (and the related presentation and disclosure requirements) from US GAAP. ASU 2015-01 is effective in annual periods, and interim periods within those annual periods, beginning after 15 December 2015. See question 8 for further details.
Implications:

Earnings or losses of an equity method investee are presented as a required line item under both US GAAP and IFRS. Under SEC Rules, however, it is generally presented below the income tax expense line, while under IFRS there is no specific guidance as to whether the line item is presented before or after the income tax line.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

8. Does the entity present extraordinary items in its income statement?

Extraordinary items are defined in US GAAP as events and transactions that are distinguished by their unusual nature and by the infrequency of their occurrence. Thus, both of the following criteria should be met to classify an event or transaction as an extraordinary item:

1. Unusual nature — the underlying event or transaction should possess a high degree of abnormality and be of a type clearly unrelated to, or only incidentally related to, the ordinary and typical activities of the entity, taking into account the environment in which the entity operates.

2. Infrequency of occurrence — the underlying event or transaction should be of a type that would not reasonably be expected to recur in the foreseeable future, taking into account the environment in which the entity operates.

US GAAP — 225-20-45-9 and 45-16

Prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-01, *Simplifying Income Statement Presentation by Eliminating the Concept of Extraordinary Items*, extraordinary items should be segregated from the results of ordinary operations and shown separately in the income statement.

A material event or transaction that is unusual in nature or occurs infrequently but not both, and therefore does not meet both criteria for classification as an extraordinary item, should be reported as a separate component of income from continuing operations.

In 2015, ASU 2015-01, which eliminated the presentation of extraordinary items from US GAAP, was issued. Therefore, following the adoption of ASU 2015-01, the presentation of extraordinary items is prohibited.

Following the adoption of ASU 2015-01, a material event or transaction that is unusual in nature or occurs infrequently, or both, should be

IFRS — IAS 1.87, 97 and 98

An entity may not present any items of income or expense as extraordinary items.

When items of income or expense are material, an entity must disclose their nature and amount separately.
reported as a separate component of income from continuing operations.

(ASU 2015-01 is effective in annual periods, and interim periods within those annual periods, beginning after 15 December 2015. Early adoption is permitted.)

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-01, extraordinary items are required to be presented as a separate line item segregated from the results of ordinary operations, while IFRS prohibits this presentation.

Under US GAAP, amounts reflecting events that are unusual or infrequent (or both, following the adoption of ASU 2015-01) are recorded as a separate component of income from continuing operations. IFRS requires that when items of income or expense are material, their nature and amount should be disclosed separately either on the face of the statement of profit or loss, the statement of other comprehensive income or in the notes. The level of prominence given to such items is left to the judgment of the entity concerned.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**9. Does the entity classify its expenses solely by function without additional disclosure of certain expenses by nature (e.g., depreciation and amortization expense and employee benefits expense)?**

IAS 1 provides a discussion of the classification of expenses by function or nature. Function refers to the primary activities in which an entity is engaged, such as selling goods, providing services, manufacturing, advertising, marketing, business development or administration. Nature refers to the economic characteristics or attributes that distinguish assets, liabilities, and income and expense items that do not respond equally to similar economic events. Examples of an analysis by nature include separating revenues into wholesale and retail revenues or separating total cost of sales into materials, labor, transport, and energy costs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 225-10 and SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 5-03</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.99 through 105</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP does not require classification of income statement items by function or by nature. For entities not subject to other Articles in SEC Regulation S-X (e.g., investment companies, insurance companies, and banks), Rule 5-03 requires that certain amounts be separately stated (e.g., net sales of tangible products, income from rentals, cost of tangible goods sold, expenses applicable to rental income, other)</td>
<td>An entity must present an analysis of expenses recognized in profit or loss using a classification based on either their nature or their function within the entity, whichever provides information that is reliable and more relevant. Because information on the nature of expenses is useful in predicting future cash flows, additional disclosure is required when expenses are classified based on function.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

US GAAP does not require classification of income statement items by function or by nature. However, SEC registrants are required to present expenses in specific line items that are based on function. IFRS requires an entity to present expenses using either a classification by nature or function, whichever is reliable and more relevant, which may lead to differences in presentation. IFRS requires entities that present expenses classified by function to disclose additional information on the nature of expenses including depreciation and amortization expense and employee benefits expense, so entities that currently report expenses by function will be required to make additional disclosures of certain expenses by nature.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Entities should consider whether the systems are in place to collect relevant information on the nature of expenses for periods to be presented in their first reporting under IFRS in order to comply with the disclosure requirements discussed above, or to facilitate a change to presenting expenses by nature in the income statement, if desired.

10. Does the entity disclose changes in equity in the notes to the financial statements?

US GAAP — 505-10-50-2

When both financial position and results of operations are presented, disclosure of changes in the separate accounts comprising stockholders’ equity (in addition to retained earnings) and of the changes in the number of shares of equity securities during at least the most recent annual fiscal period and any subsequent interim period presented is required to make the financial statements sufficiently informative. Disclosure of such changes may take the form of separate statements or may be made in the basic financial statements or notes thereto.

IFRS — IAS 1.106

A statement of changes in equity is required for a complete set of financial statements. The statement must include:

- total comprehensive income for the period showing total amounts attributable to owners of the parent and to noncontrolling interest;
- for each component of equity, the effects of retrospective application/retrospective restatement recognized in accordance with IAS 8; and
- for each component of equity, a reconciliation between the carrying amount at the beginning and end of the period, separately disclosing changes resulting from profit or loss, other comprehensive income, and transactions with owners in their capacity as owners (showing separately contributions by and distributions to
owners and changes in ownership interests in subsidiaries that do not result in a loss of control).

### Implications:

US GAAP does not require a statement of changes in equity, only requiring that changes in each caption of stockholders’ equity be presented in either a footnote or a separate statement, while IFRS requires a statement of changes in equity which presents specific line items.

**Identified difference?**

**Yes** ☐  **No** ☐  **Depends on policy election** ☐

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**11. Does the entity have additional line items, headings or subtotals that it believes are relevant to an understanding of the entity’s financial performance, but that are not presented due to the SEC’s prohibition of non-GAAP measures in the financial statements?**

A non-GAAP measure, as defined by the SEC, is a numerical measure of a company’s historical or future financial performance, financial position or cash flows that excludes (includes) amounts, or is subject to adjustments that have the effect of excluding (including) amounts, that are included (excluded) in the most directly comparable measure calculated in accordance with GAAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — SEC Regulation S-K, Item 10</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1.85 and 86</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-GAAP measures are expressly prohibited in the financial statements and notes. SEC regulations place limitations on the presentation of non-GAAP financial measures in other parts of filings with the SEC. When a non-GAAP measure is presented, the entity must:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present, with equal or greater prominence, the most directly comparable financial measure calculated and presented in accordance with GAAP, and</td>
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<tr>
<td>numerically reconcile the non-GAAP financial measure, by schedule or other clearly understandable format, to the most directly comparable GAAP measure.</td>
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<tr>
<td>In addition, the entity must disclose the reasons why management believes the non-GAAP financial measure provides useful information to investors regarding the company’s financial condition and results of operations, and to the extent material, any additional purposes for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAS 1 permits an entity to present additional line items, headings and subtotals in the statement of profit or loss and other comprehensive income when such presentation is relevant to an understanding of the entity’s financial performance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In IAS 1.BC56, the Board notes that if an entity elects to disclose the results of operating activities, or a similar line item, the entity should ensure that the amount disclosed is representative of activities that would normally be regarded as “operating.” In the Board’s view, it would be misleading and would impair the comparability of financial statements if items of an operating nature were excluded from the results of operating activities, even if that had been industry practice. For example, it would be inappropriate to exclude items clearly related to operations (such as inventory write-downs and restructuring and relocation expenses) because they occur irregularly or infrequently or are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
which management uses the non-GAAP financial measure. unusual in amount. Similarly, it would be inappropriate to exclude items on the grounds that they do not involve cash flows, such as depreciation and amortization expenses.

**Implications:**

While US GAAP does not address the presentation of non-GAAP financial measures, SEC registrants must comply with regulations that restrict them or impose additional requirements. Despite these restrictions, the SEC staff has noted that the non-GAAP measures rule was not intended to prohibit additional useful captions and subtotals that are consistent with the underlying financial reporting basis. The SEC staff has indicated that it will evaluate compliance with IFRS and challenge the purpose and usefulness of unusual/additional measures and presentations that appear to be misleading or inconsistent with IAS 1.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12. Does the entity prepare interim financial information and have costs that benefit more than one interim period?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**US GAAP — 270-10-45-1, 45-6, 45-8 and 45-9**

Each interim period is viewed as an integral part of an annual period. As a result, certain costs that benefit more than one interim period may be allocated among those periods, resulting in deferral or accrual of certain costs.

**IFRS — IAS 34.29, 30 and 32**

Each interim period is viewed as a discrete reporting period. A cost that does not meet the definition of an asset at the end of an interim period is not deferred and a liability recognized at an interim reporting date must represent an existing obligation.

**Implications:**

The treatment of certain costs in interim periods that are deferred or accrued for under US GAAP may not qualify for deferral or accrual under IFRS. For example, under US GAAP, certain inventory cost variances (e.g., purchase price, wage rate, usage, efficiency or other variances) that are expected to be absorbed by year-end should be deferred at the interim balance sheet date. However, under IFRS, it is not appropriate to defer inventory cost variances that are expected to be absorbed by year-end.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

13. Does the entity have both receivables and payables with the same counterparty and a right of setoff?

Yes ☐ No ☐

As a general principle of financial reporting, assets and liabilities are reported separately, representing either resources or obligations of the company. However, both US GAAP and IFRS provide for certain assets and liabilities to be offset (i.e., reported on a net basis on the balance sheet) when a right of setoff exists and certain other conditions are met.

A right of setoff is a debtor’s legal right, by contract or otherwise, to settle or otherwise eliminate all or a portion of an amount due to a creditor by applying against that amount all or a portion of an amount due from the creditor.

### US GAAP — 210-20-45-1 through 45-17

A company may (as a policy election) offset assets against liabilities on its balance sheet when a right of setoff exists. A right of setoff exists when:

a) Each of two parties owes the other determinable amounts.

b) The reporting party has the right to set off amount owed with the amount owed by the other party.

c) The reporting party intends to set off.

d) The right of setoff is enforceable at law.

**Offsetting exceptions**

US GAAP allows offsetting for some derivative and sale and repurchase (and reverse sale and repurchase) contracts even when the right of setoff is conditional, there is no intention to set off, or such intention is conditional. See Questions 13(a) and 13(b) below for additional guidance.

Additionally, US GAAP permits certain offsetting practices within the broker-dealer, construction and depository and lending industries. See Questions 13(c), 13(d) and 13(e) below for additional guidance.

### IFRS — IAS 32.42-50, AG38 and AG39

Financial assets are required to be offset against financial liabilities and the net amount is presented on the balance sheet when, and only when, an entity:

a) currently has a legally enforceable right to set off the recognized amounts; and

b) intends either to settle on a net basis, or to realize the asset and settle the liability simultaneously.

When accounting for a transfer of a financial asset that does not qualify for derecognition, the entity must not offset the transferred asset and associated liability, even if it otherwise satisfies the offsetting criteria. IFRS does not permit any other exceptions to its offsetting requirements. AG38A though AG38D of IAS 32 clarifies the legally enforceable criterion. AG38F describes the characteristics of a gross settlement system that would meet the net settlement criterion.
13(a). Does the entity currently offset fair value amounts related to derivative contracts subject to a master netting agreement and present a net amount on the balance sheet?

A master netting agreement provides for the single net settlement of all financial instruments with a single counterparty in the event of default on, or termination of, any one contract. The accounting effect of the existence of a master netting agreement is analyzed differently under US GAAP and IFRS.

**US GAAP — 210-20-45 and 815-10-45-1 through 45-7**

ASC 815-10-45 describes the offsetting requirements for derivative assets and liabilities, which are the same as those conditions in ASC 210-20-45-1 (see Question 13 above), except that netting is permitted even if the reporting entity does not intend to settle net the derivative assets and liabilities in the ordinary course of business.

This exception to the general offsetting requirements applies only to derivative contracts that are recognized at fair value and subject to an enforceable master netting arrangement.

Similar to the offsetting guidance under ASC 210-20-45, presenting the fair value of derivative assets and liabilities on a net basis is an *election, not a requirement*. However, a reporting entity should not offset fair value amounts recognized for derivative instruments without also offsetting fair value amounts recognized for the right to reclaim cash collateral or the obligation to return cash collateral, if any, arising from the same master netting arrangement as the derivatives.

**IFRS — IAS 32.42 through 50, AG38 and AG39**

IFRS does not provide an exception for derivative contracts where there is no intent to settle net or simultaneously in all circumstances (i.e., during the ordinary course of business and in the event of default or bankruptcy of a party to the contract). Therefore, the mere existence of a master netting agreement is not a basis for net presentation.
13(b). Does the entity offset amounts recognized as payables under repurchase agreements against amounts recognized as receivables under reverse repurchase agreements and present as a net amount in the balance sheet?

In order to raise/invest short-term capital, entities (particularly financial institutions) enter into agreements for the sale/purchase of securities or other financial assets with the agreement to repurchase/resell the same securities or financial assets from/to the same buyer/seller for an agreed-upon price on a certain day. These transactions are typically accounted for as borrowings with the securities or financial assets serving as collateral.

For the party selling the security (and agreeing to repurchase it in the future) it is a repurchase agreement or repo; for the party on the other end of the transaction (purchasing the security and agreeing to sell in the future) it is a reverse repurchase agreement or reverse repo.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 210-20-45-1 through 45-17</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32.42 through 50, AG38 and AG39</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Notwithstanding the “intent to settle net” criterion in ASC 210-20-45-1(c) (see Question 13 above), an entity may, but is not required to, offset amounts recognized as payables under repos and amounts recognized as receivables under reverse repos if all of the following conditions are met:</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide an exception for repurchase agreements where there is no intent to settle net or simultaneously in all circumstances (i.e., during the ordinary course of business and in the event of default or bankruptcy of a party to the contract).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) The repo and reverse repo agreements are executed with the same counterparty.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) The repo and reverse repo agreements have the same explicit settlement date specified at the inception of the agreement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c) The repo and reverse repo agreements are executed in accordance with a master netting arrangement.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) The securities underlying the repo and reverse repo agreements exist in book entry form and can be transferred only by means of entries in the records of the transfer system operator or securities custodian.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) The repo and reverse repo agreements will be settled on a securities transfer system that operates in the manner as described in ASC 210-20-45-14 through 45-17. Additionally, cash settlements are made under a banking arrangement that provides daylight overdraft or other intraday credit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) The entity intends to use the same account at the clearing bank or other financial institution at the settlement date in transacting both the cash inflows resulting from the settlement of the reverse repo agreement and the cash outflows in settlement of the offsetting repo agreement.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13(c). Is the entity a broker-dealer in securities that offsets payables against receivables arising from unsettled regular-way trades?

The statement of financial condition of a broker-dealer registered with the US Securities and Exchange Commission should reflect all regular-way trades on a trade-date basis.

Per the FASB ASC glossary, regular-way trades include the following: (a) all transactions in exchange-traded financial instruments that are expected to settle within the standard settlement cycle of that exchange (for example, three days for United States securities exchanges); and (b) all transactions in cash-market-traded financial instruments that are expected to settle within the time frame prevalent or traditional for each specific instrument (for example, for U.S. government securities, one or two days).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 940-320-45-2 and 45-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32.42 through 50, AG38 and AG39</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payables and receivables arising from unsettled regular-way trades may be recorded net in an account titled net receivable (or payable) for unsettled regular-way trades. The accounting is unique to the transaction described and is available to entities that follow the specialized reporting guidance for brokers and dealers in securities. The offsetting criteria in ASC 210-20-45 and ASC 815-10-45 do not apply.</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide any exceptions or special application of the offsetting conditions for specific industries.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13(d). Is the entity a construction contractor that offsets advances received on cost-plus contracts?

A cost-plus contract, also termed a cost reimbursement contract, is a contract where a contractor is paid for all of its allowed expenses to a set limit plus additional payment to allow for a profit. Cost-reimbursement contracts contrast with fixed-price contract, in which the contractor is paid a negotiated amount regardless of incurred expenses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 910-405-45-1 and 45-2</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1, IAS 11, IAS 32.42 through 50, AG38 and AG39</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An advance received on a cost-plus contract should not be offset against accumulated costs unless it is a payment on account of work in progress. Such advances are made to provide a</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide any exceptions or special application of the offsetting conditions for specific industries.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
revolving fund and are not applied as partial payment until the contract is nearly or fully completed.

Advances that are payments on account of work in progress should be shown as a deduction from the related asset.

The accounting is unique to the arrangement described and is available to entities that follow the specialized reporting guidance for construction contractors. The offsetting criteria in ASC 210-20-45 and ASC 815-10-45 do not apply.

IAS 1.32 specifies that an entity “shall not offset assets and liabilities or income and expenses, unless required or permitted by an IFRS.”

IAS 11 specifies the accounting for construction contracts, but does not specifically require or permit offsetting for advances received on cost-plus construction contracts.

IAS 11.30 notes that advances generally do not reflect the work performed. As a result, advances would not affect contract revenues or expenses recognized. Furthermore, IAS 11.40(b) requires separate disclosure of advances received.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe:</td>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13(e). Is the entity a bank or savings institution that offsets reciprocal account balances with other banks in the process of collection or payment?

Reciprocal balances arise when two depository institutions maintain deposit accounts with each other, i.e., when a reporting bank has both a “due from” and a “due to” balance with another depository institution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 942-305-45-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32.42 through 50, AG38 and AG39</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocal account balances should be reported net if they will be offset in the process of collection or payment. Overdrafts of such accounts should be reclassified as liabilities, unless the financial institution has other accounts at the same financial institution against which such overdrafts can be offset. The accounting is unique to the arrangements described and is available to entities that follow the specialized reporting guidance for banks and savings institutions. The offsetting criteria in ASC 210-20-45 and ASC 815-10-45 do not apply.</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide any exceptions or special application of the offsetting conditions for specific industries.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe:</td>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Implications:

The US GAAP criteria and the IFRS criteria for offsetting are very similar. However, when the criteria are all met, net presentation is elective under US GAAP but mandatory under IFRS. That difference alone would imply that net presentation under IFRS is more common. However, that is not necessarily the case because of key distinctions between US GAAP and IFRS relating to derivatives subject to master netting arrangements, certain repurchase and reverse repurchase arrangements and industry-specific offsetting guidance. Because these exceptions do not exist in IFRS, there is notably less net presentation in IFRS balance sheets in comparison to US GAAP balance sheets. This is particularly true for companies that have large derivative portfolios comprised of bilateral contracts that are not cleared through a settlement mechanism in a manner such that the outcome is, in effect, equivalent to net settlement.

### IFRS 1 implications:

Entities upon adoption will need to evaluate all financial assets and financial liabilities to determine whether the netting conditions are met. If so, net presentation of these financial assets and financial liabilities are required in the opening IFRS balance sheet. Notably however, many entities that are permitted to net and elect to net under ASC 210-20 and 815-10 may find that IFRS will require a gross presentation.
Consolidation

Similarities:
Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the underlying determination of whether or not entities are consolidated by a reporting entity is based on control although differences exist in the consideration/definition of control.

Generally, under both US GAAP and IFRS, in consolidated financial statements, all entities subject to the control of the reporting entity must be consolidated (note that there are limited exceptions in both US GAAP and IFRS in certain specialized industries). Under IFRS, “Group financial statements” has a similar meaning as “consolidated financial statements” under US GAAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, Consolidation</td>
<td>► IAS 27 (revised 2011), Separate Financial Statements (IAS 27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 12-04, Condensed Financial Information of Registrant</td>
<td>► IFRS 3 (revised 2008), Business Combinations (IFRS 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 946, Financial Services — Investment Companies</td>
<td>► IFRS 10, Consolidated Financial Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>► IFRS 12, Disclosure of Interests in Other Entities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
IFRS 10, Consolidated Financial Statements provides a single control model within IFRS that is applied to all entities, including structured entities. By providing a single definition of control for all entities, the IASB expects that consolidation will occur on a more consistent basis, thereby making the financial statements more comparable and understandable.

The FASB chose not to pursue a single consolidation model and instead set out to make targeted revisions to the consolidation models within US GAAP. In February 2015, the FASB issued ASU 2015-02, Amendments to the Consolidation Analysis, which eliminates the deferral of FAS 167 and makes changes to both the variable interest model and the voting model. For public business entities, the guidance is effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2015 and interim periods therein. Early adoption is permitted, including in an interim period. In June 2016, the FASB proposed additional amendments to the primary beneficiary determination related to interests held through related parties that are under common control. A final ASU is expected in Q4 2016.

Differences continue to exist between consolidation guidance in US GAAP and IFRS, including: scope, de facto control, options and potential voting rights, uniform accounting policies, and the same year ends between the reporting entity and the consolidated entities.

The FASB and IASB also jointly worked on a project to define an investment company and how it accounts for its investments. As a result of those amendments, the definition of an investment company is more closely aligned but some differences exist. Under both US GAAP and IFRS, an investment company generally accounts for its controlled investments at fair value.

In June 2016, the FASB issued an exposure draft that is intended to clarify the accounting for sales of in-substance nonfinancial assets after an entity has adopted ASC 606, Revenue from Contracts with Customers, which could affect the scope of ASC 810 and the recognition of profit in certain transactions.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

A first-time adopter may have consolidated an interest in another entity under US GAAP that does not meet the definition of a subsidiary under IFRS. In this case, the first-time adopter should first determine the appropriate classification of the interest under IFRS and then apply the applicable first-time adoption rules in IFRS 1.

Also, a first-time adopter may not have been consolidating an entity under US GAAP that now should be consolidated. If an entity was not consolidated previously, the reporting entity needs to identity assets and liabilities of the controlled entity as of the date of transition and adjust the carrying amount to the amount that IFRS would require in the controlled entity’s separate non-consolidated financial statements.

IFRS 1 also addresses various other aspects of consolidation and provides guidance on circumstances such as when controlled entities become a first-time adopter later than the parent as well as when a parent becomes a first-time adopter later than its controlled entities, and how a parent should account for its investments in consolidated entities when presenting separate non-consolidated financial statements upon adoption of IFRS.

In addition, IFRS 1 provides that a first-time adopter should apply the transition provision in IFRS 11 on the date of transition to IFRS. When changing the proportionate consolidation to the equity method, a first time adopter tests the equity method investment for impairment as of the date of transition, and any resulting impairment is recognized as an adjustment to retained earnings as of the date of transition.

1. Does the reporting entity have variable interest entities (VIEs) or interests in other entities?  

Under the “Variable Interest Entities” subsections within each of ASC 810-10’s sections, an entity is considered a VIE if: (1) it has an insufficient amount of equity at risk for the entity to carry on its principal operations without additional subordinated financial support provided by any of the parties, including equity holders, (2) as a group, the equity holders at risk lack the characteristics of a controlling financial interest, or (3) the entity is structured with non-substantive voting rights.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 810-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 10, IFRS 12</th>
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<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, all entities within the scope of ASC 810-10’s VIE guidance are first evaluated for consolidation as potential VIEs under the “Variable Interest Entities” subsections within each of ASC 810-10’s sections. If an entity is determined to be a VIE, guidance applicable to VIEs in each of ASC 810-10’s sections is followed. Under this model, consolidation is determined based on the entity’s variable interests and not necessarily on its outstanding voting shares. Variable interests include equity investments, loans, leases, derivatives, guarantees, service and management contracts, and other interests that expose their holders to the risks and rewards of the entity. The party that has both: (1) the power to direct the activities of a VIE that most significantly impact the entity’s economic performance (power) and (2) the obligation to absorb losses of the entity or the</td>
<td>Under IFRS, all entities, including structured entities, are evaluated for consolidation based on the single control model in IFRS 10. IFRS 10 states that “an investor controls an investee when it is exposed, or has rights, to variable returns from its involvement with the investee and has the ability to affect those returns through its power over the investee.” (Refer also to Question 2, which describes the concept of potential voting rights and Question 4, which describes the concept of de facto control.) IFRS 12 defines a structured entity as “an entity that has been designed so that voting or similar rights are not the dominant factor in deciding who controls the entity, such as when any voting rights relate to administrative tasks only and the relevant activities are directed by means of contractual arrangements.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
right to receive benefits from the entity that could potentially be significant to the VIE (benefits) is the primary beneficiary and consolidates the VIE. The power and benefits analysis is performed qualitatively.

If an entity is not determined to be a VIE or does not fall within the scope of the VIE guidance, the entity is considered a voting interest entity and is evaluated for consolidation based on voting interests to determine whether the reporting entity controls and therefore consolidates. Under US GAAP, in general, the majority voting interest holder of a voting interest entity (i.e., ownership of more than 50% of the outstanding voting shares of an entity) consolidates another entity. Before the adoption of ASU 2015-02, the general partner of limited partnership (or similar entity) is presumed to control. After the adoption of ASU 2015-02, a single limited partner that is able to exercise substantive kick-out rights will consolidate a partnership.

### Implications:

IFRS 10 is expected to yield similar consolidation conclusions to US GAAP. However, because some differences continue to exist (e.g., de facto control, potential voting rights), it is possible that different consolidation conclusions may be reached under IFRS than are reached under US GAAP. This may result in first-time adopters who reported under US GAAP coming to different consolidation conclusions on the first-time adopter’s date of transition to IFRS.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

### 2. Does the reporting entity have an interest in another entity that is subject to potential voting rights?

Potential voting rights may be in the form of options, convertible instruments (debt or equity), and/or warrants. These potential voting rights may be held by the reporting entity or by other parties.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The FASB’s determination of control is based on existing voting rights or in the case of variable interest entities, power and benefits as discussed in Question 1 above. In general, potential voting</td>
<td>When assessing control, an investor considers its potential voting rights as well as potential voting rights held by other parties, to determine whether it has power. Potential voting rights are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consolidation</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>rights are <em>not</em> considered in the determination of control.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rights to obtain voting rights of an investee, such as those arising from convertible instruments or options, including forward contracts. Those potential voting rights are considered only if the rights are substantive. For example, the holder of potential voting rights in an investee should consider the exercise price and whether the right is currently exercisable or will become exercisable when the decisions about the relevant activities need to be made. The terms and conditions of potential voting rights are more likely to be substantive when the instrument is currently exercisable, in the money or the investor would benefit for other reasons (e.g., by realizing synergies between the investor and the investee) from the exercise or conversion of the instrument.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>When considering potential voting rights, an investor considers the purpose and design of the instrument, as well as the purpose and design of any other involvement the investor has with the investee. This includes an assessment of the various terms and conditions of the instrument as well as the investor's apparent expectations, motives and reasons for agreeing to those terms and conditions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>If the investor also has voting or other decision-making rights relating to the investee's activities, the investor assesses whether those rights, in combination with potential voting rights, give the investor power. Substantive potential voting rights alone, or in combination with other rights, can give an investor the current ability to direct the relevant activities.</td>
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</table>

| **Implications:** |
| Due to the difference between US GAAP and IFRS on how potential voting rights are considered in determining whether a reporting entity controls another entity, a different conclusion on consolidation may be reached. |

| **Identified difference?** |
| **Describe:** |
| Click here to enter text. |
3. **Is the reporting entity an investment company or does it have interests in investment companies?**

Venture capital organizations, mutual funds, unit trusts and similar entities are usually considered to be investment companies.

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<tr>
<td>An investment company within the scope of ASC 946 does not consolidate an investee that is not an investment company or apply ASC 805. Instead, an investment company measures its equity investments at fair value through profit or loss. However, an exception occurs if the investment company has an investment in an operating entity that provides services to the investment company (e.g., an investment adviser or transfer agent). A parent of an investment company does not consolidate entities it controls through an investment company. Instead, a parent retains the specialized industry accounting principles in consolidation. That is, a non-investment company parent of an investment company would retain the investment company subsidiary’s fair value accounting in the parent’s consolidated financial statements. US GAAP is silent on whether an investment company should consolidate an investee that is an investment company. Mixed practice exists but investment companies often consolidate wholly owned investment companies. SEC registrants should also consider the views expressed by the SEC staff in the Division of Investment Management in October 2014.</td>
<td>IFRS uses the term “investment entity.” An investment entity does not consolidate its subsidiaries or apply IFRS 3 when it obtains control of another entity. Instead, an investment entity measures an investment in a subsidiary at fair value through profit or loss in accordance with IAS 39. However, if an investment entity has a subsidiary that provides services that relate to the investment entity’s investment activities, it consolidates that subsidiary and applies the requirements of IFRS 3 to the acquisition of any such subsidiary. A parent of an investment entity consolidates all entities that it controls, including those controlled through an investment entity subsidiary, unless the parent itself is an investment entity. That is, a non-investment entity parent of an investment entity does not get to retain the subsidiary’s fair value accounting in its consolidated financial statements but should consolidate the subsidiary and all of its underlying controlled investments. IFRS refers to “subsidiaries” because the scope of the IASB’s project on investment entities differs from the scope of investment company guidance under US GAAP. The IASB added the project only to provide an exception to consolidation requirements for a class of entities. The IASB did not seek to comprehensively address accounting and reporting by investment entities. Consequently, under IFRS an entity must have at least one controlled investee to be within the scope of the investment entities guidance. However, an investment entity may still apply fair value to non-controlled investees through other IFRS. For example, IAS 28 permits venture capitalists, venture capital organizations, mutual funds, unit trusts and similar entities to measure their investments at fair value. Also, IAS 39 also provides fair value measurement guidance for financial instruments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

The assessment for determining whether an entity is an investment company under US GAAP is similar under IFRS, except under IFRS an investment company must measure and evaluate the performance of substantially all of its investments on a fair value basis and must have an exit strategy for investments without stated maturity dates. Also, under IFRS an investment company may provide substantive investing-related services to third parties. Therefore, while the assessments are similar, these differences could result in different conclusions regarding whether an entity meets the definition of an investment company.

Another significant difference is the accounting retained by an investment company’s parent. As described above, US GAAP does not prescribe different accounting depending on whether the parent is or is not an investment company. However, under IFRS only a parent that also meets the definition of an investment entity retains its subsidiary’s accounting, which generally is fair value.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

4. Does the reporting entity have de facto control over any non-consolidated entities?

De facto control means to be in a position to exercise control without legally having such power.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The concept of de facto control does not exist under US GAAP and is not considered in assessing whether a reporting entity has a controlling financial interest in another entity. Under the voting interest model, all companies in which a reporting entity has a controlling financial interest are to be consolidated.</td>
<td>The concept of de facto control exists under IFRS and is considered by the reporting entity in determining the accounting policy with regard to the scope of the consolidated financial statements. Under the de facto control concept, an entity holding a noncontrolling interest may control another entity in the absence of any formal arrangements that would give it a majority of the voting rights. Two common examples of de facto control that may result in a conclusion that the reporting entity controls are when other shareholdings are widely dispersed, or when a sufficient number of other shareholders regularly fail to exercise their rights as shareholders (e.g., to vote at general meetings) such that the noncontrolling interest shareholder wields the majority of votes actually cast.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Implications:

The notion of de facto control exists only under IFRS and may result in the consolidation of certain entities that are not consolidated under US GAAP.
### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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### 5. Can a gain or loss be recognized upon consolidation of an entity that is not a business?

In both US GAAP and IFRS, a business is an integrated set of activities and assets that is capable of being conducted and managed for the purpose of providing a return in the form of dividends, lower costs, or other economic benefits directly to investors or other owners, members, or participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 810-10-30-3, 30-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 3.2(b)</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| If a reporting entity becomes the primary beneficiary of a VIE that is not a business, and consolidation of the VIE is required, the reporting entity initially measures and recognizes the assets (except for goodwill) and liabilities of the VIE in accordance with ASC 805. The reporting entity recognizes a gain or loss for the difference between:  
  - the sum of: the fair value of any consideration paid, the fair value of any noncontrolling interests, and the reported amount of any previously held interests; and  
  - the net amount of the VIE's identifiable assets and liabilities recognized.  
  No goodwill is recognized if the VIE is not a business. | If an entity is acquired that does not meet the definition of a business, the reporting entity should identify and recognize the individual identifiable assets acquired and liabilities assumed. The cost of the entity should be allocated to the individual identifiable assets and liabilities on the basis of their relative fair values at the date of purchase. No gain or loss is recognized.  
  No goodwill is recognized upon the acquisition of an entity that is not a business. |

**Convergence considerations:**

See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for discussion of this guidance.

**Implications:**

Upon the initial consolidation of an entity that is not a business, a gain or a loss may be required to be recognized under US GAAP while no such gain or loss would be recognized under IFRS since the entire cost of the acquisition is allocated to the individual identifiable assets acquired and liabilities assumed. This allocation under IFRS will likely result in different balance sheet and income statement amounts on the reporting entity’s consolidated financial statements.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
6. Do any consolidated entities apply different accounting policies from those of the reporting entity?

A reporting entity that reports under US GAAP and its consolidated entities may have different accounting policies, especially when the consolidated entity was recently acquired, the consolidated entity is a public company or the consolidated entity uses specialized industry accounting principles.

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The reporting entity and the consolidated entities are not required to have the same accounting policies.</td>
<td>The reporting entity and its consolidated entities are required to have the same accounting policies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under IFRS, when the accounting policies of the reporting entity differ from those of the consolidated entities, consolidation adjustments are needed to conform the accounting policies. To make such adjustments, it is crucial that controls and procedures be in place to obtain necessary financial information accurately and timely to prepare the consolidated financial statements under uniform accounting policies.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
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</table>
7. Do any consolidated entities have different reporting dates from those of the reporting entity?

A reporting entity that reports under US GAAP and its consolidated entities may not have the same reporting dates due to various circumstances. For example, as a result of different local regulatory filing requirements, a reporting entity in the US may have a 31 December year end while its consolidated subsidiary in another country (e.g., Japan) may have a 31 March year end.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 810-10-45-12</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 10.B92-B93</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, the reporting entity and the consolidated entities are permitted to have different year-ends of up to three months.</td>
<td>Under IFRS, the financial statements of a parent and its consolidated subsidiaries are prepared as of the same date. When the end of the reporting period differs for the parent and its subsidiary, the subsidiary prepares (for consolidation purposes) additional financial statements as of the same date as the financial statements of the parent unless it is impracticable to do so. IFRS 10 does not clarify what is meant by “impracticable” in this context but it may reasonably be assumed that the IASB intended the same meaning as in IAS 1 (i.e., that the entity cannot comply with the requirement after making every effort to do so).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The effects of significant events occurring between the reporting dates of the reporting entity and the controlled entities are disclosed in the financial statements.</td>
<td>However, when the difference between the end of the reporting period of the parent and subsidiary is three months or less, the financial statements of the subsidiary may be adjusted for the effects of significant transactions and events, rather than preparing additional financial statements as the parent’s reporting date.</td>
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</table>

Implications:

Under IFRS, different reporting dates between the reporting entity and its subsidiaries of up to three months are allowed only if it has been determined to be impracticable to prepare the consolidated financial statements as of the same date. Furthermore, even if it is determined that it is impracticable to prepare the consolidated financial statements as of the same year-end, IFRS requires that adjustments (and not only the disclosures as is the case under US GAAP) be made for significant events occurring between the reporting dates of the reporting entity and the controlled entities. As a result, adequate controls and procedures should be in place to obtain quantifiable financial information to prepare the consolidated financial statements accurately and on a timely basis.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.
### 8. Has there been a decrease in ownership interest in a subsidiary or the sale or transfer of a group of assets?

A parent’s ownership interest in a subsidiary might decrease, for example, if the parent sells some of its ownership interest in its subsidiary or the subsidiary sells additional ownership interests.

A parent may sell or transfer a group of assets that constitutes a business in exchange for a noncontrolling interest in another entity.

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<tr>
<td><strong>Without loss of control</strong>&lt;br&gt;Transactions that result in decreases in a parent’s ownership interest in a subsidiary without a loss of control are accounted for as equity transactions in the consolidated entity (that is, no gain or loss is recognized) for either of the following:&lt;br&gt;1. A subsidiary that is a business or a nonprofit activity, except for either of the following:&lt;br&gt;   a. A sale of in substance real estate&lt;br&gt;   b. A conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights&lt;br&gt;2. A subsidiary that is not a business or a nonprofit activity if the substance of the transaction is not addressed directly by other ASC Topics</td>
<td><strong>Without loss of control</strong>&lt;br&gt;The guidance is consistent with US GAAP, except that this guidance applies to all subsidiaries under IFRS 10, even those that are not businesses or nonprofit activities or those that involve sales of in substance real estate or conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights. IFRS 10 also does not address whether that guidance should be applied to transactions involving non-subsidiaries that are businesses or nonprofit activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loss of control</strong>&lt;br&gt;In certain transactions that result in a loss of control of a subsidiary or a group of assets, any retained noncontrolling investment in the former subsidiary or group of assets is remeasured to fair value on the date control is lost. The gain or loss on remeasurement is included in income along with the gain or loss on the ownership interest sold.&lt;br&gt;This accounting is limited to the following transactions:&lt;br&gt;1. Loss of control of a subsidiary that is a business or a nonprofit activity, except for either of the following:&lt;br&gt;   a. A sale of in substance real estate&lt;br&gt;   b. A conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights</td>
<td><strong>Loss of control</strong>&lt;br&gt;The guidance is consistent with US GAAP, except that this guidance applies to all subsidiaries under IFRS 10, even those that are not businesses or nonprofit activities or those that involve sales of in substance real estate or conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights. However, the gain or loss resulting from the loss of control of a subsidiary that does not constitute a business in a transaction involving an associate or a joint venture that is accounted for using the equity method is recognized only to the extent of the unrelated investors’ interests in that associate or joint venture.3&lt;br&gt;IFRS 10 also does not address whether that guidance should be applied to transactions involving non-subsidiaries that are businesses or nonprofit activities. IFRS 10 does not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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3 Sale or Contribution of Assets between an Investor and its Associate or Joint Venture, Amendments to IFRS 10 and IAS 28 was issued by the IASB in September 2014. In December 2015, the IASB indefinitely deferred the effective date of this amendment. However, early adoption of this amendment is still available.
2. The derecognition of a group of assets that is a business or a nonprofit activity, except for either of the following:
   a. A sale of in substance real estate
   b. A conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights
3. Loss of control of a subsidiary that is not a business or a nonprofit activity if the substance of the transaction is not addressed directly by other ASC Topics

Spinoffs
If a parent deconsolidates a subsidiary or derecognizes a group of assets through a nonreciprocal transfer to owners, such as a spinoff, the accounting guidance in ASC 845-10 applies. A pro-rata spinoff of a business is accounted for at carrying amount. That is, no gain or loss is recognized.

Spinoffs
If a parent deconsolidates a subsidiary or derecognizes a group of assets through a nonreciprocal transfer to owners, such as a spinoff, the accounting guidance in IFRIC 17 applies. A pro-rata spinoff of a business is accounted for at fair value. However, IFRIC 17 does not apply to the distribution of a non-cash asset (or business) that is ultimately controlled by the same party or parties before and after the distribution.

Implications:
IFRS guidance on accounting for decreases in ownership of subsidiaries generally is consistent with US GAAP. However, IFRS guidance applies to all subsidiaries, even those that are not businesses or nonprofit activities or those that involve sales of in substance real estate or conveyance of oil and gas mineral rights. In addition, IFRS guidance on how to account for the gain or loss resulting from the loss of control of a subsidiary that does not constitute a business in a transaction involving an associate or a joint venture that is accounted for using the equity method differs from US GAAP. IFRS guidance also does not address whether that guidance should be applied to transactions involving nonprofit activities. Differences also may arise in the accounting for a spinoff.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.
9. In addition to consolidated financial statements, does the reporting entity also present its own parent-only (i.e., separate or non-consolidated) financial statements?

In addition to consolidated financial statements, there may be circumstances in which an investor (parent) may choose or be required to present parent-only (i.e., separate, or non-consolidated) financial information. However such financial statements are not a valid substitute for consolidated financial statements.

For example, when the transfer of assets from subsidiaries to the parent are restricted, pursuant to the SEC’s Regulation S-X, Rule 12-04, condensed non-consolidated financial information may be required with respect to the parent entity’s financial position, cash flows and results of operations. Under IFRS, there is a limited exemption from preparing consolidated financial statements for a parent company that is itself a wholly owned subsidiary, or is partially owned subsidiary, if certain criteria are met.

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<tr>
<td><strong>Presentation of consolidated financial statements</strong></td>
<td><strong>Presentation of consolidated financial statements</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>In some cases parent-entity financial statements may be needed, in addition to consolidated financial statements, to indicate adequately the position of bondholders and other creditors or preferred shareholders of the parent. Consolidating financial statements, in which one column is used for the parent and other columns for particular subsidiaries or groups of subsidiaries, often are an effective means of presenting the pertinent information. However, consolidated financial statements are the general-purpose financial statements of a parent having one or more subsidiaries; thus, parent-entity financial statements are not a valid substitute for consolidated financial statements.</td>
<td>A parent, other than a parent described below, shall present consolidated financial statements in which it consolidates its investments in subsidiaries. A parent need not present consolidated financial statements if and only if:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the parent is itself a wholly-owned subsidiary, or is a partially-owned subsidiary of another entity and its other owners, including those not otherwise entitled to vote, have been informed about, and do not object to, the parent not presenting consolidated financial statements;</td>
<td>► the parent’s debt or equity instruments are not traded in a public market (a domestic or foreign stock exchange or an over-the-counter market, including local and regional markets);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the parent did not file, nor is it in the process of filing, its financial statements with a securities commission or other regulatory organization for the purpose of issuing any class of instruments in a public market; and</td>
<td>► the ultimate or any intermediate parent of the parent produces consolidated financial statements available for public use that comply with IFRS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the ultimate or any intermediate parent of the parent produces consolidated financial statements available for public use that comply with IFRS.</td>
<td>An entity is required to present consolidated financial statements for the reporting period in which it has a subsidiary, regardless of whether or not it has any investments in subsidiaries at the end of the reporting period. This same</td>
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</table>
Measurement of investments in non-consolidated financial statements

When, in addition to consolidated financial statements, the reporting entity also presents separate parent company non-consolidated financial statements, investments in controlled entities are presented using the equity method.

Measurement of investments in non-consolidated financial statements

When separate non-consolidated financial statements are prepared, investments in controlled entities that are not classified as held for sale (or included in a disposal group that is classified as held for sale) in accordance with IFRS 5 are accounted for:

► at cost; or
► at fair value in accordance with IAS 39 or
► using the equity method in accordance with IAS 28.

Implications:

Under US GAAP, the preparation of consolidated financial statements is required, with certain exceptions. Under IFRS, there is a limited exemption from preparing consolidated financial statements for a parent company that is itself a wholly owned subsidiary, or is partially owned subsidiary, if certain criteria are met.

Due to the different accounting methods by which the parent may account for and present its investment in controlled entities under US GAAP and IFRS, parent-only non-consolidated financial statements may result in different financial position, cash flows and results of operations. Furthermore, a parent will need to implement necessary controls and procedures to properly account for its investment in controlled entities on the cost or fair value basis, if it does not use the equity method.

If investments in controlled entities are to be accounted for at fair value under IFRS, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Under IFRS 1, in its separate opening IFRS non-consolidated financial statements, an entity can determine the cost of investments in subsidiaries, jointly controlled entities or associates using one of the following amounts: (1) cost determined in accordance with IAS 27, (2) at the fair value of the investment at the date of transition to IFRS, determined in accordance with IAS 39 or (3) the previous GAAP carrying amount of the investment at the date of transition to IFRS. This determination is to be made for each investment rather than being a policy decision.

If the entity uses the equity method to account for its investments in subsidiaries, jointly controlled entities or associates, it has the option to apply the exemption for past business combinations to the acquisition of the equity method investment. See the discussion of IFRS 1 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication for further details.
Joint ventures and joint operations

Similarities:

Under US GAAP, a joint venture can generally be defined as an entity whose operations and activities are jointly controlled by its equity investors. This concept is similar to the concept of a joint venture under IFRS. Under IFRS, a joint venture is a joint arrangement conducted through a separate vehicle (e.g., a legal entity, such as a corporation or a partnership) in which two or more parties share joint control and only have rights to the net assets of the arrangement.

While US GAAP only addresses the accounting for joint ventures, IFRS addresses two types of joint arrangements: (1) joint operations and (2) joint ventures. The common characteristics shared by the two types of arrangements are that two or more investors are bound by a contractual arrangement and the contractual arrangement establishes joint control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 323, Investments — Equity Method</td>
<td>► IAS 28, Investments in Associates and Joint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Joint Ventures</td>
<td>Ventures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, Consolidation</td>
<td>► IFRS 5, Non-current Assets Held for Sale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 845, Nonmonetary Transactions</td>
<td>and Discontinued Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 12-04,</td>
<td>► IFRS 11, Joint Arrangements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condensed Financial Information of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registrant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

Neither the IASB nor the FASB has any current plans to converge the guidance for joint ventures or joint operations. See the discussion of convergence in the “Equity method investments / Associates” section of this publication for details on other FASB and IASB projects related to equity method of accounting.

In June 2016, the FASB issued an exposure draft that is intended to clarify the accounting for sales of in-substance nonfinancial assets after an entity has adopted ASC 606, Revenue from Contracts with Customers, which could affect the initial measurement of a joint venture and the elimination of profit in certain transactions.

In June 2016, the IASB issued an exposure draft to eliminate diversity in practice in accounting for previously held interests in the assets and liabilities of a joint operation that meets the definition of a business for transactions in which an entity obtains control or maintaining joint control of the joint operation.

Equity method of accounting:

Joint ventures are accounted for using the equity method of accounting under both US GAAP and IFRS. Therefore, the “Equity method investments / Associates” section should also be completed with this section because duplicative comments have not been included in this section.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

A first-time IFRS adopter may have consolidated an investment under US GAAP that does not meet the definition of a subsidiary under IFRS. For example, an investor may have been required to consolidate an entity under the “Variable Interest Entities” subsection within each of ASC’s 810-10 sections that would not be consolidated under IFRS. In this case, the first-time adopter should first determine the appropriate classification of the investment under IFRS and then apply the first-time adoption rules in IFRS 1. If such previously consolidated investments should be accounted for as a joint venture under IFRS, first-time adopters applying the business combinations exemption (see the discussion of IFRS 1 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication for further details) should also apply that exemption to past acquisitions of investments in joint ventures. If the business combinations exemption was not applied or the entity did not acquire the investment in the joint venture, IFRS 11 should be applied retrospectively.

If an investor adopts IFRS later than its joint venture, the investor measures the assets and liabilities of the joint venture in its consolidated financial statements at the same carrying amounts as reported in the IFRS-based financial statements of the joint venture after adjusting for consolidation and equity accounting adjustments, unifying accounting policies and for the effects of the business combination in which the entity acquired the joint venture.

Investors with global operations that have not yet adopted IFRS may be affected by this exemption, as it is likely some of their foreign joint ventures have already adopted IFRS in their financial statements. In such situations, the investor cannot revise the amounts reported at the joint venture levels. Since the joint venture has already adopted IFRS, it cannot adopt IFRS a second time. Instead, except for uniform accounting policies, consolidation, and equity accounting adjustments for the effect of business combinations, the investor continues to report the balances already being reported in the financial statements of the joint venture.

In addition, IFRS 1 provides that a first-time adopter should apply the transition provision in IFRS 11 on the date of transition to IFRS. When changing the proportionate consolidation to the equity method, a first time adopter tests the equity method investment for impairment as of the date of transition, and any resulting impairment is recognized as an adjustment to retained earnings as of the date of transition.

1. Has the investor entered into any contractual agreements with another party(ies) that may provide for joint control over an activity or an entity?  

Yes ☐ No ☐

IFRS addresses the financial reporting by entities that have joint arrangements with other parties. In a joint arrangement, two or more parties are bound by a contractual arrangement, and the contractual arrangement establishes joint control over the activities of the arrangement.

Joint arrangements are established for many purposes (e.g., as a way for parties to share costs and risks, or as a way to provide the parties with access to new technology or new markets) and use different structures and legal forms. The activities of a joint arrangement may be conducted through a separate vehicle (e.g., a legal entity, such as a corporation or a partnership).

IFRS addresses two categories of joint arrangements: (1) joint operations and (2) joint ventures. In a joint operation, the parties with joint control have direct rights to assets and obligations for liabilities of the arrangement. A joint operation may or may not be conducted through a separate vehicle. Conversely, in a joint venture, the parties with joint control only have rights to the net assets of the arrangement. Joint ventures are always conducted through separate vehicles. (The concept of a joint venture under IFRS is similar to the concept of a joint venture under US GAAP).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joint control is a key characteristic of joint ventures. Based on the definition</td>
<td>In IFRS, joint control is defined as the contractually agreed sharing of control, which exists only when decisions about the relevant activities of the arrangement require the unanimous consent of the parties sharing control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of a joint venture in ASC 323, joint control is commonly interpreted to mean that</td>
<td>In contrast with US GAAP, an entity can qualify as a joint venture if certain parties participate in decision-making through a means other than equity or if certain equity holders do not participate in joint control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all equity investors must unanimously consent to all of the significant decisions</td>
<td>Under IFRS, the effect of potential voting rights generally should be excluded when evaluating joint control, unless the rights are substantive. The following factors are considered to determine whether potential voting rights are substantive:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the entity.</td>
<td>► exercise or conversion price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We do not believe an entity would qualify as a joint venture in US GAAP if certain</td>
<td>► financial ability of the holder to exercise the potential right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parties participate in joint decision-making through a means other than equity (e.g.,</td>
<td>► Timing and length of exercise/ conversion period (i.e., whether the rights are currently exercisable or convertible).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>through rights granted via a contract) or if certain equity holders do not</td>
<td>Under US GAAP, joint ventures generally are accounted for using the equity method. (Refer also to the “Equity method investments / Associates” section of this publication, which discusses differences between US GAAP and IFRS related to the application of the equity method, including use of the fair value option). Proportionate consolidation may be permitted in limited circumstances to account for interests in joint ventures in unincorporated entities in certain industries where it is an established industry practice (e.g., in the construction and extractive industries).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participate in joint control (unless those equity interests are held publicly and are not significant).</td>
<td>Under IFRS, joint ventures generally are accounted for using the equity method. (Refer also to the “Equity method investments / Associates” section of this publication which discusses differences related to the application of the equity method, including use of the fair value option). Proportionate consolidation is not permitted under IFRS for interests in joint ventures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In US GAAP, we generally believe the effect of potential voting rights (e.g., share</td>
<td>US GAAP does not have a concept of joint operations, as defined in IFRS. The accounting in US GAAP for interests in joint operations would depend on whether those arrangements are conducted through separate legal entities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call options, convertible instruments) should be excluded from the evaluation of</td>
<td>Joint operations conducted through separate legal entities would first need to be evaluated to determine if one of the joint operators is required</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joint control until they are exercised. In rare circumstances, the effect of</td>
<td>An investor that holds an interest in a joint operation is required to reflect in its financial statements: (1) its share of the assets, including its share of jointly held assets; (2) its share of the liabilities, including its share of jointly incurred liabilities, (3) revenue from the sale of its share of the output arising from the joint operation, (4) its share of the revenue from the sale of the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
to consolidate the entity under the consolidation guidance in ASC 810 (beginning with the variable interest entity model). If consolidation is not required, the interest in the entity may be accounted for as an equity method investment (and possibly a joint venture) under ASC 323. Other GAAP may also apply (e.g., ASC 320).

A joint operation that is conducted outside of a legal entity may be similar to a collaborative arrangement in US GAAP, in which case it would be accounted for under ASC 808-10.

output by the joint operation, and (5) its expenses including its share of jointly incurred expenses.

The accounting for joint operations is not the same as proportionate consolidation. In a joint operation, the investor’s rights and obligations to the operation’s assets, liabilities, revenues and expenses form the basis for the accounting. These rights and obligations could differ from the investor’s percentage ownership interest in the joint operation as a whole (which is the basis used for proportionate consolidation).

### Implications:

Upon adoption of IFRS, entities will need to identify whether they hold interests that would qualify as interests in joint arrangements. Entities adopting IFRS will need to implement necessary controls and procedures to appropriately account for such interests pursuant to IFRS 11.

### Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

### 2. Has the investor made any non-monetary contributions to joint ventures?

At, or subsequent to, formation of the joint venture, an investor may make non-monetary contributions to a joint venture in exchange for an interest in the joint venture.

Non-monetary assets and liabilities are generally defined as assets and liabilities whose amounts are not fixed in terms of units of currency by contract or otherwise. Examples of non-monetary assets and liabilities are inventories, investments in common stocks, and property, plant and equipment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-32-2, 810-10-40-3A through 40-5, 845-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 10.25 and B99A, IAS 28.30 through 31A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As a general rule, if an investor contributes non-monetary assets that are not a business to a joint venture, the investor records its contribution at the carrying value of the non-monetary assets contributed.</td>
<td>In accordance with IAS 28, an investor recognizes a partial gain/loss (to the extent of the equity interests of the other venturers) on contributions of non-monetary assets or a subsidiary that does not constitute a business to a joint venture in an exchange for an interest in that joint venture except for when the transaction lacks commercial substance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>However, if the investor has contributed an appreciated non-monetary asset to a joint venture and other venturers have contributed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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5 *Sale or Contribution of Assets between an Investor and its Associate or Joint Venture, Amendments to IFRS 10 and IAS 28,* was issued by the IASB in September 2014. In December 2015, the IASB indefinitely deferred the effective date of this amendment. However, early adoption of this amendment is still available.
Joint ventures and joint operations

| cash or other near-cash items, it may be appropriate for the investor to recognize a gain for a portion of that appreciation. Given diversity in practice, specific facts and circumstances need to be carefully examined to determine if gain recognition is appropriate.\(^4\) |

| **Implications:** |
| As a result of different accounting methods by which the investor may account for contributions of non-monetary assets or a subsidiary that does not constitute a business, to joint ventures under US GAAP and IFRS, there may be a difference with respect to the gain/loss recognized at the time of the exchange and the carrying amount of the investment in the joint venture. |

| **Identified difference?** | |
| **Describe:** | Click here to enter text. |

---

\(^4\) The FASB has a project to clarify the accounting for sales of in-substance nonfinancial assets after an entity has adopted ASU 2014-09, *Revenue from contracts with customers*, which could affect the measurement of a nonmonetary contribution to a joint venture or equity method investment.
Equity method investments / Associates

Similarities:

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the equity method of accounting is applied to entities over which the investor has significant influence (i.e., the equity method investee or associate). IFRS defines significant influence as "the power to participate in the financial and operating policy decisions of the investee but not control over those policies." The existence of significant influence by an investor over an investee is usually evidenced by one or more of the following: representation on the board or equivalent governing body; participation in policy-making processes, including dividend policy; material transactions between the investor and investee; interchange of management personnel; and provision of essential technical information. This is similar under US GAAP. Under US GAAP and IFRS, in general, there is a rebuttable presumption that a 20% or more voting interest results in significant influence.

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, investments accounted for under the equity method are generally initially recognized at cost. After the date of acquisition, the carrying amount of the investment is increased or decreased by the investor's share of profit or loss of the investee, including basis differences as applicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 323, Investments — Equity Method and Joint Ventures</td>
<td>► IAS 28, Investments in Associates and Joint Ventures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 825, Financial Instruments</td>
<td>► IAS 36, Impairment of Assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, Consolidation</td>
<td>► IAS 39, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 946, Financial Services — Investment Companies</td>
<td>► IFRS 5, Non-current Assets Held for Sale and Discontinued Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 272, Limited Liability Entities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► SEC Regulation S-X, Rule 12-04, Condensed Financial Information of Registrant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

Neither the IASB nor the FASB has any current plans to converge the guidance on equity method investments.

In March 2016, the FASB issued ASU 2016-07, Investments — Equity Method and Joint Ventures (Topic 323): Simplifying the Transition to the Equity Method of Accounting. ASU 2016-07 eliminates the requirement that an investor retrospectively apply equity method accounting when an investment that it had accounted for by another method initially qualifies for the equity method. By eliminating retrospective application of the equity method, ASU 2016-07 converges US GAAP with IFRS. However, measurement differences may still exist.

In June 2016, the FASB issued an exposure draft that is intended to clarify the accounting for sales of in-substance nonfinancial assets after an entity has adopted ASC 606, Revenue from Contracts with Customers, which could affect the initial measurement of an equity method investment and the elimination of profit in certain transactions.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

A first-time IFRS adopter may have consolidated an investment under its previous GAAP that does not meet the definition of a subsidiary under IFRS. In this case, the first-time adopter should first determine the appropriate classification of the investment under IFRS and then apply the first-time
adoption rules in IFRS 1. If such previously consolidated investments should be accounted for as an associate under IFRS, first-time adopters applying the business combinations exemption (see the discussion of IFRS 1 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication for further details) should also apply that exemption to past acquisitions of investments in associates. If the business combinations exemption was not applied, or the entity did not acquire the investment in the associate, IAS 28 should be applied retrospectively.

If an investor adopts IFRS later than its associate, the investor measures the assets and liabilities of the associate in its consolidated financial statements at the same carrying amounts as reported in the IFRS-based financial statements of the associate, after adjusting for consolidation and equity accounting adjustments, unifying accounting policies and for the effects of the business combination in which the entity acquired the associate.

Investors with global operations that have not yet adopted IFRS may be affected by this exemption, as it is likely some of their foreign associates have already adopted IFRS in their financial statements. In such situations, the investor cannot revise the amounts reported at the associate levels. Since the associate has already converted to IFRS, it cannot convert to IFRS a second time. Instead, except for uniform accounting policies, consolidation, and equity accounting adjustments for the effect of business combinations, the investor continues to report the balances already being reported in the financial statements of the associate.

1. Does the investor hold currently exercisable potential voting rights in investees or are such rights held by others?

Potential voting rights may be in the forms of options, convertible instruments such as convertible preferred equity and debt, and warrants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-15-9</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 28.7 through 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potential voting rights that may become available to holders of securities of an investee are generally disregarded in determining significant influence.</td>
<td>An investor may own share warrants, share call options, debt or equity instruments that are convertible into ordinary shares, or other similar instruments that have the potential, if exercised or converted, to give the investor voting power or reduce another party’s voting power over another entity. The existence and effect of potential voting rights that are currently exercisable or convertible, including potential voting rights held by others, are considered when assessing whether an investor has significant influence. Potential voting rights that cannot be exercised or converted until a future date or until the occurrence of a future event are not considered currently exercisable or currently convertible. In assessing whether potential voting rights contribute to significant influence, IAS 28 requires the investor to examine all facts and circumstances (including the terms of exercise of the potential voting rights and any other contractual arrangements whether considered individually or in combination) that affect potential voting rights. However, the intention of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
management and the financial ability to exercise or convert the potential voting rights is not considered in the investee’s assessment. Also, potential voting rights that lack economic substance would not be included. For example, if the exercise price is set in a manner that precludes exercise or conversion in any feasible scenario, then such potential voting rights are considered to lack economic substance.

**Implications:**
Due to the difference between US GAAP and IFRS on how potential voting rights are considered in determining whether an investor has significant influence over the investee, a different conclusion may be reached on the application of equity method accounting.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

---

2. Does the investor have investments in limited partnerships, limited liability companies, trusts or similar entities?

A limited partnership involves two or more partners that unite to conduct a business jointly and for which partners are generally liable only to the extent of their investment in the limited partnership.

A limited liability company (LLC) has characteristics of both a corporation and a partnership but is dissimilar from both in certain respects. An LLC is a business entity that offers limited liability protection and pass-through taxation. In general, the members (i.e., owners) may participate in the management of an LLC.

**US GAAP — 323-30-S99-1, 323-30-35-3**

The SEC staff expressed its position in ASC 323-30-S99-1 that investments in all limited partnerships should be accounted for pursuant to ASC 970-323-25-6, which requires the use of the equity method unless the investor’s interest “may be so minor that the limited partner may have virtually no influence over partnership operating and financial policies.” The SEC staff views investments of more than 3% to 5% to be more than minor and expects that the equity method be applied to such limited partnership investments.

Pursuant to ASC 323-30-35-3, an investment in an LLC that maintains a “specific ownership account” for each investor — similar to a partnership capital account structure — should

**IFRS — IAS 28.5**

Investments in associates over which the investor has significant influence are generally accounted for using the equity method. The determination of significant influence through investments in limited partnerships, LLCs, trusts and similar entities is made using the same general principle of significant influence that is used for all other investments.
be viewed as similar to an investment in a limited partnership for purposes of determining whether a noncontrolling investment in an LLC should be accounted for using the equity method. Therefore, the provisions of ASC 970-323-25-6 and ASC 323-30-S99-1 also apply to such LLCs. Similar guidance should also be applied to trusts and similar entities.

**Implications:**

Because of the US GAAP specific rules for investments in limited partnerships and LLCs, there may be situations in which the equity method is applied under US GAAP but not under IFRS. However, there may be cases in which a 3% to 5% interest in a limited partnership or an LLC also results in significant influence under IFRS, even though no specific presumption to that effect exists under IFRS. Each case would be analyzed based on its facts and circumstances.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
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</table>

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**3. Does the investor have “held for sale” equity method investments?**

Under IFRS, an entity should classify a non-current asset (including an investment in an associate) as held for sale if its carrying amount will be recovered principally through a sale transaction rather than through continuing use.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-35-36</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 28.20 through 21, IFRS 5.15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The investor applies equity method accounting until significant influence is lost.</td>
<td>The investor normally applies equity method accounting until significant influence is lost. The investor also does not apply equity method accounting to investments in associates that qualify as “held for sale.” For an asset to be classified as held for sale, the asset must be available for immediate sale in its present condition subject only to terms that are usual and customary for sales of such assets and its sale must be highly probable. In addition, the sale should be expected to qualify for recognition as a completed sale within one year from the date of classification. The probability of shareholders’ approval (if required in the jurisdiction) should be considered as part of the assessment of whether the sale is highly probable. The investor measures a “held for sale” equity method investment at the lower of its:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► fair value less cost to sell; or</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Since application of equity method accounting is precluded when an investment in an investee/associate meets the definition of “held for sale” under IFRS, certain investments that are accounted for using the equity method under US GAAP may not qualify for equity method accounting. In such circumstances, the carrying amount of investments in investees/associates may need to be adjusted to reflect the lower of: (1) the fair value less cost to sell or (2) the carrying amount, as determined under IFRS.

If the investor measures a “held for sale” equity method investment at fair value (less cost to sell), it is important to note that differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

4. Does the investor have any equity method investments/associates for which the fair value option has been selected?

ASC 825-10 permits entities to choose to measure many financial instruments and certain other items at fair value at specified election dates. Equity method investments are one of the items to which entities may choose to apply ASC 825-10.

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 825-10-15-4 gives entities the option to account for an equity method investment at fair value instead of using the equity method. For those equity method investments for which the investor does not elect to use the fair value option, the equity method of accounting is required.</td>
<td>The fair value option is not available to all investors to account for their investments in associates. IAS 28 generally requires investors to use the equity method of accounting for their investments in associates in their consolidated financial statements. However, investments in associates held by venture capital organizations, or mutual funds, unit trusts and similar entities including investment-linked insurance funds are exempt from the requirement to use the equity method and the investor may elect to measure investments in those associates and joint ventures at fair value through profit and loss in accordance with IAS 39.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Since under US GAAP, all investors have an option to account for an equity method investment at fair value instead of using the equity method and such an option only available to certain entities under IFRS, the carrying amount and the related operating results relating to such investments may be different between IFRS and US GAAP.

For entities that qualify and choose to use fair value under both US GAAP and IFRS, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

5. Does the investor have an equity method investment that was initially accounted for under the cost method or ASC 320-10 but later changed to the equity method (e.g., due to a subsequent acquisition)?

An investment in an investee that was previously accounted for as a financial asset may later require the use of the equity method due to obtaining significant influence. For example, an investor may obtain significant influence as a result of an increase in the level of ownership through various means, such as an acquisition of additional voting stock by the investor, acquisition or retirement of voting stock by the investee, or other changes in facts or circumstances or judgment. When an investment qualifies for use of the equity method, the investor should adopt the equity method of accounting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-35-33</th>
<th>IFRS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>After adopting ASU 2016-07</strong>&lt;br&gt;The investor applies the equity method prospectively from the date the investment qualifies for the equity method. The investor adds the carrying value of the existing investment to the cost of the additional investment to determine the initial cost basis of the equity method investment.&lt;br&gt;An investor that has an available-for-sale financial asset that qualifies for the equity method recognizes any unrealized holding gains or losses in accumulated other comprehensive income related to that asset in earnings when it begins using the equity method.&lt;br&gt;<strong>Prior to adopting ASU 2016-07</strong>&lt;br&gt;The investment, results of operations (current and prior periods presented), and retained earnings of the investor should be adjusted retroactively on a step-by-step basis as if the equity method had</td>
<td><strong>The investor applies the equity method prospectively from the date the investment qualifies for the equity method.</strong>&lt;br&gt;However, IAS 28 is unclear on how an investor should measure existing investments that were initially accounted for under the cost method or fair value but subsequently become an associate that should be accounted for under the equity method. Consequently, there may be more than one acceptable alternative.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☐</td>
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</table>
been in effect during all previous periods in which the investment was held.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When facts and circumstances change, resulting in an investor obtaining significant influence, the carrying amount and the operating results relating to the investment may be different between IFRS and US GAAP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This difference is due to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► After the adoption of ASU 2016-07 – the fact that US GAAP requires adding the carrying value of the existing investment to the cost of the new investment to determine the cost basis of the equity method investment, while under IFRS, various options are used in practice. See our International GAAP® publication for further details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-07 – the fact that US GAAP requires retroactive application of the equity method as if the equity method had always been applied, while under IFRS, various options are used in practice and none of the options allow for retroactive application of the equity method. See our International GAAP® publication for further details.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Are there disposals (e.g., partial, or deemed) of equity method investments that result in loss of significant influence?

An investor may have a partial or deemed disposal of an investment in an investee/associate resulting from various circumstances, such as from sale of a portion of an investment by the investor, sale of additional stock by an investee/associate, or other transactions. This partial or deemed disposal may result in the loss of significant influence.

An investor should discontinue applying the equity method once it no longer has significant influence.

|---------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| If significant influence is lost, a gain or loss is recognized for the proportion of the investment sold. The gain or loss on disposal is the difference between the proceeds on disposal and the proportionate share of the carrying value sold. The retained interest in the investee is measured at the proportionate carrying amount. | If an investor loses significant influence over an associate, the investor recognizes a gain or loss on its entire investment. The gain or loss is computed as the difference between:
- the fair value of any retained investment and any proceeds from disposing of the part interest in the associate; and
- the carrying amount of the investment at the date when significant influence is lost. Any retained interest in the investee is recorded at fair value. |

**Implications:**

When an investor ceases to have significant influence over the investee/associate, the carrying amount and the gain or loss relating to such investments may be different between IFRS and US GAAP. This is because IFRS requires the retained interest be measured at fair value and the gain or loss to be calculated not only on the portion sold but also on the retained interest in the investment.

In determining fair value of any retained investment that is not traded in a public market, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
7. **Has there been an impairment in equity method investments?**

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, equity method investments are required to be evaluated for impairment.

|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Under US GAAP, a current fair value of an equity method investment that is less than its carrying amount may indicate a loss in value of the investment. However, a decline in the quoted market price below the carrying amount or the existence of operating losses is not necessarily indicative of a loss in value that is other than temporary. All are factors to be evaluated. Additionally, evidence of a loss in value might include, but would not necessarily be limited to, absence of an ability to recover the carrying amount of the equity method investment or inability of the investee to sustain any earnings capacity which would justify the carrying amount of the investment.

The impairment is generally measured as the excess of the investment’s carrying amount over its fair value.

In determining whether other-than-temporary impairments exist, the investor should not separately test an investee’s underlying assets for impairment.

An equity method investor recognizes its share of any impairment charges recorded by an investee and considers the effect, if any, of the impairment on the investor’s basis difference in the assets giving rise to the investee’s impairment charge. That is, an equity method investor may need to increase or decrease it’s pro rata share of an investee’s impairment charge as a result of the investor’s basis differences.

Other-than-temporary impairments recognized are not reversed in the future periods. |

Under IFRS, after application of the equity method, the investor applies the impairment guidance in IAS 39 to determine whether it is necessary to recognize any impairment loss in relation to its net investment and other interests in an associate. Specifically, the investor assesses whether there is “objective evidence” that one or more events occurring after the initial recognition of the asset (“a loss event”), and that loss event has had an impact on the estimated future cash flows of the investment in the associate.

If it is necessary to record an impairment (i.e., a loss event has occurred), the impairment loss is measured in accordance with IAS 36. That is, the impairment of an investment in an associate is computed as the excess of the investment’s carrying amount over the recoverable amount (higher of its: (1) value in use or (2) fair value less costs to sell).

In determining whether an impairment exist, the investor should not separately test an investee’s underlying assets for impairment.

An equity method investor recognizes its share of any impairment charges recorded by an associate and considers the effect, if any, of the impairment on the investor’s basis difference in the assets giving rise to the associate’s impairment charge. That is, an equity method investor may need to increase or decrease it’s pro rata share of an associate’s impairment charge as a result of the investor’s basis differences.

Impairment losses previously recorded are reversed in future periods if the impairment conditions no longer exist.
**Implications:**

Since US GAAP and IFRS differ in impairment testing models for equity method investments and in subsequent accounting for impairments previously taken, the carrying amount and the operating results relating to equity method investments that may be impaired may be different between IFRS and US GAAP.

In addition, when measuring an impairment, US GAAP requires the equity method investment to be measured at fair value, whereas IFRS requires the investment to measured at the higher of: (1) its value in use and (2) fair value less costs to sell. Therefore, even if “fair value less costs to sell” is used under IFRS, differences will generally result from the inclusion of ‘costs to sell’ in determining the impairment loss under IFRS, as compared to US GAAP.

In determining fair value of an equity method investment for an impairment test, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

---

**8. Have the equity method investees/associates experienced losses in excess of the investor’s interest?**

In general, an investment made by an investor constitutes the investor’s interest in the equity method investee/associate. Under certain circumstances, an investor’s share of losses of an investee may equal or exceed the carrying amount of an investment accounted for by the equity method plus advances made by the investor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-35-19 through 35-22</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 28.29 through 30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The investor ordinarily should discontinue applying the equity method when the investment (and net advances) is reduced to zero and should not provide for additional losses unless the investor has guaranteed obligations of the investee or is otherwise committed to provide further financial support for the investee. If the investee subsequently reports net income, the investor should resume applying the equity method only after its share of that net income equals the share of net losses not recognized during the period the equity method was suspended. However, an investor should record additional losses when the imminent return to profitable operations by an investee appears to be assured. This would be the case even if the investor has not guaranteed the obligations of the investee.</td>
<td>The investor should generally discontinue loss recognition when its investment is reduced to zero even if the associate’s future profitability appears imminent and assured (i.e., even if it is likely that the investor will be able to recover the losses recognized in excess of the investor’s interest) so long as the investor has not incurred legal or constructive obligations or made payments on behalf of the associate. If the investee subsequently reports net income, the investor should resume applying the equity method only after its share of that net income equals the share of net losses not recognized during the period the equity method was suspended.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the investee or otherwise committed to provide further financial support to the investee. For example, a material, nonrecurring loss of an isolated nature may reduce an investment below zero even though the underlying profitable operating pattern of an investee is unimpaired.

Implications:

Under US GAAP and IFRS, loss recognition may be discontinued at different dates. For example, this may occur if an investor has guaranteed obligations of the investee, or provided other commitments to provide further financial support for the investee, and these are not considered “legal or constructive obligations” or “payments” under IFRS. Loss recognition may also be discontinued at different dates if the imminent return to profitable operations by an investee appears to be assured.

When loss recognition is discontinued at different dates, the carrying amount and the operating results relating to equity method investments may be different between IFRS and US GAAP. It is possible that an investor would recognize higher losses on its equity method investment under US GAAP than IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Depends on policy election

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends ☐

9. Do any equity method investees/associates apply different accounting policies from those of the investor?

The investor and the equity method investees/associates may not have the same accounting policies within their respective accounting framework, especially when the equity method investees/associates are public companies, or the equity method investees/associates have specialized industry accounting principles.

US GAAP — 810-10-25-15
US GAAP generally does not permit the investor to conform the accounting policies of its equity method investees/associates (although they should also apply US GAAP).

IFRS — IAS 28.26
Under IFRS, the IFRS accounting policies of the equity method investees/associates should be the same as those of the investor.
Implications:

Unlike IFRS, US GAAP generally does not permit the investor to conform the accounting policies of its equity method investees to those of the investor (although they should also apply US GAAP). Under IFRS, if the investor and the equity method associate do not apply the same IFRS accounting policies in their respective financial statements, adjustments to the financial statements of the investee to conform the accounting policies will be necessary. In such situations, it is crucial that controls and procedures be in place to obtain necessary financial information accurately and timely to prepare the equity method investee/associate’s financial statements under accounting policies that are uniform with those of the investor. Because an investor does not control the entity but rather has only significant influence, requiring similar accounting policies may prove much more difficult to apply under the equity method than under consolidation.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

10. Do any equity method investees/associates have different reporting dates from that of the investor?

The investor and the equity method investee/associate may not have the same reporting dates due to various circumstances. For example, as a result of different local regulatory filing requirements, an investor in the US may have a year-end at 31 December while its equity method investee/associate in Japan may have a year-end at 31 March.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-35-5, 810-10-45-12, SEC Regulation S-X3A-02(b)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 28.33 through 34</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, the investor and the equity method investee/associate are permitted to have different year-ends of up to three months. The effects of significant events occurring between the reporting dates of the investor and the equity method investee/associate are disclosed in the financial statements.</td>
<td>Under IFRS, the financial statements of an investor and its equity method investee/associate are prepared as of the same date. When the end of the reporting period differs for the investor and the equity method investee/associate, the equity method investee/associate prepares (for the use of the investor) the financial statements as of the same date as the financial statements of the parent unless it is impracticable to do so. However, when the difference between the end of the reporting period of the parent and the equity method investee/associate is three months or less, the financial statements of the equity method investee/associate may be adjusted for the effects of significant transactions or events, rather than preparing additional financial statements as of the date of the investor’s reporting date.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, the investor and the equity method investee/associate are permitted to have different year-ends of up to three months. However, under IFRS, different reporting dates of up to three months are allowed only if it is impracticable to prepare the equity method investee/associate’s financial statements as of the same date. If it is determined that it is impracticable to prepare the equity method investee/associate’s financial statements as of the same date, IFRS requires that adjustments (and not only disclosures as is the case under US GAAP) be made for significant events occurring between the reporting dates of the investor and the equity method investee/associate. As a result, adequate controls and procedures should be in place to monitor and obtain quantifiable financial information to prepare the equity method investee/associate’s financial statements accurately and on a timely basis.

**Identified difference?**

Describe: 
Click here to enter text.

**11. In addition to consolidated financial statements, does the investor also present its own parent-only (i.e., separate or non-consolidated) financial statements?**

In addition to consolidated financial statements, there may be circumstances in which an investor (parent) may choose or be required to present parent-only (i.e., separate, or non-consolidated) financial information. See Question 9 in the “Consolidation” section for additional considerations.

For example, when the transfer of assets from subsidiaries to the parent is restricted, pursuant to the SEC’s Regulation S-X, Rule 12-04, condensed non-consolidated financial information may be required with respect to the parent’s financial position, cash flows and results of operations.

|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| When, in addition to consolidated financial statements, the investor (parent) also presents separate non-consolidated financial statements, investments in equity method investees are presented using the equity method. | When separate non-consolidated financial statements of the investor (parent) are prepared, investments in associates that are not classified as held for sale (or included in a disposal group that is classified as held for sale) in accordance with IFRS 5, are accounted for:  
  ▶ at cost;  
  ▶ at fair value in accordance with IAS 39; or  
  ▶ using the equity method in accordance with IAS 28. |
Implications:

Due to the different accounting methods by which the investor (parent) may account for and present its investment in equity method investees/associates under US GAAP and IFRS, investor-only non-consolidated financial statements may result in different financial position, cash flows and results of operations. Furthermore, investors need to implement necessary controls and procedures to properly account for their investments in equity method investees/associates, if they use the cost or fair value basis.

If investments in associates are to be accounted for at fair value under IFRS, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Under IFRS 1, in its separate opening IFRS non-consolidated financial statements, an entity can determine the cost of investments in subsidiaries, jointly controlled entities or associates as one of the following amounts: (1) cost determined in accordance with IAS 27, (2) fair value of the investment at the date of transition to IFRS, determined in accordance with IAS 39, or (3) the previous GAAP carrying amount of the investment at the date of transition to IFRS. This determination is to be made for each investment rather than being a policy decision that is applied consistently to all investments.

If the entity uses the equity method to account for its investments in subsidiaries, jointly controlled entities or associates, it has the option to apply the exemption for past business combinations to the acquisition of the equity method investment. See the discussion of IFRS 1 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication for further details.

12. Upon acquisition of an investment in an associate, did the consideration given include amounts contingent on future events?

The total cost of an investment in an equity method investee/associate may not be determinable at the acquisition date. The consideration may contain provisions that result in changes to the purchase price consideration as a result of the resolution of contingencies. An investor may promise to deliver cash, additional equity interests, or other assets to other owners of the equity method investment/associate after the acquisition date, if certain specified events occur or conditions are met in the future. These contingencies frequently are based on earnings or instrument price changes over specified periods after the date of acquisition; however, they might be based on other factors (e.g., components of earnings, product development milestones, cash flow levels, or the successful completion of contract negotiations). Buyers and sellers commonly use these arrangements when they cannot reach agreement on the consideration to be paid.

Contingent consideration arrangements related to equity method investments are accounted for in accordance with applicable GAAP.

If the contingent consideration meets the definition of a derivative, it is recognized at fair value. The amount originally recognized becomes part of the basis in the investment acquired. Subsequent changes in the fair value of the contingent consideration are recorded in profit or loss.

If the contingent consideration does not meet the definition of a derivative, the contingent consideration arrangement is recognized only when the contingency is resolved and the consideration is paid or becomes payable. This amount is included in the cost basis of the investment. Subsequent changes in amount recorded are also included in the cost basis of the investment.

When the initial cost of an equity method investment is less than the fair value of the net assets of the investee and the acquisition includes contingent consideration, a liability is recognized for the contingent consideration. The liability is measured at the lesser of the maximum amount of contingent consideration not initially recognized or the excess of the investor’s share of the investee’s net assets over the initial cost measurement.

**IFRS — IAS 28.10**

When determining the cost of an associate, IAS 28 is not clear regarding the treatment of contingent consideration. However, generally it appears that a model similar to IFRS 3 (the business combination model) should be applied.

This suggests that any contingent consideration in relation to the acquisition of an investment in an associate should be included as part of cost of the investment in the associate at its acquisition-date fair value. Thereafter, the contingent consideration is accounted for under other IFRS (e.g., if it is a financial liability, it would be accounted for under IAS 39). Changes in the carrying amount of the contingent consideration under the relevant IFRS would be recorded in accordance with the relevant IFRS, but not included in the cost basis of the investment.

### Implications:

If the consideration transferred to acquire an investment in an associate includes contingent consideration, the carrying amount may be different between IFRS and US GAAP.

If the contingent consideration is recorded at fair value, differences may exist in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for further details.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
13. Has the investor made any non-monetary contributions to its equity method investee/associate?

Yes ☐ No ☐

At, or subsequent to an investor acquiring an equity method investment in an investee/associate, an investor may make non-monetary contributions for an interest in the investee/associate.

Non-monetary assets and liabilities are generally defined as assets and liabilities whose amounts are not fixed in terms of units of currency by contract or otherwise. Examples of non-monetary assets and liabilities are inventories, investments in common stocks, and property, plant and equipment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 323-10-30-2, 810-10-40-3A through 40-5, 845-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 10.25 and B99A, IAS 28.30 through 31A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generally, we believe that non-monetary contributions that do not meet the definition of a business in exchange for an equity method investment by an investor may be accounted for at either carryover basis (no gain/loss recognition) or fair value (gain/loss recognition) as long as the facts and circumstances support the existence of commercial substance. The policy followed for such transactions should be consistently applied to all similar transactions. When an entity can demonstrate commercial substance and accounts for the exchange at fair value, we believe that the entity should follow the guidance in ASC 845-10-30-24 through 30-27 to calculate the gain or loss. Sales of in-substance real estate and conveyances of a mineral interest are not within the scope of ASC 810. Industry specific guidance would apply to those transactions.⁶</td>
<td>In accordance with IAS 28, an investor recognizes a partial gain/loss (to the extent of the equity interests of the other investors) on contributions of non-monetary assets or a subsidiary that does not constitute a business to an associate in an exchange for an interest in that associate except for when the transaction lacks commercial substance.⁷</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

As a result of different accounting methods by which the investor may account for contributions of non-monetary assets or a subsidiary that do not constitute a business to equity method investments under US GAAP and IFRS, there may be a difference with respect to the gain or loss recognized at the time of the exchange and the carrying amount of the investment in the investee/associate.

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⁶ ASU 2014-09 Revenue from Contracts with Customers, amended this guidance in part. The FASB has proposed further amendments. Readers should monitor developments in this area.

⁷ Sale or Contribution of Assets between an Investor and its Associate or Joint Venture, Amendments to IFRS 10 and IAS 28 was issued by the IASB in September 2014. In December 2015, the IASB indefinitely deferred the effective date of this amendment. However, early adoption of this amendment is still available.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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</table>
Business combinations

Similarities:

Pursuant to ASC 805 and IFRS 3, all business combinations are accounted for using the acquisition method. Under the acquisition method, upon obtaining control of another entity, the underlying transaction should be measured at fair value, and this should be the basis on which the assets, liabilities and noncontrolling interests of the acquired entity are measured, with limited exceptions. Even though the new standards are substantially converged, certain differences remain.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 805, Business Combinations</td>
<td>IFRS 3, Business Combinations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

The FASB and IASB issued substantially converged standards in December 2007 and January 2008, respectively. Both boards have completed post-implementation reviews (PIRs) of their respective standards and separately discussed several narrow-scope projects.

In November, 2015, the FASB issued an exposure draft to clarify certain aspects of the definition of a business. While the definition of a business is currently converged, the application of the definition by US GAAP and IFRS reporters is often different. The FASB intends for the clarifications to more closely align the interpretations of what constitutes a business. In June 2016, the IASB also issued an exposure draft on the definition of a business as a result of concerns raised in its PIR about the complexity of its application. Although this is not a joint project, the FASB and IASB proposals are substantially converged.

In addition, the IASB has a research project on business combinations of entities under common control.

The accounting for leases (e.g., unfavorable or favorable components) will be affected by the implementation of ASU 2016-02 and IFRS 16.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

IFRS 1 requires that first-time adopters of IFRS restate only those business combinations occurring on or after the date of transition to IFRS to comply with IFRS 3. For business combinations that occurred prior to the transition date, IFRS 1 allows the first-time adopter to elect the option of not restating those prior business combinations to comply with IFRS 3. However, if the first-time adopter elects to restate any pre-transition date business combination, it must restate all subsequent business combinations and apply IFRS 10 from that date forward. We expect most first-time adopters to elect the option under IFRS 1 and not restate any pre-transition date business combination. And since most post-transition date business combinations will be accounted for pursuant to ASC 805, this questionnaire focuses only on the differences between ASC 805 and IFRS 3 and provides the implication, if any, of having to restate any post-transition date business combination to comply with IFRS 3. However, first-time adopters should be aware that even if they elect to not restate any pre-transition date business combinations, the requirements of IFRS 1 nonetheless may result in adjustments to their opening IFRS balance sheet. For example, when a first-time adopter applies the IFRS 1 exemption to a prior business combination, the carrying amount of assets acquired and liabilities assumed that were not recognized in the prior business combination may not always be zero in the opening IFRS balance sheet and goodwill must be tested for impairment as of the transition date.
Discussion of Fair Value:

Both ASC 805 and IFRS 3 require initial measurement of assets acquired, liabilities assumed and noncontrolling interests in a business combination, subject to certain exceptions, at fair value. There are certain differences between fair value measurements under ASC 820, and related measurement concepts in IFRS. These general differences are discussed further in the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication. All such differences must be considered when applying the fair value measurements required by ASC 805 and IFRS 3.

1. Did the entity have an obligation to transfer additional consideration to the former owners of the acquiree if specified future events occur or conditions are met?

Contingent consideration in a business combination generally represents an obligation of the acquirer to deliver cash, additional equity interests or other assets to former owners of an acquired entity after the acquisition date if specified events occur or conditions are met in the future. However, contingent consideration also may give the acquirer the right to the return of previously transferred consideration if specified conditions are met. These arrangements are commonly used when buyers and sellers cannot reach agreement on the value of the acquired business.

### US GAAP — 805-30-35-1

**Initial classification**
The acquirer must classify the obligation to pay contingent consideration as a liability or as equity in accordance with ASC 480, ASC 815-40 or other applicable US GAAP.

### IFRS — IFRS 3.39 through 40

**Initial classification**
The acquirer must classify the obligation to pay contingent consideration as a liability or as equity in accordance with IAS 32 or other applicable IFRSs.

### Implications:

Both standards require an acquirer to classify contingent consideration as an asset, a liability or equity on the basis of other US GAAP or IFRSs. Differences in the related US GAAP or IFRSs may cause differences in the initial classification and, therefore, the subsequent accounting for the contingent consideration. See the “Liabilities and equity” section of this publication for a discussion of the differences between ASC 480 and IAS 32.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

### IFRS 1 implications:

If the contingent consideration would be classified differently under IFRS in a post-transition date business combination, the first-time adopter would be required to retrospectively restate the business combination to comply with the classification requirements of IFRS and then apply the relevant IFRSs to subsequently account for the contingent consideration.
2. Did the entity acquire less than 100% of the acquiree?

If an acquirer acquires less than 100% of the acquiree, the acquirer must recognize, on the acquisition date, the noncontrolling interest representing the interest retained or held by the noncontrolling shareholders. Noncontrolling interest is the equity in a subsidiary not attributable, directly or indirectly, to a parent.

US GAAP — 805-20-30-1

Noncontrolling interest is measured at fair value, including goodwill.

IFRS — IFRS 3.19

Noncontrolling interest components that are present ownership interests and entitle their holders to a proportionate share of the acquiree’s net asset in the event of liquidation may be measured at: (1) fair value, including goodwill, or (2) the noncontrolling interest’s proportionate share of the fair value of the acquiree’s identifiable net assets, exclusive of goodwill.

All other components of noncontrolling interest are measured at fair value unless another measurement basis is required by IFRS. This choice is available on a transaction-by-transaction basis.

Implications:

Because of the alternative available under IFRS for certain components of noncontrolling interest (e.g., common stock), accounting differences may arise based on the IFRS election made for a particular business combination. When the noncontrolling interest is measured at fair value, all goodwill of the acquired entity, not just the acquirer’s share, is recognized (i.e., a “full-goodwill” approach). However, when the noncontrolling interest is measured at its share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets, the goodwill amount recorded in consolidation reflects only the acquirer’s share. Therefore, the IFRS alternative of measuring noncontrolling interest at its share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets will result in the recognition of a lesser amount of goodwill and noncontrolling interest.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Because both standards permit noncontrolling interest to be measured at fair value, a first-time adopter would not be required to restate any post-transition date business combination to comply with IFRS 3. However, if the first-time adopter wanted to restate any post-transition date business combination to measure noncontrolling interest at the noncontrolling shareholder’s share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets, it would be permitted to do so.
3. Did the acquirer recognize assets and liabilities arising from pre-acquisition contingencies?

A contingency is defined as an existing condition, situation, or set of circumstances involving uncertainty as to possible gain or loss to an entity that will ultimately be resolved when one or more future events occur or fail to occur. A pre-acquisition contingency can be a contingent asset or a contingent liability. Potential environmental liabilities, litigation losses, insurance claims or warranty obligations that exist and are associated with an acquired entity before and as of the date of acquisition are examples of pre-acquisition contingencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initial recognition and measurement</strong></td>
<td><strong>Initial recognition and measurement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-acquisition contingent assets and liabilities are recognized at the acquisition date at fair value if the acquisition-date fair value of the asset or liability can be determined during the measurement period.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the acquisition-date fair value of a pre-acquisition contingent asset or liability cannot be determined at the acquisition date or during the measurement period, that contingent asset or liability is recognized if: (1) information prior to the end of the measurement period indicates that it is probable that an asset existed or a liability had been incurred at the acquisition date and (2) the amount of the asset or liability can be reasonably estimated. The recognition and measurement guidance in ASC 450 should be used to determine whether criteria (1) and (2) have been met.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Subsequent accounting</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subsequent accounting</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If contingent assets and liabilities are initially recognized at fair value, an acquirer should develop a systematic and rational basis for subsequently measuring and accounting for assets and liabilities arising from contingencies depending on their nature.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If amounts are initially recognized and measured under ASC 450, the subsequent accounting and measurement should be based on that guidance.</td>
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</table>

Liabilities subject to contingencies are recognized if there is a present obligation that arises from past events and its fair value can be measured reliably. If the fair value cannot be measured reliably, the contingent liability is not recognized. Contingent assets are not recognized.

Liabilities subject to contingencies must be measured at the higher of:
- the amount that would be recognized in accordance with IAS 37; or
- the amount initially recognized less, if appropriate, cumulative amortization recognized in accordance with IAS 18.
Implications:

Because the initial recognition and measurement criteria differ between the two standards, this may result in differences in the accounting for pre-acquisition contingencies in a business combination. For example, because contingent assets are not recognized in a business combination under IFRS 3, a difference may arise if such contingent assets are recognized in a business combination under ASC 805. However, because the recognition of contingent assets under ASC 805 is not common, we generally would not expect this to result in a difference between the two standards. In addition, in the basis for conclusions to FSP FAS 141(R)-1, the FASB indicated that the fair value of pre-acquisition contingencies often will not be determinable, particularly for legal contingencies. Therefore, the FASB believes that it is possible that fewer liabilities arising from contingencies will be initially measured at fair value under ASC 805 than under IFRS 3.

For contingent liabilities that are initially recognized and measured at fair value at the acquisition date, the subsequent accounting and measurement of such liabilities may differ because IFRS 3, unlike ASC 805, provides subsequent accounting and measurement guidance. In addition, for contingent liabilities that are initially recognized and measured at fair value under IFRS 3 but at an amount other than fair value under ASC 805 (using the probable and reasonably estimable criteria in ASC 450), such contingent liabilities may be derecognized earlier under US GAAP than IFRS. This is because under US GAAP, contingent liabilities may be derecognized once it becomes remote that a liability exists. In contrast, under IFRS 3, contingent liabilities are subsequently accounted for at the higher of: (1) the amount that would be recognized in accordance with IAS 37 or (2) the amount recognized less any amortization (such liabilities may not be derecognized if it becomes remote that a liability exists). Furthermore, subsequent measurement differences may arise due to the differences between IAS 37 and ASC 450. For example, the meaning of “probable” under IAS 37 is “more likely than not” (i.e., greater than 50%) whereas the meaning of “probable” under ASC 450 is “the future event or events are likely to occur” (generally interpreted between 70%-80%).

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

If the first-time adopter recognized a contingent asset in its post-transition date business combination, then the first-time adopter must retrospectively restate that business combination to derecognize the contingent asset to comply with IFRS 3. In addition, if the first-time adopter recognized a contingent liability in its post-transition date business combination, then the first-time adopter must review the subsequent accounting for that contingent liability to determine whether it is in compliance with IFRS.
4. Did the entity exchange its share-based payment awards for awards held by employees of the acquired entity?

In a business combination, the acquirer frequently exchanges its share-based payment awards (e.g., stock, stock options, or similar instruments) for awards held by employees of the acquired entity. The share-based payment awards exchanged (of both the former awards in the acquiree and the new awards of the acquiring entity) may be either vested or unvested.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 805-20-30-21, 805-30-30-9 through 30-13 and 805-30-55-6 through 55-13</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 3.30, B56 through B62 and IE61 through IE71</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exchanges of share options or other share-based payment awards in conjunction with a business combination are accounted for as modifications of share-based payment awards in accordance with ASC 718. If the acquirer is obligated to replace the acquiree awards, either all or a portion of the fair-value-based measure of the acquiree’s replacement awards should be included in measuring the consideration transferred in the business combination.</td>
<td>Exchanges of share options or other share-based payment awards in conjunction with a business combination are accounted for as modifications of share-based payment awards in accordance with IFRS 2. If the acquirer is obliged to replace the acquiree awards, either all or a portion of the market-based measure of the acquirer’s replacement awards should be included in measuring the consideration transferred in the business combination.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

While the words in ASC 805 and IFRS 3 are similar, potential differences in the accounting for share-based payment awards exchanged in a business combination may arise due to differences between ASC 718 and IFRS 2. For example, if the share-based payment awards exchanged were subject to graded vesting requirements, the entity’s US GAAP accounting policy for such awards may cause differences in the allocation of the cost of the replacement award to the consideration transferred and post combination compensation cost. For awards subject to graded vesting ASC 718 permits the use of the “accelerated” approach or the “straight-line” approach whereas IFRS 2 requires the use of the “accelerated” approach. See the “Share-based payments” section of this publication for a discussion of the differences between ASC 718 and IFRS 2.

Identified difference?

| Yes | No | Depends on policy election |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

For share-based payment awards exchanged in a post-transition date business combination, if the first-time adopter determines that the accounting as required by ASC 718 is not consistent with IFRS 2, an adjustment may be required to share-based payments exchanged in that business combination to comply with IFRS 3.
5. Did the entity acquire operating leases where the acquiree was the lessor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 805-20-25-12, 805-20-30-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 3.10 through 13, B29 and B42</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An intangible asset or liability is recognized separately from the leased asset if the terms of the operating lease are favorable or unfavorable, respectively, relative to current market terms.</td>
<td>An intangible asset or liability is not recognized separately from the leased asset. The favorable or unfavorable terms of the operating lease, relative to current market terms, are included in the fair value measurement of the leased asset.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Depending on whether the terms of the lease are favorable or unfavorable relative to current market terms, under US GAAP, the fair value of the leased asset as of the acquisition date will either be higher (if the lease terms are unfavorable relative to market) or lower (if the lease terms are favorable relative to market) when compared to IFRS. On the other hand, US GAAP requires the separate recognition of an intangible asset or liability, which will not be recognized under IFRS. This may cause differences in future disclosure requirements, depreciation and amortization expense (if applicable), and the point in time in which an impairment loss is recognized.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

If the first-time adopter acquired an operating lease in which the acquiree was the lessor in a post-transition date business combination, the first-time adopter must retrospectively restate that business combination to derecognize the intangible asset or liability and recalculate the fair value of the leased asset to include the favorable or unfavorable lease terms relative to current market terms to comply with IFRS 3.

6. Did any transactions occur between entities under common control?


The receiving entity records the net assets at their carrying amounts in the accounts of the transferor (historical cost).

**IFRS — IFRS 3.B1 through B4**

Common control transactions are outside the scope of IFRS 3. In practice, entities may follow an approach similar to US GAAP (historical cost) or apply the acquisition method (fair value) if there is substance to the transaction (policy election).
Convergence considerations:

**Implications:**

The accounting for common control transactions is a difference that existed before the issuance of ASC 805 and IFRS 3 and still remains a difference. Because of the mixed practice under IFRS, accounting differences may arise based on the IFRS policy election of applying the acquisition method to common control transactions that are considered to have substance. Therefore, the IFRS alternative will result in the transferred net assets being recorded at fair value instead of historical cost. Careful consideration of all facts and circumstances is required in assessing whether a common control transaction has substance.

If IFRS reporters follow the historical cost approach, we generally would expect the accounting to be similar to US GAAP because we believe that under IFRS, the receiving entity should record the transferred net assets at the carrying amounts in the accounts of the transferor. However, IFRS does permit the receiving entity to record the transferred assets at the carrying amounts of the transferee in certain circumstances. We believe the following factors should be carefully considered in assessing whether the receiving entity may record the transferred assets at the carrying amounts of the transferee:

- Timing of the transaction in comparison to when the transferee was established by the group — if there is a short period of time between the common control transaction and when the transferee was established by the group, then the carrying amounts of the transferee may be more relevant.
- Grooming transaction — if the transaction is not a “grooming transaction” in preparation for a spin-off, sale or similar transaction by the group, then the carrying amounts of the transferee may be more relevant.
- Users of the financial statements — if the users of the financial statements previously relied on the financial statements of the transferee (e.g., if there were significant noncontrolling shareholders), then the carrying amounts of the transferee may be more relevant.

In such circumstances, differences will arise to the extent there are basis differences (e.g., goodwill) between the carrying amounts in the accounts of the transferor and transferee.

Consider the following example:

- Entity A owns 100% of Entity B and Entity C.
- Entity B acquires 100% of Entity C from Entity A.
- Afterwards, Entity A (the transferor) owns 100% of Entity B and Entity B (the receiving entity) owns 100% of Entity C (the transferee).
- Entity B is required to prepare consolidated financial statements.

For purposes of preparing its consolidated financial statements, under US GAAP, Entity B must record the net assets of Entity C at their historical carrying amounts in the accounts of Entity A (the transferor). Under IFRS, we would also expect Entity B to record the net assets of Entity C at their historical carrying amounts in the accounts of Entity A (the transferor). However, if Entity B determines that it is acceptable to record the transferred net assets at their carrying amounts in the accounts of Entity C, differences will arise to the extent there are basis differences (e.g., goodwill) between the carrying amounts in the accounts of Entity A (the transferor) and Entity C (the transferee).

In addition, under US GAAP, comparative financial information must be restated for the periods that the entities were under common control. Under IFRS, companies may either follow the US GAAP approach or may elect not to restate comparative financial information. (See our International GAAP® publication.)
### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### IFRS 1 implications:
If the receiving entity is a first-time adopter, it would not be required to restate any post-transition date common control transaction because both US GAAP and IFRS permit the receiving entity to record the transferred net assets at their carrying amounts in the accounts of the transferor. However, if the receiving entity elected not to restate the common control transaction, then it has effectively made a policy election to account for all subsequent common control transactions by recording the transferred net assets at their carrying amounts in the accounts of the transferor.

### 7. Is pushdown accounting applied in the separate financial statements of an acquired subsidiary?

Pushdown accounting is a basis of accounting that reflects the parent’s cost in the separate financial statements of an acquired subsidiary. That is, the fair values assigned to the assets and liabilities of the acquired subsidiary and goodwill are reflected in the separate financial statements of the acquired subsidiary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 805-50-25-4 to 9, 805-50-30-10 to 12</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 8.10 through 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An acquired entity can choose to apply pushdown accounting in its separate financial statements when an acquirer obtains control of it or later. However, an entity’s election to apply pushdown accounting is irrevocable.</td>
<td>No guidance exists and, therefore, it is unclear whether push-down accounting is acceptable under IFRS. However, the general view is that entities may not use the hierarchy in IAS 8 to refer to US GAAP and apply pushdown accounting in the separate financial statements of an acquired subsidiary because the application of pushdown accounting will result in the recognition and measurement of assets and liabilities in a manner that conflicts with certain IFRS standards and interpretations. For example, the application of pushdown accounting generally will result in the recognition of internally generated goodwill and other internally generated intangible assets at the subsidiary level, which conflicts with the guidance in IAS 38.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:
If a US GAAP reporter applies pushdown accounting in the separate financial statements of an acquired subsidiary, the carrying amounts of the assets and liabilities in that subsidiary generally will be higher under US GAAP than IFRS. This is because the parent’s cost basis, which reflects the fair values assigned to the assets and liabilities of the acquired subsidiary and goodwill, is reflected in the separate statements of that subsidiary.
## Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Describe:</th>
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</table>

### IFRS 1 implications:

Although business combinations do not need to be restated under IFRS 1, that exemption is available only to the acquirer in the business combination. If the first-time adopter is a subsidiary and its balance sheet reflects the effects of pushdown accounting from prior acquisitions, those amounts may have to be reversed upon adoption of IFRS. However, a previous revaluation done for purposes of pushdown accounting can be used as deemed cost for all assets and liabilities that were recognized at full fair value.

### 8. Did the acquirer recognize an adjustment to a provisional amount during the measurement period (i.e., a measurement-period adjustment)?

The measurement period is the time after the acquisition during which the acquirer obtains information necessary to identify and measure all aspects of the business combination. During the measurement period, the acquirer recognizes provisional amounts based on the acquirer’s best estimates using information that it has obtained as of the reporting date. The acquirer adjusts provisional amounts only for adjustments resulting from facts and circumstances that existed as of the acquisition date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 805-10-25-13 and 25-17</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 3.45 and 49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An acquirer recognizes measurement-period adjustments in the period in which it determines the amounts, including the effect on earnings of any amounts it would have recorded in previous periods if the accounting had been completed at the acquisition date. The acquirer still must disclose the amounts and reasons for adjustments to the provisional amounts. The acquirer also must disclose, by line item, the amount of the adjustment reflected in the current-period income statement that would have been recognized in previous periods if the adjustment to provisional amounts had been recognized as of the acquisition date. Alternatively, an acquirer may present those amounts separately on the face of the income statement.</td>
<td>An acquirer recognizes measurement-period adjustments on a retrospective basis. The acquirer revises comparative information for any prior periods presented, including revisions for any effects on the prior-period income statement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

If a US GAAP reporter recognizes an adjustment to a provisional amount during the measurement period, the adjustment would be made in the period it is identified, including the effect on earnings of any amounts they would have recorded in previous periods if the accounting had been completed at the acquisition date. As such, any prior period comparative information presented will not reflect the effects of the adjustment as if it had been made at the acquisition date.
**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Depends on policy election**

Yes ☐  No ☐  ☐

**IFRS 1 implications:**

If the first-time adopter recognized an adjustment to a provisional amount during the measurement period, the first-time adopter must retrospectively revise comparative information for any prior periods presented, including revisions for any effects on the prior-period income statement to comply with IFRS 3. The revised periods would include the reporting period that includes the business combination and any subsequent reporting period through the period the measurement-period adjustment was recognized under US GAAP.
**Inventory**

**Similarities:**

ASC 330, *Inventory*, and IAS 2, *Inventories*, are both based on the principle that the primary basis of accounting for inventory is cost. Both define inventory as assets held for sale in the ordinary course of business, in the process of production for such sale or to be consumed in the production of goods or services. The permitted techniques for cost measurement are similar under both US GAAP and IFRS. Further, under both US GAAP and IFRS the cost of inventory includes all direct expenditures to ready inventory for sale, such as allocable overhead, while selling costs are excluded from the cost of inventories, as are most storage costs and general and administrative costs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 330, <em>Inventory</em></td>
<td>► IAS 2, <em>Inventories</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Convergence:**

In July 2015 the FASB issued ASU 2015-11, *Inventory (Topic 330): Simplifying the Measurement of Inventory*, which requires that inventories other than those accounted for under the last in, first out (LIFO) or retail inventory method (RIM), be measured at the lower of cost and net realizable value (NRV). The guidance is effective for PBEs for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017. Early adoption is permitted as of the beginning of an interim or annual reporting period. This ASU will generally result in convergence in the subsequent measurement of inventory other than those accounted for under the LIFO or RIM.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

IFRS 1 provides no special exemptions or guidance for inventories.

1. **Does the reporting entity use the LIFO method to value inventory?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 330-10-30-9</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 2.25, BC9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LIFO is an acceptable method.</td>
<td>LIFO is prohibited.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

While LIFO is an allowable method under US GAAP, it is prohibited under IFRS. In both US GAAP and IFRS, specific identification, FIFO and weighted average cost methods are acceptable. The retail inventory method, as applicable, is also acceptable for both US GAAP and IFRS.
Identified difference?
Describe:  
Click here to enter text.

2. Has the reporting entity recorded inventory write-downs to the lower of cost or market (LCM) within the reporting period?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 330-10-35-1 through 35-12</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 2.6, 2.9; IAS 2.28-31</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-11, inventory is carried at the lower of cost or market. Market is defined as current replacement cost as long as market is not greater than NRV (estimated selling price less reasonable costs of completion, disposal and transportation) and is not less than NRV reduced by a normal sales margin.</td>
<td>Inventory is carried at the lower of cost or NRV. NRV is defined as the estimated selling price in the ordinary course of business less the estimated costs of completion and the estimated costs necessary to make the sale.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:
The concept of lower of cost or market does not exist within IFRS. Instead, IAS 2 requires that inventories be written down to the lower of cost or NRV (that is, estimated selling price less estimated cost to complete and estimated selling costs). Accordingly, required write-downs may be greater for US GAAP compared to IFRS. Additionally, inventory write-downs may be required under US GAAP but not IFRS.

**Example 1 — Inventory valuation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrying value</th>
<th>$200</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Replacement cost</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRV</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRV less normal profit</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inventory would be reported at $180 (replacement cost) under US GAAP and $190 (NRV) under IFRS.

**Example 2 — Inventory valuation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carrying value</th>
<th>$200</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Replacement cost</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRV</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRV less normal profit</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inventory would be reported at $190 (NRV less normal profit) under US GAAP, because the replacement cost is less than the NRV less normal profit, and $200 under IFRS (i.e., no write-down is required).
3. Have inventories that were written down to their market value recovered in value during the reporting period?

**US GAAP — 330-10-35-14 and 270-10-45-6**

Any write-downs of inventory to the lower of cost or market create a new cost basis that subsequently cannot be reversed, unless there is a recovery in value during the same annual reporting period that the write-down occurred.

**IFRS — IAS 2.33 through 34**

The amount of write-down is reversed (limited to the amount of the original write-down) when the reasons for the write-down no longer exist.

**Implications:**

While US GAAP prohibits reversing any inventory write-downs (unless the recovery of the inventory occurred during the same reporting year in which the write-down occurred), IFRS permits reversing write-downs, up to the original amount of the write-down.

4. Does the reporting entity use different costing methods for inventories that are similar in nature and use to the entity?

**US GAAP — 330-10-30-13**

The use of a consistent cost formula for all inventories similar in nature is not required and it is acceptable under certain circumstances to use different costing methodologies. 330-10-30-13 states that a company’s “business operations in some cases may be such as to make it desirable to apply one of the acceptable methods of determining cost to one portion of the inventory or components thereof and another of the acceptable methods to other portions of the inventory.”

**IFRS — IAS 2.25 through 26**

The same cost formula must be applied to all inventories similar in nature or use to the entity. IAS 2.25 requires the use of “the same cost formula for all inventories having similar nature and use to the entity.” IAS 2.26 further states that differences in geographical location of inventories or different tax rules are not sufficient to justify the use of different cost formulas.
**Implications:**

While not a requirement under US GAAP, IFRS requires the use of the same costing method for inventories similar in nature and use.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

---

5. **Has the Company recorded a permanent inventory markdown under the retail inventory method (RIM)?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 330</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 2.22</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent markdowns do not affect the gross margins used in applying RIM. Rather, such markdowns reduce the carrying cost of inventory to NRV, less an allowance for an approximately normal profit margin.</td>
<td>Permanent markdowns affect the average gross margin used in applying RIM. Reduction of the carrying cost of inventory to below the lower of cost or NRV is not allowed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, because the permanent markdowns immediately reduce the carrying cost of inventory under RIM but do not affect the gross margins (i.e., cost complement) used in applying RIM, it is possible that the carrying value of inventory can be reduced below both original cost and NRV, particularly for deeply discounted inventory items.

Under IFRS, reduction of the carrying cost of inventory to below the lower of cost or NRV is not allowed.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
6. Does the reporting entity classify major spare parts as inventories?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 16.8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No specific guidance. Some entities record major spare parts as inventory, some record them as property, plant and equipment or as other types of assets.</td>
<td>Major spare parts are required to be accounted for as property, plant and equipment under certain circumstances — for example, when an entity expects to use major spare parts during more than one period. Similarly, if the spare parts can be used only in connection with an item of property, plant and equipment, they are also accounted for as property, plant and equipment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

US GAAP has no specific guidance on this issue, and as a result, diversity in practice exists. Major spare parts are commonly classified as part of property, plant and equipment, or inventories, or as a separately identified asset on the balance sheet. IFRS requires that major spare parts be included within PP&E in the circumstances described above; otherwise spare parts are likely to be carried as inventories.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</table>

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7. Has the entity recorded an asset retirement obligation (ARO) that was incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used a long-lived asset to produce inventory during that period?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upon initial recognition of an ARO, an entity shall capitalize an asset retirement cost by increasing the carrying amount of the related long-lived asset by the same amount as the liability.</td>
<td>An entity applies IAS 2, <em>Inventories</em>, to the costs of obligations for dismantling, removing or restoring the site on which an item (property, plant or equipment) is located that are incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used the item to produce inventories during that period; therefore, an ARO that is created during the production of inventory is accounted for as a cost of the inventory and it is added to the carrying amount of the inventory.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, all ARO costs are capitalized as part of property, plant and equipment and depreciation of an asset used to produce inventory is allocated to inventory through the allocation of overhead. Under IFRS, the ARO costs should be considered an inventoriable cost in the period in which they are incurred if the costs relate to an asset that is used to produce inventory during the period. Accounting for these costs in accordance with IAS 2 should generally achieve a similar result as accounting for them under US GAAP. However, differences may arise in the timing and amount recognized in inventory as a result of the depreciation and allocation method, including impairment, applied under US GAAP. Additionally, there will be a difference in the gross property, plant and equipment balance as no amount is recorded in property, plant and equipment under IAS 2.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Property, plant and equipment

Similarities:

Under both US GAAP and IFRS property, plant and equipment (PP&E) consists of tangible assets that are held and used for more than one reporting period. Other concepts that are similar include the following:

Cost

Both US GAAP and IFRS have similar criteria for the initial recognition of an item of PP&E. That is, the costs to acquire an asset along with any costs directly attributable to bringing the asset to its location of use and condition necessary for it to be capable of operating in the manner intended by management are capitalized if the future economic benefits are probable and can be reliably measured. Additionally, repairs and maintenance costs are expensed as incurred under both US GAAP and IFRS. Neither model permits the capitalization of start-up costs, general administrative and overhead costs, or regular maintenance. However, both US GAAP and IFRS require that the costs of dismantling an asset and restoring its site of use (i.e., the costs of asset retirement under ASC 410-20 or IAS 37) be included in the cost of the asset. Both US GAAP and IFRS require a provision for asset retirement costs to be recorded when a legal obligation exists, although IFRS requires provision in other circumstances as well.

Depreciation

Depreciation of long-lived assets is required to be recognized on a systematic basis under both US GAAP and IFRS.

Borrowing costs

Both US GAAP and IFRS require that certain interest costs pertaining to the construction of items of PP&E be capitalized.

Changes in depreciation methods

ASC 250 and IAS 8 both treat changes in depreciation method, residual value, and useful economic life as a change in accounting estimate requiring prospective treatment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 360, <em>Property, Plant, and Equipment</em></td>
<td>► IAS 8, <em>Accounting Policies, Changes in Accounting Estimates and Errors</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 835-20, <em>Capitalization of Interest</em></td>
<td>► IAS 16, <em>Property, Plant and Equipment</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 250, <em>Accounting Changes and Error Corrections</em></td>
<td>► IAS 23, <em>Borrowing Costs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>► IAS 40, <em>Investment Property</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASC 360-10 serves as the primary guidance for PP&E under US GAAP. However, it provides limited guidance on the recognition and measurement of property plant and equipment. Under IFRS, IAS 16 serves as the primary guidance for the recognition and measurement of PP&E. IAS 16 provides more specific guidance than US GAAP.

Convergence:

No further convergence efforts are expected in the near term.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

In connection with an entity’s first-time adoption of IFRS, IFRS 1 allows the entity to elect to treat the fair value of PP&E at the date of transition as the deemed cost for IFRS. Alternatively, a company may also elect to use a previous valuation of an item of PP&E at or before the transition date to IFRS as the deemed cost for IFRS, as long as the company appropriately depreciates the item of PP&E in accordance with IAS 16 from that previous measurement date forward. These exemptions also may be applied to investment property and certain intangible assets.

Given the significance of these assets (and the large number of transactions affecting PP&E), the IASB recognized that restatement may be difficult and could involve undue cost and effort for most first-time adopters. Nevertheless, a first-time adopter needs a cost basis for these assets in its opening IFRS balance sheet. Therefore, the IASB decided to introduce the notion of a deemed cost that is not the “true” IFRS compliant cost basis of an asset, but a surrogate that is deemed to be a suitable starting point.

IFRS 1 defines deemed cost as “an amount used as a surrogate for cost or depreciated cost at a given date.” For example, a first-time adopter may have previously established a deemed cost under its previous GAAP for some or all of its assets by revaluing them at their fair value at a particular date, such as the values determined as part of a business combination or an impairment analysis. Subsequent depreciation or amortization assumes that the entity had initially recognized the asset at that particular date and that its cost was equal to the deemed cost.

It is important to note that the deemed cost exemption in IFRS 1 is intended to be applied on an item by item basis other than classes or categories of assets (e.g., land, buildings, equipment, vehicles, etc.). The same exemption is available for investment property and intangible assets. Thus, a first-time adopter may apply the deemed cost exemption to some, but not all, of its assets. For example, it could apply the exemption to a selection of investment properties, a part of a factory, or some of the assets leased under a single finance lease.

In the absence of this exemption, the requirements of IAS 16 and IAS 40 would have to be applied as if the first-time adopter had always applied these standards. This could be onerous because of the long-lived nature of these assets. In order to conform the previous GAAP to IFRS, changes to capitalization and depreciation could be required that would likely involve extensive effort and possibly even situations in which the accounting records for the applicable period were no longer available.

1. Is the reporting entity interested in changing its current approach for subsequent measurement of a class of PP&E to the revaluation model allowed under IFRS? [ ] Yes [ ] No

Under US GAAP, PP&E is carried at cost less accumulated depreciation. Revaluation of the historical cost of an item of PP&E is not permitted. Under IFRS, an entity must make an accounting policy election either to carry a class of PP&E at historical cost or at a revalued amount (fair value) if fair value can be reliably measured. Revaluations should be performed regularly to ensure that the carrying value of the asset is not materially different from its fair value.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — CON 5.67</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 16.29 through 42</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An entity reports PP&amp;E at historical cost, which is the amount of cash, or its equivalent, paid to acquire an asset, commonly adjusted after acquisition for depreciation or other allocations.</td>
<td>After initial recognition, an entity should elect to carry PP&amp;E either at: (1) cost less any accumulated depreciation and impairment losses or (2) a revalued amount, being its fair value at the date of the revaluation less any subsequent accumulated depreciation and subsequent impairment losses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When an item of PP&E is revalued, any accumulated depreciation at the date of the revaluation is treated in one of the following ways:

(a) restated proportionately with the change in the gross carrying amount of the asset so that the carrying amount of the asset after revaluation equals its revalued amount. Generally used when revaluation is by means of an index

(b) eliminated against the gross carrying amount of the asset and the net amount restated to the revalued amount of the asset

The amount of the adjustment arising on the restatement or elimination of accumulated depreciation forms part of the increase or decrease in carrying amount.

If an asset's carrying amount is increased as a result of a revaluation, the increase is recognized in other comprehensive income and accumulated directly to equity under the heading of revaluation surplus. However, the increase is recognized in profit or loss to the extent that it reverses a revaluation decrease of the same asset previously recognized in profit or loss.

If an asset's carrying amount is decreased as a result of a revaluation, the decrease is recognized in profit or loss. However, the decrease is recognized in other comprehensive income reducing the amount accumulated in equity under the heading of revaluation surplus to the extent of any credit balance existing in the revaluation surplus in respect of that asset.

**Implications:**

US GAAP requires capitalized PP&E to be carried at historical cost less accumulated depreciation and impairment losses. IAS 16 allows this approach or an alternative approach — the revaluation model (fair value less subsequent accumulated depreciation or impairment losses). When an entity elects the revaluation model, any revaluation must be applied to a class of PP&E. A class of PP&E is a grouping of assets of a similar nature and use in an entity’s operations (e.g., land, ships, machinery, furniture and fixtures). If, for example, an entity owns two parcels of land, one in California for growing grapes and one in Connecticut for its corporate headquarters, each parcel of land could be in a different class of assets because the land is used differently. To avoid selective revaluation, the items within a class of PP&E are revalued simultaneously.
Identified difference?  
**Describe:**  
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**IFRS 1 implications:**

As noted above, under IFRS 1, a reporting entity can elect to report its PP&E at fair value upon adoption of IFRS using fair value as deemed cost. Using deemed cost could reduce an entity’s time and effort relating to recalculating the carrying value of its assets as if IAS 16 had always been applied or estimating a fair value of its assets as of an earlier date when such a valuation may have been previously prepared relating to, for example, an impairment or a business combination. Note that an entity that uses the deemed cost exemption for PP&E is not required to apply the revaluation model under IAS 16 for subsequent recognition.

**2. Does the reporting entity depreciate property plant and equipment using a composite estimated life for an entire asset as opposed to following a component approach?**

Components are generally defined as the individual parts of the asset whose cost is material in relation to the entire cost of the asset — for example, the engine and the body frame are two components of an airplane.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360-10-35-4, 908-360-30-2</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 16.43 through 48 and 58 through 59</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Component depreciation is permitted but not common.</td>
<td>Component depreciation is required if components of an asset have differing patterns of benefit. Each part of an item of PP&amp;E with a cost that is significant in relation to the total cost of the item should be depreciated separately.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Although component depreciation is optional under US GAAP, most entities depreciate assets based on a composite estimated useful life of the asset as a whole. However, component depreciation is required under IFRS. Accordingly, when an asset initially is recorded, an entity must evaluate the useful lives and related depreciation of each significant component of the asset separately. This could create differences in the carrying values of the assets as the significant components of the asset likely are depreciated over a longer life under US GAAP than under IFRS. As noted above the engine of an airplane likely will be depreciated over a different useful life than the body of an airplane.

Identified difference?  
**Describe:**  
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
IFRS 1 implications:

As noted above, under IFRS 1, a reporting entity can elected to report its PP&E at fair value upon adoption of IFRS using fair value as deemed cost thereby eliminating the need to identify the significant components of an asset and recalculate historical depreciation on each component as if IAS 16 always had been applied. If an entity uses a previous GAAP revaluation that occurred before the date of transition to IFRS as deemed cost, depreciation on that item of PP&E must be recalculated, under the component approach, from the date of the revaluation to the IFRS transition date.

3. Has the reporting entity incurred costs relating to a major inspection or overhaul of PP&E?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360, 908-360-25-2, 30-2 and 30-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 16.7, 8, 10 and 14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Although ASC 908 provides specific guidance for the airline industry, US GAAP does not provide guidance in other industries. As a result repair and maintenance costs not within the scope of ASC 908 are expensed as incurred.</td>
<td>Major spare parts and stand-by equipment qualify as PP&amp;E when an entity expects to use them during more than one period, it is probable that the economic benefits of the assets will flow to the entity, and the costs of such can be reliably measured. The carrying amount of the part that was replaced should be written off. Additionally, the cost of a major inspection of the PP&amp;E is capitalized and amortized over the period until the next inspection.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

US GAAP only provides entities in the airline industry guidance for accounting for overhaul expenses. An entity in the airline industry must make an accounting policy election from one of three methods.

With limited exceptions, IFRS provides guidance relating to major inspection or overhaul of PP&E for all industries. Under IFRS, the cost of the replaced or overhauled part is capitalized. In addition, as each major inspection is performed, the cost of such inspection is recognized and depreciated as part of the carrying amount of the item of PP&E as a replacement if the recognition criteria are satisfied. Any remaining carrying amount of the cost of the previous inspection (as distinct from physical parts) is derecognized. Differences will exist for entities that do not follow the airline industry guidance. For entities that follow the airline industry guidance, differences may exist depending on the accounting model used under US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

If an entity frequently performs overhauls and expects that the amount associated with the overhauls will be material, the entity may find it easier to use the deemed cost alternative (discussed above) upon conversion to IFRS in order to value PP&E upon conversion, rather than recalculate life-to-date depreciation on each significant component of these assets, including the cost of each inspection.
4. Does the reporting entity have PP&E that could be considered investment property?

Yes ☐  No ☐

Investment property is defined under IAS 40 as property (land or a building — or part of a building — or both) held to earn rent or held for capital appreciation (or both) and may include property held by lessees under a finance/operating lease. Examples of investment property include land held for speculative purposes or a building leased out under one or more operating leases. Property used in the production or supply of goods or services, or for sale in the ordinary course of business would not qualify as investment property under IAS 40.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 40.6 and 40.30 through 32C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PP&amp;E is accounted for as either held and used or held for sale.</td>
<td>Investment property may be accounted for on a historical cost basis or on a fair value basis (a property interest held by a lessee under an operating lease may be classified and accounted for as investment property, but it must be accounted for using the fair value model). Investment property, if carried at fair value, is not depreciated and changes in fair value are reflected in income.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, investment property is treated as PP&E as either assets held and used or as assets held for sale, whichever is appropriate. Accordingly, assets held and used are carried at cost less accumulated depreciation and any impairment and assets classified as held for sale (under the “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10 or ASC 205-20) are carried at fair value less costs to sell. Under IAS 40, investment property is accounted for separately from PP&E and may be accounted for on either a historical cost basis or a fair value basis based on an entity’s accounting policy election. If carried at fair value, investment property is not depreciated and changes to fair value are reflected in income. The cost model is similar under both US GAAP and IFRS, although there are differences in the impairment standards that could lead to differences in the carrying amounts of the assets. (See the “Impairment of long-lived assets held and used” section of this publication for further discussion.)

Investment property that is reported using the cost method under IAS 40 and that is classified as held for sale is carried at the lower of carrying value or fair value less costs to sell under IFRS 5 if the investment property is part of a disposal group. The measurement requirements of IFRS 5 apply to the group (including the investment property) as a whole, so that the group is measured at the lower of its carrying amount and fair value less costs to sell.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

An entity could elect to use fair value as deemed cost for its investment property, even if it plans to adopt the historical cost method under IFRS, thereby eliminating the need to recalculate historical depreciation. If the fair value as deemed cost exemption is used, the investment property would be
depreciated under IFRS from the date of the valuation used to determine deemed cost to the IFRS transition date. Additionally, if an entity elects to carry its investment property at fair value under IFRS and a recent valuation of its investment property is available, for example, from a business combination or an impairment analysis, an entity may be able to avoid having a full valuation performed at the transition date. This would be the case only if the entity can demonstrate that the assumptions used in the valuation remain appropriate at the IFRS transition date.

5. Did the reporting entity change its depreciation methods for any item of PP&E during fiscal years beginning before 15 December 2005 (or 2005 and earlier for calendar year entities)?

Under ASC 250, a change in depreciation, amortization, or depletion method for long-lived, nonfinancial assets is a change in accounting estimate affected by a change in accounting principle and should be accounted for in the period of change and in future periods (i.e., prospectively). Accordingly, after the adoption of the guidance in ASC 250, which is effective for accounting changes made in fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2005, the accounting treatment for changes in depreciation is the same under both US GAAP and IFRS. That is, both changes in the estimated useful life of, and the expected pattern of consumption of the future economic benefits embodied in, a depreciable asset affects depreciation expense for the current period and for each future period during the asset’s remaining useful life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 250-10-45-17 through 45-20</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 8.32 through 38</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A change in a depreciation method is accounted for as a change in an accounting estimate affected by a change in accounting principle. Such a change is accounted for prospectively in (1) the period of change if the change affects that period only or (2) the period of change and future periods if the change affects both. Prior to the effective date of the guidance in ASC 250, changes in depreciation methods were required to be treated as a change in accounting principle recognized in net income in the period of change as a cumulative effect adjustment.</td>
<td>A change in a depreciation method is accounted for as a change in an accounting estimate. Such a change is accounted for prospectively in (1) the period of change if the change affects that period only or (2) the period of change and future periods if the change affects both. A change in the expected pattern of consumption of the future economic benefits embodied in a depreciable asset affects depreciation expense for the current period and for each future period during the asset’s remaining useful life. The effect of the change relating to the current period is recognized as income or expense in the current period. The effect, if any, on future periods is recognized as income or expense in those future periods.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Because of the differences between US GAAP and IFRS prior to the adoption of the guidance in ASC 250, assets for which a depreciation method was changed in a fiscal year that began before 15 December 2005 will have a different net book value and depreciation expense than under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
IFRS 1 implications:

As noted above, the net book value of assets for which a depreciation method was changed prior to the adoption of the guidance in ASC 250 will be different from the amount under IFRS, before considering any other potential differences. As a result, the deemed cost exemption under IFRS 1 will be beneficial for entities with accounting changes related to assets that have not been fully depreciated that were made before the guidance in ASC 250 was adopted. Under the IFRS 1 exemption, as discussed above, a reporting entity can elect to record its PP&E at fair value as deemed cost thereby eliminating the need to consider US GAAP-IFRS differences prior to the adoption of IFRS in order to account for PP&E as if IAS 16 always had been applied.
Intangible assets

Similarities:

The definition of intangible assets as assets (not including financial assets) that lack physical substance is similar under both US GAAP’s ASC 805 and ASC 350 and the IASB’s IFRS 3 and IAS 38. In order to recognize an intangible asset, both accounting models require probable future economic benefits that will flow to the entity from costs that can be reliably measured. However, certain costs (e.g., start-up costs) are never capitalized as intangible assets under either model and goodwill is recognized only in a business combination. In general, intangible assets that are acquired outside of a business combination are recognized at cost. With the exception of development costs, internally developed intangibles are not recognized as an asset under either ASC 350 or IAS 38. Moreover, internal costs related to the research phase of research and development are expensed as incurred under both accounting models.

Amortization of finite-lived intangible assets over their estimated useful lives is required under both US GAAP and IFRS, with one minor exception in ASC 985 related to the amortization of the capitalized costs of computer software sold to others (see Question 2 below). In both, if there is no foreseeable limit to the period over which an intangible asset is expected to generate net cash inflows to the entity, the useful life is considered indefinite and the asset is not amortized. Goodwill is never amortized under either GAAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 350, Intangibles — Goodwill and Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 985, Software</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 340, Other Assets and Deferred Costs</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 720, Other Expense</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 730, Research and Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► IAS 38, Intangible Assets</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

In May 2016, the FASB proposed simplifying the accounting for goodwill impairment to reduce the cost and complexity of the goodwill impairment test. The FASB is deliberating a separate project with the objective of further reducing the cost and complexity of the subsequent accounting for goodwill (e.g., considering an amortization approach). The FASB also is deliberating a project on accounting for identifiable intangible assets in a business combination with the objective of evaluating whether certain identifiable intangible assets acquired in a business combination should be subsumed into goodwill.

The IASB has a similar project on its research agenda to consider improvements to the impairment requirements for goodwill that was added in response to the findings in its Post-implementation Review (PIR) of IFRS 3. Currently, these are not joint projects and generally are not expected to converge the guidance on accounting for goodwill impairment. In the IASB’s research project on goodwill and impairment, the IASB plans to similarly consider the subsequent accounting for goodwill. The IASB also is considering which intangible assets should be recognized apart from goodwill, as part of the research project on goodwill and impairment. The IASB and FASB have tentatively planned to make joint decisions on joint papers on both of these projects (subsequent accounting for goodwill and identifiable intangible assets).

The accounting for certain intangible assets transactions (e.g., advertisement costs) will be affected by the implementation of ASU 2014-09 and IFRS 15.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

In its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date, a first-time adopter:

(1) excludes all intangible assets that do not meet the criteria for recognition under IAS 38; and

(2) includes all intangible assets that meet the recognition criteria in IAS 38 at that date, including intangible assets that were not recognized in a pre-transition date business combination (i.e., the intangible assets that were subsumed in goodwill).

In assessing whether an intangible asset qualifies for recognition as of the transition date, a first-time adopter should apply the guidance in IAS 38. Under IAS 38, an intangible asset qualifies for recognition only if it is probable that the future economic benefits attributable to the asset will flow to the entity and the cost of the asset can be measured reliably. In addition, in assessing whether an internally generated intangible asset qualifies for recognition, IAS 38 does not permit the use of hindsight. Therefore, a first-time adopter may capitalize the costs of an internally generated intangible asset only if it:

(1) concludes, based on an assessment made and documented at the date of that conclusion (in this case, the transition date), that it is probable that future economic benefits from the asset will flow to the entity; and

(2) has a reliable system for accumulating the costs of internally generated intangible assets when, or shortly after, they are incurred.

In other words, IFRS 1 does not permit the first-time adopter to reconstruct retrospectively the costs of internally generated intangible assets. Therefore, in our view, it would be rare for an internally generated intangible asset that was not previously recognized under the first-time adopter’s previous GAAP to qualify for recognition as of the transition date because either: (1) the intangible asset did not meet the requirements for capitalization in IAS 38, or (2) capitalization would require the use of hindsight, which IAS 38 does not permit.

Generally, it will be easier to capitalize separately acquired intangible assets than internally generated intangible assets because contemporaneous documentation that was prepared to support the investment decision often exists.

A first-time adopter also will need to assess whether its previous GAAP amortization methods would be acceptable under IFRS. If the first-time adopter determines that its previous amortization methods would be acceptable under IFRS, then no adjustment to the carrying amount of the intangible assets would be required in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet. Any subsequent change in the intangible asset’s estimated useful life or amortization pattern would be accounted for prospectively. However, if the first-time adopter determines that its previous amortization methods would not be acceptable under IFRS, if material, the carrying amount of the intangible assets in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet must be retrospectively restated to comply with IFRS.

IFRS 1 also permits a first-time adopter to elect to measure an intangible asset at the date of transition to IFRS at its fair value and use that fair value as its deemed cost at that date if: (1) the intangible asset qualifies for recognition under IAS 38, and (2) the intangible asset meets the criteria in IAS 38 for revaluation (including the existence of an active market). Because an active market does not exist for most intangible assets, in general, most first-time adopters will not be able to use this IFRS 1 election.
1. Did the entity incur costs relating to research and development activities (other than software development costs)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 730-10-25</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 38.54, 57</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Costs relating to research and development activities are expensed as incurred, unless the costs relate to an item that has an alternative future use.</td>
<td>Costs relating to research activities are expensed as incurred. Costs relating to development activities may be capitalized if an entity can demonstrate all of the following: ► the technical feasibility of completing the intangible asset so that it will be available for use or sale; ► the intention to complete the intangible asset and use or sell it; ► the ability to use or sell the intangible asset; ► how the intangible asset will generate probable future benefits by demonstrating 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; ► the availability of adequate technical, financial and other resources to complete the development and to use or sell the intangible asset; and ► the ability to measure reliably development expenditures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

If an IFRS reporter can demonstrate that it has satisfied all of the conditions in IAS 38 for capitalization, differences between US GAAP and IFRS will arise because the IFRS reporter would be able to capitalize development costs that a US GAAP reporter would otherwise have expensed. However, if any of the conditions in IAS 38 have not been met, development costs generally will be accounted for similarly under both US GAAP and IFRS (i.e., expensed).

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

IFRS 1 does not permit a first-time adopter to reconstruct retrospectively the costs of internally generated intangible assets. Therefore, in our view, it would be rare for an intangible asset that was not previously recognized by the first-time adopter to qualify for recognition as of the transition date because either: (1) the intangible asset did not meet the requirements for capitalization in IAS 38, or (2) capitalization would require the use of hindsight, which IAS 38 does not permit.
2. Did the entity incur costs relating to computer software that was sold, leased, or otherwise marketed?

**US GAAP — 985-20-25, 985-20-35**

Internal and external costs incurred after technological feasibility has been established are capitalized. Technological feasibility is established when an entity has completed all planning, designing, coding, and testing activities necessary to establish that the product can be produced to meet its design specifications including functions, features, and technical performance requirements. ASC 985 details certain activities that, at a minimum, must be completed to provide evidence that technological feasibility has been established. These activities differ slightly depending on whether a detailed program design or a working model of the software is used to establish technological feasibility.

Capitalized computer software costs are amortized on a product-by-product basis. The annual amortization is the greater of the computed amount using:

- the ratio that current gross revenues for a product bear to the total of current and anticipated future gross revenues for that product; or
- the straight-line method over the remaining estimated economic life of the product including the current reporting period.

**IFRS — IAS 38.57, 97**

No separate guidance exists for computer software costs — the general principles in IAS 38 apply. Therefore, computer software costs relating to development activities may be capitalized if all of the conditions in paragraph 57 of IAS 38 have been satisfied (see Question 1 above for a summary of the conditions in paragraph 57 of IAS 38).

Capitalized computer software costs should be amortized on a systematic basis over its useful life. The amortization method used should reflect the pattern in which the asset’s future economic benefits are expected to be consumed by the entity. If that pattern cannot be determined reliably, the straight-line method should be used.

**Implications:**

Because the principles in ASC 985 and IAS 38 are similar, we generally would not expect significant differences in the capitalization of computer software costs that will be sold, leased, or otherwise marketed. However, because the specific amortization method required by ASC 985 is not permitted under IAS 38, the amortization of computer software costs will differ from IFRS if approach (1) above is used for any period under US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
**Intangible assets**

**IFRS 1 implications:**

In preparing its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must assess whether the method used to amortize computer software costs under ASC 985 complies with the requirements of IAS 38. If the carrying amount of the computer software costs as of the transition date was determined pursuant to approach (1) above, the carrying amount must be retrospectively restated to comply with IAS 38, if the difference is material.

**3. Did the entity incur costs relating to computer software developed for internal-use?**

Internal-use software is software that is acquired, internally developed, or modified solely to meet an entity’s internal needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 350-40-25-2 through 25-4; 55-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 38.57</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal and external costs incurred during the application development stage are capitalized. All other costs are expensed as incurred. The activities during the application development stage include: (1) design of chosen path, including software configuration and software interfaces, (2) coding, (3) installation to hardware, and (4) testing, including the parallel processing phase.</td>
<td>No separate guidance exists for computer software costs — the general principles in IAS 38 apply. Therefore, computer software costs relating to development activities may be capitalized if all of the conditions in paragraph 57 of IAS 38 have been satisfied (see Question 1 above for a summary of the conditions in paragraph 57 of IAS 38).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Because the principles in ASC 350-40 and IAS 38 are similar, we generally would not expect there to be differences in the capitalization of costs of software developed for internal use. However, it is possible that the costs incurred during activity (1) of the application development stage (design of chosen path, including software configuration and software interfaces) may not be capitalized under IFRS since at that point in time it may be difficult to demonstrate that all of the conditions for capitalization in IAS 38 have been met.

In addition, the classification of computer software developed for internal use may differ between US GAAP and IFRS. Under US GAAP, computer software developed for internal use is generally classified as property, plant and equipment whereas under IFRS such assets are generally classified as intangible assets.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

In its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date, a first-time adopter would be required to derecognize any costs that were capitalized under US GAAP that would not qualify for capitalization under IAS 38 as of that date.
4. Did the entity purchase computer software for its own use?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 350-40, 805-20-55-38</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 38.4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchased computer software is accounted for as an intangible asset.</td>
<td>Purchased computer software is accounted for as an intangible asset unless the software is an integral part of the related hardware in which case it is accounted for as property, plant and equipment under IAS 16. For example, computer software for a computer-controlled machine tool that cannot operate without that specific software would be considered an integral part of the related hardware and, therefore, accounted for under IAS 16.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Purchased computer software that is integral to the related hardware may be classified differently under US GAAP than IFRS and may result in different disclosure requirements. Also, because IAS 16 permits the use of the revaluation model to subsequently measure property, plant and equipment, subsequent measurement differences may arise.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**IFRS 1 implications:**

In preparing its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must assess whether any purchased computer software is integral to the related hardware. If the purchased computer software is integral and the computer software was previously classified as an intangible asset, the first-time adopter must reclassify the carrying amount of the purchased computer software as of the transition date to property, plant and equipment and assess whether its previous accounting under ASC 350 complies with the requirements of IAS 16.

5. Does the entity account for intangible assets at cost?

This Question relates to intangible assets that were (1) acquired separately, (2) acquired in a business combination, or (3) internally developed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 350-30-35-6 through 35-19</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 38.72</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Intangible assets are subsequently accounted for at cost, less accumulated amortization and any impairment losses. | Intangible assets are subsequently accounted for at:
  - Cost less accumulated amortization and any impairment losses; or
  - Fair value (if an active market exists) less accumulated amortization and any impairment loss (referred to as the revaluation model). |
Implications:

Because an active market does not exist for most intangible assets, the use of the IFRS revaluation model is rare and, therefore, the subsequent accounting for intangible assets generally will be similar under US GAAP and IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Because both standards permit intangible assets to be recorded at cost less accumulated amortization and any impairment losses, a first-time adopter generally will not be required to adjust the carrying amount of its intangible assets in its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date. However, if the intangible asset meets the criteria in IAS 38 for revaluation, the first-time adopter may elect to measure the intangible asset at its fair value at the transition date and use that fair value as its deemed cost at that date. In this case, the first-time adopter must then determine whether it will subsequently account for the intangible asset using either the cost model or the revaluation model.

6. Did the entity incur advertising expenditures?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advertising and promotional costs are either:</td>
<td>Advertising and promotional costs are expensed as incurred. A prepayment may be recognized as an asset only when payment for the goods or services is made in advance of the entity having access to the goods or receiving the services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► expensed as incurred; or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► expensed when the advertising takes place</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for the first time (policy election)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct-response advertising costs may be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capitalized if:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the primary purpose is to elicit sales to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customers who could be shown to have responded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>specifically to the advertising; and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► if it results in probable future economic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benefits.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Such costs are amortized over the period during</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which the future benefits are expected to be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>received.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interim reporting

For interim reporting, advertising costs may be deferred within a fiscal year if the benefits of an expenditure clearly extend beyond the interim period in which the expenditure is made. Advertising costs may be allocated among interim periods based on the benefits received.

Interim reporting

For interim reporting, costs that are incurred unevenly during an entity's financial year are deferred for interim reporting purposes if, and only if, it is also appropriate to anticipate or defer that type of cost at the end of the financial year. The standard does not allow the allocation of costs to individual interim periods in proportion to the expected activity levels for the year. Instead, the standard recommends that entities wishing to provide a context to the reported results do so by providing additional year-to-date disclosures for costs incurred unevenly during the financial year.

Implications:

Because of the alternatives available under US GAAP, accounting differences will arise if the entity's accounting policy is to expense advertising costs when the advertising takes place for the first time or the entity satisfies the conditions in ASC 340-20 and ASC 720-35 and capitalizes direct-response advertising costs.

Furthermore, because ASC 270 permits entities to defer advertising costs within a fiscal year if the benefits of the expenditure clearly extend beyond the interim period in which the expenditure was made, accounting differences may arise within an interim reporting period even if the entity’s accounting policy was to expense advertising costs as incurred.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

If the first-time adopter’s accounting policy was to expense advertising costs as incurred, no adjustment would be required to the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date. However, if the first-time adopter’s accounting policy was to expense advertising costs when the advertising takes place for the first time or the first-time adopter capitalized direct-response advertising costs, then any amounts capitalized as of the transition date must be derecognized and recorded as an adjustment to retained earnings (before any related adjustment for income taxes) in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet.
7. Did the entity acquire an assembled workforce as part of an asset acquisition?

An assembled workforce is a collection of employees that allows the acquirer to continue to operate the asset from the acquisition date. That is, the acquirer does not need to go through the process of finding, hiring, and training the employees because they are already in place and operating on a continuous “business as usual” basis. For example, an entity may have acquired a piece of machinery along with the employees that are familiar with its operation.

### US GAAP — 350-30-25-4

An assembled workforce that is acquired as part of an asset acquisition should be recognized as an intangible asset. For intangible assets that are acquired individually or within a group of assets, the FASB observed that the asset recognition criteria in Concepts Statement 5 are met even though the contractual-legal criterion or separability criterion has not been met. ASC 805 precludes the recognition of an assembled workforce as a separate acquired asset in a business combination.

### IFRS — IAS 38.15

An assembled workforce that is acquired as part of an asset acquisition generally is not recognized as an intangible asset because the entity usually has insufficient control over the expected future economic benefits of that assembled workforce. IFRS 3 precludes the recognition of an assembled workforce as a separate acquired asset in a business combination.

### Implications:

Because US GAAP requires the recognition of an acquired assembled workforce that is part of an asset acquisition, differences in the assignment of the purchase price to the individual identifiable assets and liabilities on the basis of their relative fair values may arise between US GAAP and IFRS, if under IFRS the entity is unable to demonstrate sufficient control over the expected future economic benefits of that assembled workforce. In such cases, none of the purchase price would be allocated to the assembled workforce under IFRS. Note that careful consideration needs to be given to whether the assembled workforce was acquired as part of a business combination. As described above, neither IFRS nor US GAAP allows the recognition of an assembled workforce in a business combination.

### Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

### IFRS 1 implications:

If the first-time adopter acquired an assembled workforce as part of a pre-transition date asset acquisition, under US GAAP, the first-time adopter would have allocated the cost of the acquisition to the individual assets (including the assembled workforce) and liabilities acquired, on the basis of their relative fair values. If, under IFRS, the first-time adopter determines that the assembled workforce does not qualify for recognition under IAS 38, the first-time adopter must retrospectively restate the asset acquisition accounting to allocate the original cost of the acquisition to the individual identifiable assets (excluding the assembled workforce) and liabilities on the basis of their relative fair values. The first-time adopter must then apply the relevant IFRSs to the individual assets and liabilities to determine their appropriate carrying amounts in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date.
However, if the asset acquisition would qualify as a business combination under IFRS 3, then the first-time adopter may apply the exemption in IFRS 1 and elect to not go back and account for that prior asset acquisition as a business combination. In that case, because the assembled workforce would not qualify for recognition when applying IAS 38 as of the transition date, the first-time adopter should reclassify the carrying amount of the assembled workforce to goodwill. When applying IAS 38, the first-time adopter should apply the provisions of IAS 38 that relate to the acquisition of intangible assets as part of a business combination.

8. Does the entity own any emission rights under a “cap and trade” program?

An entity may participate in a “cap and trade” program for emissions reductions. Under a “cap and trade” program, the government establishes a target for the amount of emissions during a compliance period. Based on the targeted emissions, the government allocates emissions allowances that give the entity the right to emit a specified amount of gases (for example, a ton of carbon dioxide). The emission allowances may be allocated free of charge, or the entity may be required to purchase the emission allowances from the government (for example, through government auctions). Participation in the program may be voluntary or compulsory.

At the end of a compliance period, the entity must deliver emissions allowances equal to its actual emissions. If an entity fails to deliver the required allowances, it may be required to pay fines (or receive a smaller financial incentive) and it may receive a smaller allocation of emissions allowances in the future. In some cases, unused (or excess) allowances may be carried forward to future compliance periods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — None</th>
<th>IFRS — None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No formal guidance exists, which has led to diversity in practice.</td>
<td>No formal guidance exists, which has led to diversity in practice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Due to the diversity in practice under both US GAAP and IFRS regarding the accounting for emissions rights under a “cap and trade” program, differences between US GAAP and IFRS may arise.

See our International GAAP® publication for guidance on the accounting alternatives that are acceptable under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

In preparing its opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must determine whether its policy to account for emission rights is acceptable based on practices that have developed under IFRS. If the first-time adopter determines that its accounting policy is not an acceptable practice under IFRS, then it must adopt a new policy and adjust the carrying amounts in its opening IFRS balance sheet to comply with IFRS.
Impairment of long-lived assets held and used

Similarities:
Both US GAAP and IFRS require an asset’s recoverability to be tested if indicators exist that an asset may be impaired. Additionally, they require that an asset found to be impaired be written down and an impairment loss recognized. The “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10 and IAS 36 apply to most long-lived assets, including finite-lived intangibles (herein referred to as long-lived assets), although some of the scope exceptions listed in the standards differ. Despite the similarity in overall objectives, differences exist in the way in which impairment is tested, recognized, and measured.

Impairment indicators
The indicators of impairment are similar for both US GAAP and IFRS and include items such as:

- A significant decrease in the market price of a long-lived asset
- A significant adverse change in the extent or manner in which a long-lived asset is used (e.g., plans to idle or discontinue using an asset)
- Evidence of obsolescence or physical damage to a long-lived asset
- A significant adverse change in legal factors or in the business climate (e.g., technological, market or economic factors) that could affect the value of a long-lived asset, including an adverse action or assessment by a regulator
- A current-period operating or cash flow loss combined with a history of operating or cash flow losses or a projection or forecast that demonstrates continuing losses associated with the use of a long-lived asset

Note that although the standards identify certain indicators, the lists are not intended to be all inclusive.

Grouping of assets for evaluation
Although both US GAAP and IFRS contain specific guidelines for grouping long-lived assets, the underlying principle in both is that long-lived assets are grouped at the lowest level for which cash flows relating to the long-lived assets can be separately identified (inflows and outflows under US GAAP, inflows only under IFRS). If goodwill is included in an asset group (US GAAP) or a cash-generating unit (IFRS), then both US GAAP and IFRS require an entity to test the non-goodwill assets for impairment first and recognize any impairment loss on those assets before carrying out the impairment test for the goodwill.

Long-lived assets to be abandoned
Long-lived assets to be abandoned are classified as held and used until actually abandoned under both US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 360, <em>Property, Plant, and Equipment</em></td>
<td>IAS 36, <em>Impairment of Assets</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
Further convergence on impairment of long-lived assets held and used is not planned at this time.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

Upon the adoption of IFRS, a first-time adopter should evaluate its long-lived assets for impairment. If impairment indicators exist, an impairment test should be performed using IAS 36.

In preparing for the adoption of IFRS, a first-time adopter that is required to evaluate its long-lived assets for impairment under US GAAP also should evaluate such assets under IFRS. For example, an entity that plans to adopt IFRS on 31 December 20X5 will be required to present full financial statements for the years ending 31 December 20X5, 20X4 and 20X3. Therefore, during this three year period leading up to the adoption of IFRS, an entity should consider evaluating its long-lived assets for impairment under both US GAAP and IFRS, in order to avoid the unnecessary burden of reperforming impairment analyses under IAS 36 several years later at the date of adoption of IFRS.

1. Has an impairment loss on long-lived assets been recognized? Do impairment indicators of long-lived assets exist at the date of transition to IFRS?

   Although the types of assets falling within the scope of the “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10 and IAS 36 generally are the same (i.e., long-lived tangible assets and intangible assets with finite lives), slight differences may exist as a result of the exclusions noted in each standard. Although both US GAAP and IFRS have similar objectives when assessing assets for impairments, differences in the application of the two models exist.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360-10-35-15 through 35-36</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 36.7 through 32, 58 through 68, 97 through 98 and 104 through 108</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Review for impairment indicators</strong></td>
<td><strong>Review for impairment indicators</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performed whenever events or changes in circumstances indicate that the carrying amount of the asset may not be recoverable.</td>
<td>Assessed at each reporting date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Asset grouping</strong></td>
<td><strong>Asset grouping</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A long-lived asset is grouped with other assets and liabilities at the lowest level for which identifiable cash flows are largely independent of the cash flows of other assets and liabilities. Goodwill is included in an asset group only if the asset group is or includes a reporting unit. Goodwill is not included in a lower-level asset group that includes only part of a reporting unit. Estimates of future cash flows used to test that lower-level asset group for recoverability should not be adjusted for the effect of excluding goodwill from the group. Other than goodwill, the carrying amounts of any assets (such as accounts receivable and inventory) and liabilities (such as accounts payable, long-term debt, and asset retirement obligations) not covered by ASC 360 that are included in an asset group shall be adjusted in accordance with other GAAP before testing the asset group for recoverability. ASC 350, Intangibles — Goodwill and Other, requires that goodwill be tested for impairment only after the carrying amounts of the other</td>
<td>If it is not possible to estimate the recoverable amount (defined below) of an individual long-lived asset, the recoverable amount of a cash generating unit to which the individual asset belongs is evaluated. A cash generating unit (CGU) is the smallest group of assets that generates cash inflows that are largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets or groups of assets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If the recoverable amount of an individual asset is determinable, assets in a cash generating unit are tested for impairment before the cash generating unit containing goodwill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If the recoverable amount of an individual asset is not determinable, an impairment loss, if any, first reduces the carrying amount of any goodwill allocated to the cash generating unit and then, to other assets of the unit on a pro rata basis using the relative carrying amounts of the assets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
assets of the reporting unit, including the long-lived assets covered by ASC 360, have been tested for impairment under other applicable accounting guidance.

An impairment loss, if any, should reduce only the carrying amounts of a long-lived asset(s) of the group. The loss should be allocated to the long-lived assets of the group on a pro rata basis using the relative carrying amounts of those assets, except that the loss allocated to an individual long-lived asset of the group shall not reduce the carrying amount of that asset below its fair value.

**Method of determining if impairment exists**

A recoverability test is performed first to determine whether the asset is recoverable. The recoverability test compares the carrying amount of the asset to the sum of its future undiscounted cash flows generated through the asset’s use and eventual disposition. If the carrying amount of the asset is greater than the cash flows, the asset is not recoverable. If the asset is not recoverable, an impairment loss calculation is required. (See below for further details.) If the carrying amount of the asset is less than the cash flows, the asset is recoverable and an impairment cannot be recorded.

**Impairment loss calculation**

The impairment loss is recognized in income for the amount by which the carrying amount of the long-lived asset exceeds its fair value.

---

An entity shall not reduce the carrying amount of the asset below the higher of:
- Its fair value less cost of disposal
- Its value in use
- Zero

**Method of determining if impairment exists**

One-step approach requires an impairment loss calculation (see below) if impairment indicators exist.

**Impairment loss calculation**

An impairment loss is recognized in income for the amount by which the carrying amount of the long-lived asset exceeds its recoverable amount. Recoverable amount is the higher of: (1) fair value less costs to sell, and (2) value in use (the present value of future cash flows to be generated through the asset’s use and eventual disposal).

---

**Implications:**

Entities will frequently recognize impairment losses earlier under IFRS than under US GAAP, because IFRS does not have the first step of US GAAP’s undiscounted cash flow recoverability test. While the guidance for asset grouping is similar under US GAAP and IFRS, differences may arise in how assets are grouped, which could affect the outcome of the impairment analysis (i.e., whether there is an impairment loss or the amount of the impairment loss). While US GAAP measures the impairment loss as the difference between the carrying amount of the asset or asset group and its fair value, IFRS measures the impairment loss as the difference between the carrying amount of the cash-generating unit and its recoverable amount. The recoverable amount is the greater of the CGU’s fair value less costs to sell and its value in use (VIU). VIU is the present value of the future cash flows expected to be derived from the continuing use of an asset or cash-generating unit and its eventual disposal. In contrast to a fair value measurement, VIU is determined using management’s
Impairment of long-lived assets held and used

assumptions. Further, when determining the recoverable amount using fair value, IFRS considers the costs to dispose of the CGU, even when the CGU is being evaluated under a held and used model.

**Impairment of assets using the revaluation alternative under IAS 16**

Under IAS 16 an entity must make a policy election to carry its property, plant and equipment at historical cost or a revaluation amount (fair value). (See Question 1 in the “Property, plant and equipment” section of this publication for further discussion of the revaluation alternative.) The discussion above is based on the assumption that the entity elected to recognize its property, plant and equipment at historical cost under IAS 16.

An impairment loss on an asset that is accounted for using the revaluation approach is recognized directly against any revaluation surplus for the asset recognized in other comprehensive income to the extent that the impairment loss does not exceed the amount in the revaluation surplus for that same asset. An impairment loss that exceeds the amount in the revaluation surplus is recognized in profit or loss. For example, if an asset with an historical cost of $100 is subsequently revalued to $135, the additional $35 would be a debit to the asset and a credit to other comprehensive income.

If, subsequently, that same asset’s fair value declines to $95, $35 of the impairment is debited to other comprehensive income and the remaining $5 is charged to profit and loss because a revaluation loss can be charged to other comprehensive income only to the extent of the cumulative revaluation surplus.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IFRS 1 implications:**

At the date of transition to IFRS, an entity is required to perform an impairment test in accordance with IAS 36, if impairment indicators relating to its long-lived assets exist. As such, the carrying value of such assets will need to conform to IFRS at the date of adoption.

If impairment indicators do not exist at the IFRS transition date but an impairment loss was recognized under US GAAP before the transition date, the reporting entity will have to go back in time to recalculate the impairment loss under IFRS, in addition to depreciation that would have been recognized under IFRS, if the entity adopts IFRS retrospectively. Electing the deemed cost exemption will eliminate the need to recreate historical records for impairment charges and depreciation in this situation.

As noted in “IFRS 1 implications” section within the “Property, plant and equipment” section of this publication, the deemed cost of an asset can be based upon a revaluation to fair value under another GAAP if the fair value as determined under such valuation is broadly comparable to fair value under IFRS. We believe that a revaluation of an impaired asset, when the fair values of individual assets are determined as part of an impairment analysis, under the “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10 is broadly comparable to fair value under IFRS for purposes of determining deemed cost. Therefore the deemed cost of the asset at transition would be equal to the asset’s fair value as determined under ASC 360-10, adjusted for depreciation computed under IAS 16 from the date of the ASC 360-10 valuation to the IFRS opening balance sheet at adoption.

Furthermore, in preparing for the adoption of IFRS, a reporting entity should consider contemporaneously preparing US GAAP and IFRS impairment analyses of its long-lived assets to avoid the unnecessary burden of collecting or reconstructing prior period information at the date of adoption.
2. Are there indicators that long-lived assets held and used for which an impairment loss was recorded have recovered their value?

Yes ☐ No ☐

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360-10-35-20</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 36.110 through 118</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reversal of impairment losses is prohibited for all long-lived assets held and used.</td>
<td>Long-lived assets (other than goodwill) must be reviewed at the end of each reporting period for reversal indicators. If such indicators exist, the impairment loss should be reversed up to the newly estimated recoverable amount, not to exceed the initial carrying amount adjusted for depreciation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under IFRS, entities must continue to evaluate assets on which an impairment loss has been reported to determine if there are indicators that an asset has recovered its value. IFRS requires that recognized impairments on long-lived assets (except goodwill) be reversed, if, and only if, a change in the estimates used to determine the asset’s recoverable amount occurs since the last impairment loss was recognized. The reversal of an impairment loss, if any, should not exceed the carrying amount (cost less accumulated depreciation) that would have been determined had no impairment loss been recognized in the past. US GAAP does not allow for the reversal of a previously recognized impairment loss on a long-lived asset held and used.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

A US reporting entity that elects to retrospectively apply IFRS and that has recognized impairment losses on long-lived assets (except goodwill) may have to reinstate the carrying amount of its assets on transition to IFRS (i.e., recover a portion of the impairment loss), if the circumstances that led to the impairment no longer exist at the IFRS transition date and if the deemed cost exemption is not used. Electing the deemed cost exemption will eliminate the need for an entity to go back in time to determine if impairment indicators have been abated and recreate historical records to determine the carrying amounts of the assets at transition.
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

Similarities:
Both US GAAP and IFRS require goodwill and intangible assets with indefinite useful lives to be tested at least annually for impairment and more frequently if impairment indicators are present. The impairment indicators in US GAAP and IFRS are similar. Additionally, both US GAAP and IFRS require that an asset found to be impaired be written down and an impairment loss recognized.

ASC 350 and IAS 36 apply to most intangible assets, although some of the scope exceptions listed in the standards differ. Despite the similarity in overall objectives, differences exist in the way in which impairment is tested, recognized, and measured.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 350, Intangibles — Goodwill and Other</td>
<td>► IAS 36, Impairment of Assets</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
In May 2016, the FASB proposed simplifying the accounting for goodwill impairment to reduce the cost and complexity of the goodwill impairment test. The FASB is deliberating a separate project with the objective of further reducing the cost and complexity of the subsequent accounting for goodwill (e.g., considering an amortization approach). The FASB also is deliberating a project on accounting for identifiable intangible assets in a business combination with the objective of evaluating whether certain identifiable intangible assets acquired in a business combination should be subsumed into goodwill.

The IASB has a similar project on its research agenda to consider improvements to the impairment requirements for goodwill that was added in response to the findings in its Post-implementation Review (PIR) of IFRS 3. Currently, these are not joint projects and generally are not expected to converge the guidance on accounting for goodwill impairment. In the IASB’s research project on goodwill and impairment, the IASB plans to similarly consider the subsequent accounting for goodwill. The IASB also is considering which intangible assets should be recognized apart from goodwill, as part of the research project on goodwill and impairment. The IASB and FASB have tentatively planned to make joint decisions on joint papers on both of these projects (subsequent accounting for goodwill and identifiable intangible assets).

Discussion of IFRS 1:
Upon the adoption of IFRS, a first-time adopter must apply the provisions of IAS 36 as of the transition date to determine whether an impairment loss exists for goodwill and indefinite lived intangible assets, measure any impairment loss and, for intangible assets other than goodwill, reverse any impairment loss that no longer exists. (See Question 2 in the “Impairment of long-lived assets held and used” section of this publication for further information about the difference between US GAAP and IFRS regarding the reversal of prior impairment losses.) Regardless of whether there is any indication that goodwill may be impaired, the first-time adopter must test goodwill for impairment as of the transition date and recognize any resulting impairment loss in retained earnings. The remaining goodwill balance will be subsequently accounted for in accordance with IAS 36.

The underlying estimates (e.g., cash flow assumptions) used to determine whether a first-time adopter recognizes an impairment loss as of the transition date should be consistent with any impairment estimates made under US GAAP as of the transition date, unless there is objective evidence that those estimates were in error. If the first-time adopter needs to make estimates as of the transition date that were not necessary under US GAAP, such estimates and assumptions should reflect conditions that were present as of the date of transition to IFRS and should not reflect conditions that arose thereafter.
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

1. Does the entity have goodwill?

|---|---|
| **Assignment of goodwill**
Goodwill is assigned to a reporting unit, which is an operating segment or one level below an operating segment (component). | **Allocation of goodwill**
Goodwill is allocated to a cash-generating unit (CGU) or group of CGUs, which represents the lowest level within the entity at which goodwill is monitored for internal management purposes and cannot be larger than an operating segment as defined in IFRS 8. IAS 36 defines a CGU as the smallest identifiable group of assets that generates cash inflows that are largely independent of the cash inflows from other assets or group of assets. |

**Recognition and measurement of an impairment loss**

**Qualitative impairment evaluation - Goodwill**
Companies may first assess qualitative factors to determine whether it is more likely than not that the fair value of a reporting unit is less than its carrying amount. If a company concludes that is the case, it must perform Step 1 of the goodwill impairment test. If it concludes otherwise, it can stop.

**Two-step goodwill impairment test**
Two-step goodwill impairment test is performed as follows:

*Step 1:* The fair value of the reporting unit is compared with its carrying amount. If the carrying amount of the reporting unit exceeds its fair value, then step 2 is performed to measure the amount of impairment loss, if any.

*Step 2:* The goodwill impairment loss is the amount by which the carrying amount of the goodwill exceeds the implied fair value of the goodwill determined by assigning the fair value of the reporting unit to all of the assets and liabilities of that unit (including any unrecognized intangible assets) as if the reporting unit had been acquired in a business combination. The amount of the impairment loss is limited to the carrying amount of the goodwill.

**Recognition and measurement of an impairment loss**

**Qualitative impairment evaluation - Goodwill**
No similar optional qualitative assessment exists. Each CGU (or group of CGUs) must be tested annually for impairment.

**One-step goodwill impairment test**
One-step goodwill impairment test is performed at the CGU level. The CGU’s (or group of CGUs) carrying amount, including goodwill, is compared to its recoverable amount (higher of fair value less cost to sell and value in use). Value in use is defined as the present value of the future cash flows expected to be derived from an asset or CGU. Any impairment loss (amount by which the CGU’s carrying amount, including goodwill, exceeds its recoverable amount) is allocated first to reduce goodwill to zero, then, subject to certain limitations, the carrying amount of other assets in the CGU are reduced pro rata based on the carrying amount of each asset.
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

**Implications:**

Based on the definition of a CGU, we believe there generally will be at least as many and possibly more CGUs than reporting units, which may result in goodwill being tested at a different level (generally lower) under IFRS than US GAAP. For example, an entity with a number of divisions may have grouped those divisions together under US GAAP for purposes of goodwill allocation and consideration of impairment, but under IFRS it may, depending on the facts and circumstances, be required to allocate goodwill to each division individually and perform the impairment analysis at the individual division level.

In addition, even if goodwill is tested for impairment at the same level, the amount of the goodwill impairment loss may differ between US GAAP and IFRS due to the different requirements for measuring the goodwill impairment loss, and the fact that the fair value of the reporting unit may differ from the recoverable amount of the CGU. (Note that general differences exist between fair value measurement in US GAAP and IFRS that could cause differences between the fair value of the reporting unit and the recoverable amount of the CGU, regardless of whether the recoverable amount is based on value in use or fair value less costs to sell. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for a further discussion of these general differences.) Furthermore, unlike US GAAP, IFRS does not limit the amount of the impairment loss to the carrying amount of the goodwill.

Although US GAAP permits the use of a qualitative screen to test goodwill for impairment, we do not believe this should change the timing or measurement of a goodwill impairment loss under US GAAP. Therefore, we would not expect to see additional differences in the timing or measurement of a goodwill impairment loss between US GAAP and IFRS as a result of the application of the qualitative screen.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Because IFRS 1 requires a goodwill impairment test to be performed as of the transition date, regardless of whether there is any indication that the goodwill may be impaired, differences between ASC 350 and IAS 36 may result in the recognition of an impairment loss, which would be recorded as an adjustment to retained earnings (before any related adjustment for income taxes).

**2. Did the entity recognize a goodwill impairment charge on goodwill recognized in an acquisition of less than 100% of the acquiree?**

If an entity acquires less than 100% of an acquiree, the acquirer must recognize, on the acquisition date, the noncontrolling interest representing the interest retained or held by the noncontrolling shareholders. Noncontrolling interest is the equity in a subsidiary not attributable, directly or indirectly, to a parent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 350-20-35-57A</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 36.C5 through C8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In a business combination, ASC 805 requires entities to measure noncontrolling interest at fair value.</td>
<td>In a business combination, IFRS 3(R) permits entities to measure the noncontrolling interest components that are present ownership interests and entitle their holders to a proportionate share</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

When a noncontrolling interest exists in the reporting unit, any goodwill impairment loss is allocated to the controlling and noncontrolling interest on a rational basis.

of the acquiree’s net asset in the event of liquidation either at fair value, including goodwill, or at the noncontrolling interest’s proportionate share of the fair value of the acquiree’s identifiable net assets, exclusive of goodwill. All other components of noncontrolling interest are measured at fair value unless another measurement basis is required by IFRS. (See Question 2 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication.)

Noncontrolling interest measured at fair value

When a noncontrolling interest exists in the CGU, any goodwill impairment loss is allocated to the controlling and noncontrolling interest either on a rational basis (consistent with US GAAP), or on the same basis as that on which profit or loss is allocated (generally based on relative ownership interests).

Noncontrolling interest measured at its share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets

The recoverable amount of the CGU includes goodwill attributable to both the controlling and noncontrolling interests. However, because the entity measured noncontrolling interest at its share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets, the carrying amount of the CGU includes goodwill attributable only to the controlling interest. Therefore, the carrying amount of the goodwill allocated to the CGU is grossed up to include the goodwill attributable to the noncontrolling interest. The adjusted carrying amount of the CGU is then compared to the recoverable amount to determine whether the CGU is impaired.

Any goodwill impairment loss is allocated to the controlling and noncontrolling interest either on a rational basis, or on the same basis as that on which profit or loss is allocated (generally based on relative ownership interests). However, because goodwill is recognized only to the extent of the controlling interest, only the goodwill impairment loss allocated to the controlling interest is recognized.
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

Implications:

If both US GAAP and IFRS require a goodwill impairment loss, the amount of the impairment loss may differ depending on how the noncontrolling interest was measured under IFRS.

If, under IFRS, the noncontrolling interest was measured at the noncontrolling shareholder’s proportionate share of the fair value of the acquiree’s net identifiable assets, the goodwill attributable to the noncontrolling interest is not recognized, which will likely cause a difference in the amount of any recognized goodwill impairment loss. This is because under US GAAP goodwill is recorded for both the controlling and noncontrolling interests; therefore, the impairment loss attributable to both the controlling and noncontrolling interests is recognized. However, under IFRS, while the goodwill impairment loss is attributed to both the controlling and noncontrolling interests, only the impairment loss attributed to the controlling interest goodwill is recognized.

In addition, even if the noncontrolling interest was measured at fair value under both ASC 805 and IFRS 3(R), the amount (see Question 1) and subsequent allocation of the goodwill impairment loss may differ if, under IFRS, the goodwill impairment loss is allocated to the controlling and noncontrolling interests based on their relative ownership interests (which does not include the effect of a control premium and, therefore, generally would not be considered to be a “rational basis” under US GAAP). Because a premium is often paid to obtain control of an entity, the controlling and noncontrolling interests’ bases in the acquired goodwill will not be proportional to their ownership interests because the control premium is allocated only to the controlling interest. This may ultimately affect the amount of net income that is allocated to the controlling and noncontrolling interest on the face of the income statement as well as the amount of the gain or loss that is recognized if the parent loses control and deconsolidates the subsidiary.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Because IFRS 1 requires a goodwill impairment test to be performed as of the transition date, regardless of whether there is any indication that the goodwill may be impaired, differences between ASC 350 and IAS 36 may result in the recognition of an impairment loss (see Question 1). In addition, when a noncontrolling interest exists in the reporting unit or CGU, the allocation of the impairment loss to the controlling and noncontrolling interests may be different.

3. Does the entity have indefinite-lived intangible assets?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of assessment for impairment testing</strong></td>
<td><strong>Level of assessment for impairment testing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite-lived intangible assets separately recognized should be assessed for impairment individually unless they operate in concert with other indefinite-lived intangible assets as a single asset (i.e., the indefinite-lived intangible assets are essentially inseparable). Indefinite-lived</td>
<td>If the indefinite-lived intangible asset does not generate cash flows that are largely independent of those from other assets or groups of assets, then the indefinite-lived intangible asset should be tested for impairment as part of the CGU to which it belongs, unless certain conditions are met.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implication</th>
<th>Recognition and measurement of an impairment loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An impairment loss is recognized for the excess of the carrying amount of the indefinite-lived intangible asset over its fair value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Qualitative impairment evaluation — Indefinite-lived intangibles**

Similar to the goodwill guidance, companies may first assess qualitative factors to determine whether it is more likely than not that the fair value of an indefinite-lived intangible is less than its carrying amount. If a company concludes that is the case, it must perform an impairment test. If it concludes otherwise, it can stop.

**Implications:**

Because an indefinite-lived intangible asset may be tested for impairment at different levels (e.g., at the individual asset level under US GAAP versus the CGU level under IFRS), this may result in an impairment being recognized under one basis of accounting but not the other.

In addition, even if an indefinite-lived intangible asset is tested for impairment at the same level, the amount of the impairment loss may differ because fair value under US GAAP may differ from the recoverable amount (higher of fair value less costs to sell and value in use) under IFRS. See the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication for a further discussion of the general differences in measuring fair value between US GAAP and IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

| Describe: | Click here to enter text. |

**IFRS 1 implications:**

If there is any indication that the indefinite-lived intangible asset may be impaired as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must perform an impairment test and record any impairment loss as an adjustment to retained earnings (before any related adjustment for income taxes). This differs from the requirement that a first-time adopter must perform a goodwill impairment test as of the transition date, regardless of any impairment indicators. If the first-time adopter recognized an impairment loss under US GAAP in a period subsequent to the transition date, this will likely be an indication that the indefinite-lived intangible asset may be impaired as of the transition date and, therefore, trigger an impairment test as of that date.
Impairment of goodwill and indefinite-lived intangible assets

In addition, if an impairment loss that previously was recognized under US GAAP no longer exists as of the transition date (e.g., because the recoverable amount of the indefinite-lived intangible asset or CGU to which the asset belongs exceeds its carrying amount), the first-time adopter should reverse any previously recognized impairment loss as an adjustment to retained earnings (before any related adjustment for income taxes).

4. **Are there indicators that indefinite-lived intangible assets for which an impairment loss was recorded have recovered their value?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 350-30-35-20</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 36.110 through 116</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reversal of impairment losses is not permitted.</td>
<td>Assets (other than goodwill) must be reviewed at the end of each reporting period for reversal indicators. If such indicators exist, the impairment loss should be reversed up to the newly estimated recoverable amount, not to exceed the initial carrying amount adjusted for depreciation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under IFRS, entities must continue to evaluate assets on which an impairment loss has been reported to determine if there are indicators that an asset has recovered its value. IFRS requires that recognized impairments on assets (except goodwill) be reversed, if, and only if, a change in the estimates used to determine the asset’s recoverable amount occurs since the last impairment loss was recognized. The reversal of an impairment loss, if any, should not exceed the carrying amount that would have been determined had no impairment loss been recognized in the past. US GAAP does not permit the reversal of a previously recognized impairment loss on an indefinite-lived intangible assets.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

A US reporting entity that elects to retrospectively apply IFRS and has recognized impairment losses on indefinite-lived intangible assets may have to reinstate the carrying amount of its assets upon transition to IFRS (i.e., recover a portion of the impairment loss), if the circumstances that led to the impairment no longer exist at the IFRS transition date and if the deemed cost exemption is not used. Electing the deemed cost exemption will eliminate the need for an entity to go back in time to determine whether impairment indicators have been abated and recreate historical records to determine the carrying amounts of the assets at transition.
Financial instruments

Similarities:

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, financial instruments can be classified as assets, liabilities, equity, or off-balance sheet. Financial instruments can be measured at amortized cost, fair value, or in the case of a bifurcated combined instrument, both. All financial instruments involve a promise between two parties to exchange cash or the equivalent, either once or multiple times. Financial instruments often begin as direct loans between two parties or can be legally structured as securities to allow investors to easily trade the instrument in the secondary market. Cash flows due from debtor to creditor can be transferred by that creditor to multiple secondary creditors and carved up into different pieces, or tranches, that themselves represent financial instruments. Financial instruments can also be created separately and merely reference the behavior of other financial instruments (e.g., derivatives).

The term “financial instrument” encompasses investments in debt and equity securities, loan receivables and payables, notes receivable and payable (issued debt), trade receivables and payables, derivative assets and liabilities, and ordinary equity shares and preference shares. To encompass all of these types of contracts, the definition of “financial instrument” is written broadly and similarly under both standards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP — 815-20-20, Master Glossary</th>
<th>Primary IFRS — IAS 32.11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A financial instrument is cash, evidence of an ownership interest in an entity, or a contract that both:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Imposes on one entity a contractual obligation either: (1) to deliver cash or another financial instrument to a second entity, or (2) to exchange other financial instruments on potentially unfavorable terms with the second entity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Conveys to that second entity a contractual right either: (1) to receive cash or another financial instrument from the first entity, or (2) to exchange other financial instruments on potentially favorable terms with the first entity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A financial instrument is any contract that gives rise to a financial asset of one entity and a financial liability or equity instrument of another entity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► A financial asset is any asset that is (1) cash; (2) an equity instrument of another entity; (3) a contractual right to receive cash or another financial asset from another entity or to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially favorable to the entity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► A financial liability is any liability that is a contractual obligation (1) to deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity; or (2) to exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity that are potentially unfavorable to the entity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Also included in the definition of financial assets and financial liabilities are contracts that will be settled in the entity’s own equity instruments but which are non-derivatives for which the entity is or may be obliged to receive or deliver a variable number of its own equity instruments; or derivatives that can be settled other than by exchange of a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of the entity’s own equity instruments. For this purpose the entity’s “own equity instruments” do not include puttable instruments that are classified as equity instruments as well as instruments that impose...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Convergence:

In both standards, the wide disparity among types and purposes of financial instruments leads to what is commonly referred to as a “mixed attribute” model of accounting. Under a “mixed attribute” model similar instruments with similar economics are not necessarily accounted for in the same manner because the intended purpose or intended holding period for the financial instrument differs. Although both the FASB and the IASB historically have expressed a desire to move toward a model that would report all financial instruments at fair value, recent decisions by both the FASB and the IASB will continue to permit certain financial instruments to be measured using measurement attributes other than fair value (see further discussion below).

With respect to fair value measurement in US GAAP, ASC 820, *Fair Value Measurement*, contains a common framework for measuring fair value for all financial instruments when the applicable accounting guidance requires (or permits) fair value measurement. Consistent with ASC 820, IFRS 13, *Fair Value Measurement*, establishes a single source of guidance for all fair value measurements that are required or permitted by other IFRS. It does not, however, extend the use of fair value in any way, but rather establishes a consistent framework for all fair value measurements under existing IFRSs.

In July 2014 the IASB issued the final version of IFRS 9, *Financial Instruments*, replacing all previous versions and bringing together the classification and measurement, impairment and hedge accounting aspects of the IASB’s project to replace IAS 39 *Financial Instruments: Recognition and measurement*. IFRS 9 is effective for annual periods beginning on or after 1 January 2018. Because the final version of IFRS 9 is mandatorily applicable for periods beginning on or after 1 January 2018, and the FASB’s final standards on accounting for financial instruments are either not yet effective (recognition and measurement of financial assets and financial liabilities and measurement of credit losses on financial instruments) or are still being deliberated (hedge accounting), this Identifier Tool continues to compare current US GAAP with existing IFRS (i.e., existing IAS 39). Following is an update on the recognition and measurement, credit impairment and hedge accounting projects:

- Recognition and measurement – IFRS 9 introduces a more principles-based approach than the current requirements under IAS 39. Financial assets will be classified according to their contractual cash flow characteristics and the business models under which they are held. In January 2016, the FASB issued Accounting Standards Update (ASU) 2016-01, *Financial Instruments – Overall (Subtopic 825-10): Recognition and Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities*, which will require entities to measure equity investments (except those accounted for under the equity method, those that result in consolidation of the investee and certain other investments) at fair value and recognize any changes in fair value in net income. A measurement alternative will be available for equity investments that lack a readily determinable fair value. The ASU will also require entities to record changes in instrument-specific credit risk for financial liabilities measured under the fair value option in other comprehensive income. It also makes other targeted amendments to certain disclosure requirements and other aspects of current US GAAP.

The FASB ultimately decided to make only targeted amendments in response to feedback it received on two earlier proposals, resulting in a significant departure from the joint model it developed with the IASB and the final version of IFRS 9. As a result, entities that report under US GAAP will use a
significantly different model for classifying and measuring financial instruments than entities that report under IFRS.

ASU 2016-01 is effective for calendar-year public business entities (PBEs) beginning in 2018. For all other calendar-year entities, it is effective for annual periods beginning in 2019 and interim periods beginning in 2020. Non-PBEs can adopt the standard at the same time as PBEs, and both PBEs and non-PBEs can early adopt certain provisions.

- Impairment — The FASB initially worked with the IASB to develop new guidance, but the Boards ultimately were unable to reach a converged solution. In June 2016, the FASB issued ASU 2016-13, Financial Instruments – Credit Losses (Topic 326): Measurement of Credit Losses on Financial Instruments. ASU 2016-13 differs significantly from the three-stage impairment model the IASB finalized as part of IFRS 9. Under the FASB’s approach, an entity will record an allowance for credit losses that reflects the portion of the amortized cost balance the entity does not expect to collect over the life of financial assets that are debt instruments measured at amortized cost. Available-for-sale debt securities will be subject to today’s impairment model with a few modifications, including the use of an allowance to recognize credit losses, as opposed to a direct write-down of the amortized cost as is done today. ASU 2016-13 has tiered effective dates starting in 2019 for calendar-year entities. Early adoption in 2018 is permitted for all calendar-year entities.

- Hedge accounting — IFRS 9 introduces a substantial overhaul of the hedge accounting model that aligns the accounting treatment with risk management activities. The aim of the new standard is to allow entities to better reflect these activities in their financial statements and provide users of the financial statements with better information about risk management and the effect of hedge accounting on the financial statements. The IASB continues to deliberate issues pertaining to accounting for macro hedging, with an objective to address risk management strategies for open portfolios. It issued a Discussion Paper in the first half of 2014 and discussed feedback in the first half of 2015. The IASB is expected to continue its discussions on the project at future meetings. In September 2016, the FASB issued an exposure draft to make certain targeted improvements to its hedge accounting model in an effort to make the accounting easier for companies to apply and for users of the financial statements to understand.

Debt issuance costs – The FASB issued ASU 2015-03 in April 2015 that requires debt issuance costs to be presented as a deduction from the corresponding debt liability. The guidance is effective for PBEs for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For all other entities, it is effective for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016. Early adoption is permitted. IFRS currently requires that transaction costs be deducted from the carrying value of the financial liability and not recorded as separate assets. Once ASU 2015-03 is adopted, this will no longer be considered a difference between US GAAP and IFRS.

Classification of liabilities – The IASB currently has a project on its agenda to amend IAS 1, Presentation of Financial Statements, specifically related to the classification of liabilities, to clarify that classification of liabilities as either current or noncurrent is based on the rights that are in existence at the end of the reporting period. The IASB issued its Exposure Draft, Classification of Liabilities, in February 2015 and in December 2015 discussed comment letters received on that proposal. The IASB continues to deliberate issues pertaining to the proposed amendments. Concurrently, the FASB has tentatively decided to replace today’s rules-based guidance for determining whether to classify debt as current or noncurrent on the balance sheet with a principle-based approach to reduce cost and complexity. Its proposal, if finalized, would result in an increased convergence with IFRS. An exposure draft is expected in the fourth quarter of 2016.

Financial instruments with characteristics of equity – While both Boards have discontinued their efforts to converge in this area, the IASB continues its research project on potential improvements to (1) the classification of liabilities and equity in IAS 32, Financial Instruments: Presentation, including potential amendments to the definitions of liabilities and equity in the Conceptual Framework and (2) the
presentation and disclosure requirements for financial instruments with characteristics of equity, irrespective of classification. The IASB is expected to continue its discussions on these initiatives at future meetings. The FASB currently has a targeted improvements project to simplify certain areas of the accounting for financial instruments with characteristics of liabilities and equity. In addition, the FASB included a broad project on distinguishing liabilities from equity in its recently issued Invitation to Comment and is soliciting feedback from stakeholders in setting its agenda for the next several years.

This section has not been updated for IFRS 9, ASU 2016-01 and ASU 2016-13 because of their delayed effective dates.

The “Financial instruments” section of this publication is organized into the following topical sub-components:

- Recognition and measurement
- Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities
- Liabilities and equity
- Derivatives and hedging
Recognition and measurement

Similarities:
Both US GAAP and IFRS require financial instruments to be classified upon initial recognition into specific categories. Following initial recognition, the classification determines how the financial instrument is subsequently measured, including any profit or loss recognition. Once classified, both IFRS and US GAAP have restrictions on the ability to transfer a financial asset between categories. Detailed disclosures are required in the notes to the financial statements for financial instruments reported on the balance sheet.

Both US GAAP and IFRS require certain financial assets (depending on their classification) to be measured at fair value. ASC 820 and IFRS 13 both provide a framework for measuring fair value that is applicable under the various accounting topics that require (or permit) fair value measurements in US GAAP and IFRS, respectively. Accordingly, the measurement of fair value across US GAAP and IFRS is generally based on a single definition and a consistent framework for the application of that definition. Although the principles of measuring fair value are generally consistent between US GAAP and IFRS, certain differences remain between the two sets of literature. IFRS adopters should consider the differences noted in the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication.

Both sets of standards require an entity to assess at each balance sheet date whether a financial asset is impaired. This assessment is required for all financial assets except those measured at fair value with changes in fair value reported in profit or loss (e.g., trading and those designated pursuant to the fair value option).

Both US GAAP and IFRS have a conditional fair value option (FVO) that permits a financial asset or a financial liability to be designated at fair value with changes in fair value reported in profit or loss. However, use of the FVO in IFRS is more restrictive.

Both US GAAP and IFRS also require the use of the effective interest method to calculate amortized cost and to amortize discounts or premiums for certain financial assets. The effective interest method is based on the effective interest rate calculated at initial recognition of the financial instrument. Differences may exist in the manner in which changes in estimated cash flows are recognized.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 825, Financial Instruments</td>
<td>► IAS 39, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 820, Fair Value Measurement</td>
<td>► IAS 32, Financial Instruments: Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 320, Investments — Debt and Equity Securities</td>
<td>► IAS 21, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 310, Receivables</td>
<td>► IFRS 7, Financial Instruments: Disclosures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 948, Financial Services — Mortgage Banking</td>
<td>► IFRS 9, Financial Instruments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 323, Investments — Equity Method and Joint Ventures</td>
<td>► IFRS 13, Fair Value Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 325, Investments — Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► SAB Topic 5.M, Other Than Temporary Impairment of Certain Investments in Equity Securities</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Convergence:

Recognition and measurement – IFRS 9 introduces a more principle-based approach than the current requirements under IAS 39. Financial assets will be classified according to their contractual cash flow characteristics and the business models under which they are held. In January 2016, the FASB issued Accounting Standards Update (ASU) 2016-01, Financial Instruments – Overall (Subtopic 825-10): Recognition and Measurement of Financial Assets and Financial Liabilities, which will require entities to measure equity investments (except those accounted for under the equity method, those that result in consolidation of the investee and certain other investments) at fair value and recognize any changes in fair value in net income. A measurement alternative will be available for equity investments that lack a readily determinable fair value. The ASU will also require entities to record changes in instrument-specific credit risk for financial liabilities measured under the fair value option in other comprehensive income. It also makes other targeted amendments to certain disclosure requirements and other aspects of current US GAAP.

The FASB ultimately decided to make only targeted amendments in response to feedback it received on two earlier proposals, resulting in a significant departure from the joint model it developed with the IASB and the final version of IFRS 9. As a result, entities that report under US GAAP will use a significantly different model for classifying and measuring financial instruments than entities that report under IFRS.

ASU 2016-01 is effective for calendar-year public business entities (PBEs) beginning in 2018. For all other calendar-year entities, it is effective for annual periods beginning in 2019 and interim periods beginning in 2020. Non-PBEs can adopt the standard at the same time as PBEs, and both PBEs and non-PBEs can early adopt certain provisions.

Impairment — The FASB initially worked with the IASB to develop new guidance, but the Boards ultimately were unable to reach a converged solution. In June 2016, the FASB issued ASU 2016-13, Financial Instruments – Credit Losses (Topic 326): Measurement of Credit Losses on Financial Instruments. ASU 2016-13 differs significantly from the three-stage impairment model the IASB finalized as part of IFRS 9. Under the FASB’s approach, an entity will record an allowance for credit losses that reflects the portion of the amortized cost balance the entity does not expect to collect over the life of financial assets that are debt instruments measured at amortized cost. Available-for-sale debt securities will be subject to today’s impairment model with a few modifications, including the use of an allowance to recognize credit losses, as opposed to a direct write-down of the amortized cost as is done today. ASU 2016-13 has tiered effective dates starting in 2019 for calendar-year entities. Early adoption in 2018 is permitted for all calendar-year entities.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

At the date of transition to IFRS, a first-time adopter must recognize and measure all financial assets and financial liabilities in its opening IFRS balance sheet in accordance with IAS 39, except for those non-derivative financial assets and non-derivative financial liabilities that would qualify for derecognition pursuant to the exception in IFRS 1. In that regard, a first-time adopter will need to make IFRS classification choices for those financial instruments.

IFRS 1 includes a voluntary exemption that permits a first-time adopter, at the date of transition to IFRS, to designate a previously recognized financial asset as AFS (provided that it is not required to be classified as FVPL) or a previously recognized financial asset or financial liability as FVPL-Designated (provided it meets certain criteria).

The need to classify financial instruments into specific categories for IFRS arises from the mixed measurement model of IAS 39, under which some financial instruments are carried at amortized cost while others are carried at fair value, similar to US GAAP. Consequently, a particular financial instrument’s classification that is made at initial recognition (or, in the case of a first-time adopter, at the date of transition) drives the subsequent treatment.
Absent an exemption in IFRS 1, a first-time adopter would not have been permitted to classify a financial instrument as either AFS or FVPL-Designated in its opening IFRS balance sheet if the financial instrument was acquired prior to the date of transition to IFRS.

1. Does the reporting entity have investments in equity securities that do not have readily determinable fair values, such as unquoted equity securities?

Under US GAAP, the fair value of an equity security is readily determinable if sales prices or bid-and-asked quotations are currently available on a securities exchange registered with the SEC or in an over-the-counter market that is publicly reported by the National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotation (NASDAQ) systems or by OTC Markets Group Inc. (restricted stock meets this definition if the restriction terminates within one year). The fair value of an equity security traded only in a foreign market is readily determinable if that foreign market is of a breadth and scope comparable to one of a US market. The fair value of an equity security that is an investment in a mutual fund or in a structure similar to a mutual fund (i.e., a limited partnership or a venture capital entity) is readily determinable if the fair value per share (unit) is determined and published and is the basis for current transactions.

US GAAP — 320-10-15-5, 320-10-30-1, 323-10, 825-10

Investments in equity securities that do not have readily determinable fair values are outside the scope of ASC 320. Therefore, if they are not accounted for under the equity method in accordance with ASC 323-10 or the fair value option under ASC 825-10, such instruments are measured at historical cost less any other-than-temporary impairment.

IFRS — IAS 39.2, 46(c)

Investments in equity securities not accounted for under the equity method in accordance with IAS 28, should be measured at fair value unless instruments are unquoted and the fair value cannot be “reliably measured,” in which case they should be measured at cost.

Implications:

Because IFRS does not provide an exemption for fair value measurement for unquoted equity securities, a reporting entity will need to have procedures in place to determine a reliable fair value for those securities. If a reliable fair value cannot be determined, the equity security should be measured at cost.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

As of the date of transition, a first-time adopter must classify all of its financial assets and financial liabilities in accordance with IAS 39. Accordingly, unquoted equity securities (assuming their fair value can be “reliably measured”) should be measured at fair value and retrospectively designated as AFS or as FVPL-Designated. IFRS 1 requires the cumulative fair value change to be recognized in the opening balance of retained earnings, unless the cumulative fair value change relates to AFS securities, in which case it is recognized in other comprehensive income (OCI) in the opening IFRS balance sheet and transferred to the income statement on subsequent disposal or impairment of the financial asset.
2. Does the reporting entity have a financial instrument for which the fair value option was elected under ASC 825-10?

The fair value option permits an entity to report unrealized gains and losses in earnings for financial instruments that meet certain conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 825-10-15-4 through 15-5, 825-10-25-1 through 25-4 and 825-10-35-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.9 and 39.11A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under ASC 825-10 an entity has the ability, upon initial recognition, to designate most financial instruments on an instrument-by-instrument basis, at fair value through earnings. Additionally, the FVO may be elected on the date when one of the following occurs:</td>
<td>IAS 39 allows financial instruments to be irrevocably designated, on an instrument-by-instrument basis, at fair value through profit and loss (FVPL-Designated) only upon initial recognition and only if doing so results in more relevant information because:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ the entity enters into an eligible firm commitment</td>
<td>▶ it eliminates or significantly reduces a measurement or recognition inconsistency (sometimes referred to as ‘an accounting mismatch’) that would otherwise arise from measuring assets or liabilities or recognizing the gains and losses on them on different bases; or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ financial assets that have been at fair value with unrealized gains and losses included in earnings because of specialized accounting principles cease to qualify for that specialized accounting (e.g., a transfer of assets from a subsidiary subject to ASC 946-10, to another entity within the consolidated reporting entity not subject to ASC 946-10)</td>
<td>▶ a group of financial assets, financial liabilities or both is managed and its performance is evaluated on a fair value basis, in accordance with a documented risk management or investment strategy, and information about the group is provided internally on that basis to the entity’s key management personnel — for example, the entity’s board of directors and chief executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ the investment becomes subject to the equity method of accounting (e.g., the investment may previously have been reported as a security accounted for under either ASC 320 or the FVO in ASC 825-10)</td>
<td>Investments in equity instruments that do not have a quoted market price in an active market, and whose fair value cannot be reliably measured, cannot be designated at fair value through profit or loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ the entity ceases to consolidate a subsidiary or variable interest entity but retains an interest (for example, because the investor no longer holds a majority voting interest but continues to hold some common stock)</td>
<td>Certain contracts with embedded derivatives may also be FVPL-designated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ an event that requires an eligible item to be measured at fair value at the time of the event but does not require fair value measurement at each reporting date after that, excluding the recognition of impairment under lower-of-cost-or-market accounting or other-than-temporary impairment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following table lists those financial assets and liabilities that are excluded from the scope of the FVO under US GAAP and IFRS respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 825-10-15-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ▶ An investment in a subsidiary that the entity is required to consolidate | ▶ Interests in subsidiaries, associates and joint ventures that are accounted for under IFRS 10, Consolidated Financial Statements; IAS 27, Separate Financial Statements,
| ► An interest in a variable interest entity that the entity is required to consolidate |
| ► Employers’ and plans’ obligations for pension benefits, other postretirement benefits, postemployment benefits, employee stock option and stock purchase plans, and other forms of deferred compensation arrangements, as defined in ASC 420, Exit or Disposal Cost Obligations; ASC 710, Compensation; ASC 712, Compensation — Nonretirement Postemployment Benefits; ASC 715, Compensation — Retirement Benefits; ASC 718, Compensation — Stock Compensation; and ASC 960, Plan Accounting — Defined Benefit Pension Plans |
| ► Financial assets and financial liabilities recognized under leases as defined in ASC 840, Leases |
| ► Deposit liabilities, withdrawable on demand, of banks, savings and loan associations, credit unions, and other similar depository institutions |
| ► Financial instruments that are, in whole or in part, classified by the issuer as a component of shareholder’s equity (including “temporary equity”). An example is a convertible debt security with a non-contingent beneficial conversion feature. |

IAS 28, *Investments in Associates and Joint Ventures*. (Note: Holdings by venture capital organizations, mutual funds, unit trusts, and similar entities of interests in jointly controlled entities and interests in associates are eligible for the FVO.)

► Certain types of rights and obligations under leases to which IAS 17, *Leases*, applies

► Employers’ rights and obligations under employee benefit plans, to which IAS 19, *Employee Benefits*, applies

► Financial instruments issued by the entity that meet the definition of an equity instrument in IAS 32 (including options and warrants) or that are required to be classified as an equity instrument in accordance with IAS 32

► Rights and obligations arising under certain types of insurance contracts as defined in IFRS 4, *Insurance Contracts*. (Note: FVO could be elected for this item under ASC 825-10.)

► Any forward contract between an acquirer and a selling shareholder to buy or sell an acquiree that will result in a business combination at a future acquisition date (Note: FVO could be elected under ASC 825-10 if the contract is deemed a financial instrument.)

► Certain types of loan commitments (see IAS 39.4 for exceptions for which FVO is available under IAS 39)

► Certain types of financial instruments, contracts and obligations under share-based payment transactions to which IFRS 2, *Share-Based Payment*, applies

► Rights to payments to reimburse the entity for expenditure it is required to make to settle a liability that it recognizes as a provision in accordance with IAS 37.

**Implications:**

The criteria in IAS 39 regarding the use of FVPL-Designated are more restrictive than the criteria for the use of the FVO in ASC 825-10. Furthermore, IFRS allows an entity to designate a financial asset or financial liability as at FVPL only upon initial recognition.

Differences in the scope of financial assets and liabilities eligible for the FVO under US GAAP vs. IFRS also could have an effect on the adoption of IFRS by US GAAP reporting entities. For example, while equity method investments are generally eligible for the FVO under US GAAP, only those equity method investments that are held by venture capital organizations, mutual funds, unit funds and similar entities can be designated as fair value through profit and loss under IAS 39.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Depends on policy election

Yes ☐  No ☐  ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption of IFRS, an entity may not be able to designate all financial instruments previously designated as FVPL pursuant to the FVO described in ASC 825-10 as FVPL-Designated under IFRS. That is, an entity is permitted to designate, at the date of transition to IFRS, any financial asset or financial liability as at FVPL-Designated, only if the asset or liability meets certain criteria (see above) at that date. This election is permitted at the date of transition to IFRS whether or not the financial asset was previously designated as at FVPL pursuant to the FVO described in ASC 825-10.

A first-time adopter wishing to designate a financial asset or financial liability as at FVPL-Designated as of the date of transition to IFRS that meets the criteria for such designation, must document that election as of the date of transition (that is, as of the opening IFRS balance sheet date). A first-time adopter that previously used the FVO of ASC 825-10 in its US GAAP financial statements may be able to use its US GAAP designation documentation as documentation of their IFRS designations as of the date of transition to IFRS. When an entity chooses to simply carryover its US GAAP FVO designations (for those financial instruments that meet the criteria for FVPL-Designated) and it uses its existing US GAAP documentation for those designations as FVPL-Designated for IFRS, then all financial instruments previously recorded at FVPL for US GAAP pursuant to the FVO of ASC 825-10 that meet the criteria for FVPL-Designated for IFRS would continue with such classification at the date of transition, unless specifically “de-designated.” An entity will not have the opportunity to de-designate at a later date. Nevertheless, a first-time adopter is not required to designate as at FVPL-Designated in its opening IFRS balance sheet those financial assets and financial liabilities designated as at FVPL pursuant to the FVO of ASC 825-10.

3. Has the entity transferred any debt or equity securities into or out of the trading category?

Under US GAAP and IFRS, entities must classify, at acquisition, debt and equity securities into specific categories (e.g., held-to-maturity, trading). Once so classified, guidelines exist in US GAAP and IFRS, which differ in some respects, regarding subsequent transfers between categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 320-10-25-1(a), 320-10-35-10 and 35-12</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.50 and 39.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, debt and equity securities that are bought and held principally for the purpose of selling them in the near term (i.e., held for only a short period of time) are classified as “trading securities.” Trading generally reflects active and frequent buying and selling, with the objective of generating profits on short-term differences in price. However, classification as trading is not precluded simply because the entity does not intend to sell a security in the near future. Transfers into or from the trading category should be rare. For a security transferred from</td>
<td>Subject to certain conditions, IAS 39 allows a financial instrument to be categorized upon initial recognition at fair value through profit and loss (FVPL) as either held for trading (FVPL-Trading) or as specifically designated (FVPL-Designated). For a financial instrument to be classified as FVPL-Trading, it must meet any of the following conditions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▶ acquired or incurred principally for the purpose of selling or repurchasing it in the near term;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recognition and measurement

the trading category, the unrealized holding gain or loss at the date of the transfer will have already been recognized in earnings and cannot be reversed. For a security transferred into the trading category, the portion of the unrealized holding gain or loss at the date of the transfer that has not been previously recognized in earnings is recognized in earnings immediately.

► part of a portfolio of identified financial instruments that are managed together and for which there is evidence of a recent actual pattern of short-term profit-taking; or
► a derivative (except for a derivative that is a financial guarantee contract or a designated and effective hedging instrument).

FVPL-Designated is permitted only if doing so results in more relevant information because:

► it eliminates or significantly reduces a measurement or recognition inconsistency (sometimes referred to as ‘an accounting mismatch’) that would otherwise arise from measuring assets or liabilities or recognizing the gains and losses on them on different bases; or
► a group of financial assets, financial liabilities or both is managed and its performance is evaluated on a fair value basis, in accordance with a documented risk management or investment strategy, and information about the group is provided internally on that basis to the entity’s key management personnel — for example, the entity’s board of directors and chief executive officer.

Transfers of non-derivative financial assets from the FVPL category are permitted only for those financial assets classified as held for trading (and not those designated as at FVPL) when the financial asset is no longer held for the purposes of selling it in the near term and then, only in rare circumstances. Transfers into the FVPL category are prohibited.

Upon transfer, the fair value on the date of reclassification becomes the new cost basis and any gain or loss already recognized in profit or loss is not reversed.

Implications:

Transfers into FVPL-Trading or FVPL-Designated will not be permitted once an entity transitions to IFRS. Transfers out of the held for trading category will be permitted only in rare circumstances.
Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IFRS 1 implications:**

As of the date of transition to IFRS, a first-time adopter must classify all of its financial assets and financial liabilities in accordance with IAS 39. To classify a financial asset or financial liability as at FVPL-Trading, the financial asset or financial liability must have been acquired or incurred principally for the purpose of selling or repurchasing it in the near term; or, at the date of transition to IFRS, is part of the portfolio that is managed together and for which there is evidence of a recent actual pattern of short-term profit taking. Unless a financial asset or financial liability meets the requirements, it cannot be classified as FVPL-Trading. Subsequent to a financial instrument’s classification at acquisition, transfers into the trading category will be prohibited. Transfers out of the held for trading category will be permitted only in rare circumstances. We anticipate that financial instruments designated as trading under IFRS typically would have been classified as trading under US GAAP.
4. Does the reporting entity have investments in loans or other receivables (either originated or acquired by the entity)?

Yes ☐  No ☐

Certain financial assets are excluded from the scope of ASC 320, including equity securities that do not have readily determinable fair values and financial assets that are not securities (e.g., commercial accounts receivable, consumer installment loans, commercial real estate loans, residential mortgage loans and checking account overdraft advances).

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 320 applies to investments in equity securities that have readily determinable fair values and to all investments in debt securities (whether marketable or not). The carrying amount of a security in the scope of ASC 320 depends on the classification of the security: ► Held-to-maturity (HTM) — measured at amortized cost, ► Trading — measured at fair value through earnings, or ► Available-for-sale (AFS) — measured at fair value through other comprehensive income. Loans and receivables do not meet the definition of a debt security and therefore cannot be accounted for under ASC 320 or at fair value, unless the entity elects the fair value option under ASC 825-10. Under ASC 948, loans are classified as either held for sale (HFS) or held as long-term investments. ► Loans classified as HFS are measured at the lower of cost or market. ► If an entity has both the ability and intent to hold a loan for the foreseeable future or until maturity, it may be classified as a long-term investment and measured at amortized cost.</td>
<td>The scope of IAS 39 applies to all financial assets. IAS 39 requires financial assets to be classified into one of the following four categories: ► Held-to-maturity (HTM) — measured at amortized cost ► Loans and receivables (L&amp;R) — measured at amortized cost ► Fair value through profit or loss (FVPL) — measured at fair value, with changes reported in profit or loss (this category includes those financial assets classified as trading [FVPL-Trading] or specifically designated as such [FVPL-Designated]) ► Available-for-sale (AFS) — measured at fair value, with changes reported in OCI (e.g., AFS-reserve), unless impaired. Upon impairment, the revaluation reserve in OCI is released into profit or loss. Under IAS 39, an investment may be classified as an L&amp;R if it is a non-derivative financial asset with fixed or determinable payments that is not quoted in an active market, other than: ► those that the entity intends to sell immediately or in the near term, which should be classified as FVPL-Trading, and those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as at FVPL-Designated ► those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as AFS ► those for which the holder may not recover substantially all of its initial investment, other than because of credit deterioration, which should be classified as AFS.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Generally, a financial asset classified as a loan for US GAAP would meet the definition of an L&R for IFRS. In addition, a debt security that was not quoted in an active market as of the date the debt security first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39 and is not intended to be sold in the near term may also be classified as an L&R for IFRS.

A loan classified as HFS under US GAAP may be classified as an L&R for IFRS at the date of transition to IFRS provided the loan is not expected to be sold in the near term, in which case it should be classified as FVPL-Trading. Under IFRS, the use of the L&R category does not require an assertion that an entity has the intent and ability to hold the loan for the foreseeable future (a criterion that exists under US GAAP for the held as a long-term investment classification), except for financial assets previously classified as AFS or trading that were transferred into the L&R category subsequent to acquisition.

Non-derivative financial assets with fixed or determinable payments that do not meet the definition of L&Rs (e.g., debt securities quoted in an active market) may be classified as HTM investments if they meet the conditions for that classification. On initial recognition of a financial asset that would otherwise meet the definition of an L&R, an entity may choose instead to designate it as FVPL-Designated or AFS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

The ability to designate a financial asset as an L&R generally depends on whether the financial asset meets the definition of an L&R when the financial asset first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39. For example, a financial asset that has fixed or determinable payments and is not quoted in an active market as of the date of acquisition may be classified as an L&R at that date. Conversely, a financial asset that has fixed or determinable payments that is quoted in an active market at the date of acquisition would not be eligible for designation as an L&R at that date. However, because IAS 39 permits the reclassification of a financial asset originally designated as AFS or trading to L&R if the financial asset subsequently meets the definition of an L&R and the entity has the intention and ability to hold the financial asset for the foreseeable future or until maturity, a financial asset that meets the definition of an L&R at the date of transition to IFRS may be classified as such in the opening balance sheet.
5. Does the reporting entity have an investment in a foreign currency monetary asset (e.g., foreign currency debt instrument) classified as available-for-sale?

For AFS debt securities denominated in a foreign currency, the change in fair value expressed in an entity’s functional currency comprises (1) the change in market price of the security as expressed in the foreign currency due to factors such as changes in interest rates and credit risk and (2) the change in the exchange rate between the foreign currency and the entity’s functional currency.

**US GAAP — 320-10-35-1, 320-10-35-36 and 35-37**

Under ASC 320, the total change in unrealized holding gains and losses for AFS securities (including foreign currency translation adjustments as noted in ASC 320-10-35-36) are excluded from earnings and reported in other comprehensive income until realized.

**IFRS — IAS 39, IAS 21**

IAS 39 requires that the portion of the change that is due to movement in the underlying exchange rates be separately recognized in profit or loss.

**Implications:**

Under IFRS, the treatment of foreign exchange gains and losses on AFS debt securities will create more income statement volatility.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

IFRS 1 permits an entity to designate any non-derivative financial asset as AFS at the date of transition to IFRS, provided that the financial asset is not required to be classified as FVPL-Trading. For those securities designated as AFS on initial application of IAS 39, the portion of the change in fair value associated with foreign currency gains and losses that had been recognized in equity under US GAAP should be bifurcated and reclassified into retained earnings. The remaining portion of the total pre-IAS 39 unrealized gains and losses should be recognized in OCI (e.g., AFS-reserve).

6. Does the reporting entity have debt securities classified as AFS or HTM whose fair value is less than cost (i.e., impaired)?

A decline in a debt security’s fair value may arise solely or jointly from adverse changes in market interest rates, liquidity or credit risks.

**US GAAP — 320-10-35, 325-40-35**

An investment in a debt security classified as AFS or HTM is impaired if the fair value is less than cost. An analysis is performed to determine whether the impairment (i.e., the decline in fair value) is temporary or “other than temporary.”

**IFRS — IAS 39.58 through 70, AG84 through AG92**

Under IFRS, an impairment loss for a financial asset is recognized only if: (1) there is objective evidence of impairment as the result of one or more events that occurred after initial recognition of the asset (a loss event) and (2) that loss event
An impaired debt security is considered other-than-temporarily impaired if the entity: (1) has the intent to sell the impaired debt security, or (2) more likely than not will be required to sell the impaired debt security before recovery of its amortized cost basis. Additionally, regardless of whether or not there is an intention to sell or whether or not the entity may be required to sell, if the entity does not expect recovery of the entire amortized cost basis of the security, the impaired debt security is considered other-than-temporarily impaired.

Both AFS and HTM debt securities are written down to fair value if an other-than-temporary impairment (OTTI) exists.

When an impairment is deemed other than temporary:

► If an entity intends to sell prior to recovery or more likely than not will be required to sell prior to recovery, the entire difference between the security's cost and its fair value at the balance sheet date is recognized in earnings.

► If the entity does not intend to sell the security and it is not more likely than not that the investor will be required to sell the security before recovery of its amortized cost basis less any current-period credit loss, the OTTI is separated into:
  ► The amount representing the credit loss, which is recognized in earnings
  ► The amount related to all other factors, which is recognized in OCI, net of applicable taxes

To determine whether a credit loss exists under US GAAP, an entity must use its best estimate of the present value of cash flows expected to be collected from the debt security — for example, by measuring an impairment on the basis of the present value of expected future cash flows discounted at the effective interest rate implicit in the security at the date of acquisition. If the debt securities are beneficial interests in securitized financial assets and are in the scope of ASC 325-40 the amount of the OTTI to be measured is the difference between the present value of the remaining cash flows as estimated at the initial transaction date (or at the last date

has an impact on the estimated future cash flows of the financial asset or group of financial assets that can be estimated reliably (e.g., that a credit loss has occurred for debt or receivable instruments). In assessing the objective evidence of impairment, IAS 39 requires an entity to consider the following factors:

► Significant financial difficulty of the issuer
► Breach of contract, such as default or delinquency in interest or principal payments
► Concessions granted by a lender to the issuer because of the issuer's financial difficulty
► Probability of bankruptcy
► Disappearance of an active market, because of financial difficulties
► Observable data indicating there is a measurable decrease in the estimated future cash flows since initial recognition

IFRS focuses on these trigger events that affect the recovery of the cash flows from the investment — regardless of the entity’s intent.

A decline in the fair value of a financial asset below its cost or amortized cost is not necessarily evidence of impairment under IFRS. For example, a decline in the fair value of an investment in a debt instrument that results solely from an increase in market interest rates is not an impairment indicator and would not require an impairment evaluation under IFRS.

When an impairment loss of a HTM debt security has occurred, IFRS requires that the impairment loss be measured as the difference between the carrying amount of the financial asset and the present value of future cash flows as calculated with the original effective interest rate. IFRS also allows the impairment loss to be, as a practical expedient, based on fair value of the instrument using an observable market price. The two methods could yield significantly different results if, for example, there has been a change in current market rates compared with the original rate implicit in the instrument.

When an impairment loss of an AFS debt security has occurred, IFRS requires the cumulative losses (including those that are not credit-related) that have been recognized directly
Implications:

The US GAAP impairment model focuses on whether an entity will recover the entire amortized cost basis of a debt security and whether the entity intends to sell the debt security or it is more likely than not that the entity will be required to sell the debt security before recovery of the amortized cost basis. In certain instances, the impairment loss is separated into an amount that is recognized in earnings and an amount that is recognized in OCI.

However, IFRS focuses on evaluating only if a credit loss has occurred for debt or receivable instruments, regardless of the reporting entity’s intent to sell the impaired security or if it is more likely than not that the entity will be required to sell the security before recovery of its amortized cost basis. For AFS debt securities, IFRS does not allow separation of an impairment loss into amounts recognized in earnings and OCI (i.e., the entire impairment loss, including non-credit related amounts, is recognized in earnings).

These differences between US GAAP and IFRS may result in differences in the timing and amount of an impairment loss and how it is presented.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Certain recognition criteria in IAS 39 should be considered for financial assets measured at amortized cost (e.g., debt securities classified as HTM) or measured at fair value and classified as AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position. An entity should determine their cost basis based on circumstances that existed when the financial assets first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39 (except for those financial assets acquired in a past business combination that is not restated, in which case their carrying amount under previous GAAP immediately following the business combination is their deemed cost). In determining the amortized cost basis through the date of the opening balance sheet, estimated cash flows over the expected life of the asset will need to be used. That is, the effective interest rate must be used to calculate the amortized cost at the date of transition. For a debt security designated as HTM or AFS under IFRS, this will represent the security’s IFRS cost basis. Amortized cost determined according to the effective interest method required by IFRS may be different from that determined under US GAAP to the extent there have been changes in estimated cash flows (see Question 9 for differences regarding the effective interest method under US GAAP and IFRS). Also, due to the differences in the impairment models discussed above, an entity may have recognized an other-than-temporary impairment under US GAAP while no impairment will be recognized under IFRS.
7. Does the reporting entity have equity securities classified as AFS whose fair value is less than cost?

A decline in an equity security's fair value may result from broad market declines or changes in an entity's financial condition. The timing in which an impairment of an AFS equity security is recognized under US GAAP may be different from that under IFRS.

**US GAAP — 320-10-35, 320-10-S99-1**

Under US GAAP, an investment in an equity security classified as AFS is impaired if the fair value is less than cost. An analysis is performed to determine whether the impairment (i.e., the decline in fair value) is temporary or “other than temporary.”

An impaired equity security is considered other-than-temporarily impaired if the equity security’s fair value is not expected to recover sufficiently in the near-term to allow a full recovery of the entity's amortized cost basis. Additionally, an entity must have the intent and ability to hold an impaired equity security until such near-term recovery. If the entity does not expect recovery of the entire cost basis of the security, the impaired equity security is considered other-than-temporarily impaired.

AFS equity securities are written down to fair value if an other-than-temporary impairment (OTTI) exists.

**IFRS — IAS 39.58 through 70**

Under IFRS, an impairment loss for a financial asset is recognized only if there is objective evidence of impairment as the result of one or more events that occurred after initial recognition of the asset (a loss event) and if that loss event has an impact on the estimated future cash flows of the financial asset or group of financial assets that can be estimated reliably.

Objective evidence of impairment for an investment in an equity instrument includes information about significant adverse changes in the technological, market, economic or legal environment in which the issuer operates, and indicates that the cost of the investment in the equity instrument may not be recovered. A significant or prolonged decline in the fair value of an investment in an equity instrument below its cost is also objective evidence of impairment.

When an impairment loss has occurred, the entire cumulative decline in fair value deferred in OCI should be released immediately to P&L.

**Implications:**

Determining whether an AFS equity security is impaired under US GAAP focuses on whether an entity expects the fair value of the equity security to recover to its cost basis in the near term and whether the entity has the ability and intent to hold the AFS equity security until that recovery occurs. In assessing whether an equity security’s fair value will recover of its cost basis, an entity considers factors such as the duration and severity of the impairment and the financial condition and near term prospects of the issuer.

IFRS also considers qualitative factors in determining whether there is objective evidence of impairment. A significant or prolonged decline in fair value is objective evidence of impairment (i.e., once a decline is deemed significant or prolonged, the equity security is considered impaired regardless of expectations of future recovery). IFRS does not require an entity to have the intent and ability to hold the equity security until recovery.

As a result of these differences, the timing of the recognition of an impairment loss between US GAAP and IFRS may differ.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
**IFRS 1 implications:**

Although IFRS 1 permits a first-time adopter to designate an equity security as AFS on the date of transition to IFRS (if it does not meet hold-for-trading criteria), the measurement and impairment provisions of IAS 39 must be applied retrospectively. Retrospective application of IAS 39 to AFS equity securities requires a first-time adopter to recognize the cumulative fair value changes in a separate component of equity in the opening IFRS balance sheet, and transfer those fair value changes to the income statement upon subsequent disposal or impairment of the asset (i.e., the fair value changes which arose prior to transition would still impact P&L after transition). An entity’s assessment of impairment at the date of transition to IFRS shall be consistent with estimates made for the same date in accordance with US GAAP (after adjustments to reflect any difference in accounting policies), unless there is objective evidence that those estimates were in error (i.e., an entity is precluded from using hindsight). Because of the differences in the impairment models discussed above, an entity may have recognized an other-than-temporary impairment under US GAAP while no impairment would have been recognized under IFRS.

| 8. Does the entity hold financial assets that previously recorded an “other-than-temporary” loss, which have subsequently recovered? |
|---|---|
| Yes ☐ | No ☐ |

Declines in the fair value of financial instruments may subsequently recover due to favorable changes in identified risks (e.g., market, liquidity and credit) and expected returns.

### US GAAP — 320-10-35, 320-10-45-9, 310-10-35-37

**Impairment measurement**

Under US GAAP, if an other-than-temporary impairment exists because the entity intends to sell the debt security or it is more likely than not that the entity will be required to sell the debt security before recovery of its amortized cost basis, the cost basis of the impaired debt security is written down to fair value, resulting in a charge to earnings (as a realized loss) and the establishment of a new cost basis.

When a determination is made that a credit loss exists but the entity does not intend to sell the debt security and it is not more likely than not that the entity will be required to sell the debt security before the anticipated recovery of its remaining amortized cost basis, the OTTI is separated into (1) the amount representing the credit loss and (2) the amount related to all other factors. The amount of the total OTTI related to the credit loss is recognized in earnings and the amount related to all other factors is recognized in OCI, net of applicable taxes. After the recognition of an OTTI, the previous cost basis less the OTTI amount recognized in earnings becomes the new cost basis of the debt security.

For debt securities for which OTTIs were recognized in earnings, the difference between

### IFRS — IAS 39.65 through 70

**Impairment measurement**

Under IFRS, an impairment loss for a financial asset is recognized only if objective evidence of impairment exists as the result of one or more events that occurred after initial recognition of the asset (a loss event) and if that loss event (or events) has an impact on the estimated future cash flows of the financial asset or group of financial assets that can be estimated reliably (e.g., that a credit loss has occurred for debt or receivable instruments).

When an impairment loss of an AFS debt security has occurred, IFRS requires the cumulative loss that has been recognized directly in equity (e.g., AFS-reserve) to be recognized in profit or loss. When an impairment loss of a HTM debt security has occurred, IFRS requires that the impairment loss be measured as the difference between the carrying amount of the financial asset and the present value of future cash flows as calculated using the original effective interest rate.
the new amortized cost basis and the cash flows expected to be collected are accreted as interest income. Accordingly, an entity is required to continually update its estimate of cash flows expected to be collected over the life of the debt security.

For debt securities accounted for in accordance with ASC 325-40 (that is, beneficial interests in securitized financial assets that: (1) are not of high credit quality — generally considered an “AA” rating or higher — and (2) can be prepaid or otherwise settled in such a way that the holder would not recover substantially all of its recorded investment), an entity must look to that standard to account for changes in cash flows expected to be collected. For all other debt securities, if upon subsequent evaluation, the cash flows expected to be collected increase significantly or if actual cash flows are significantly greater than cash flows previously expected, ASC 320-10-35-35 requires that such changes be accounted for as a prospective adjustment to the accretable yield in accordance with ASC 310-30, even if the debt security would not otherwise be within the scope of that standard. That is, the increase in cash flows expected to be collected will be brought back into income over the life of the security.

For AFS debt securities, subsequent increases and decreases (if not an OTTI) in the fair value of the security are included in OCI. However, for HTM securities, the OTTI recognized in OCI (for the noncredit portion) is accreted from OCI to the amortized cost of the debt security in a prospective manner based on the amount and timing of future estimated cash flows. That accretion increases the carrying value of the security until the debt security is sold, matures, or an additional OTTI is recognized in earnings.

**Subsequent impairment reversal**

For securities within the scope of ASC 320 (including both debt and equity securities), subsequent reversals of impairment losses previously charged through earnings are prohibited.

Conversely, impairments of loans held as long-term investments and measured under ASC 310-10 and ASC 450, *Contingencies*, are allowed to be reversed in subsequent periods by adjusting the valuation allowance; however, the reversal cannot result in a carrying amount of the

**Subsequent impairment reversal**

For financial assets carried at amortized cost (i.e., securities classified as HTM or L&R), if in a subsequent period the amount of the impairment loss decreases and the decrease can be objectively related to an event occurring after the impairment loss was recognized in profit or loss, the previously recognized impairment loss is reversed either directly or by adjusting an allowance account. The amount of the reversal is recognized in profit or loss. However, the
carrying amount of the loan cannot exceed the recorded investment in the loan.

financial asset that exceeds what the amortized cost would have been had the impairment not been recognized.

Similarly, IFRS requires the reversal of an impairment loss for debt instruments classified as AFS when it can be determined that the subsequent increase in fair value is objectively related to an event occurring after the impairment loss was recognized in profit or loss.

Similar to US GAAP, impairment losses recognized in profit or loss for an investment in an equity instrument classified as AFS cannot be reversed.

**Implications:**

Certain impairment losses that are not permitted to be reversed under US GAAP are permitted to be reversed under IFRS if the recovery in impairment can be objectively associated with an event occurring after the impairment was recognized.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**Depends on policy election**

**IFRS 1 implications:**

As a result of the differences in the impairment models discussed above in Question 6, an entity may have recognized an other-than-temporary impairment under US GAAP while no impairment would have been recognized under IFRS. Additionally, the provisions in IAS 39 that allow reversals of impairment losses recognized in profit or loss may result in (1) reversals of other-than-temporary impairments recognized under US GAAP, and (2) different cost or amortized cost bases for financial assets measured at amortized cost (e.g., L&R or debt securities classified as HTM) or measured at fair value and classified as AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position.

**9. Has the reporting entity originated a financial liability or originated or acquired any financial assets and is amortizing the premium or discount using the effective yield method?**

A financial instrument may be issued or acquired at an amount that is different from its face amount or par value. The difference between the face amount or par value and its issuance or acquisition amount (i.e., discount or premium) is amortized over the term of the financial instrument.


An entity should apply the “interest” method based on contractual flows, the objective of which is to arrive at a periodic interest amount (including amortization of discount, premium, issuance

**IFRS — IAS 39.9**

IAS 39 defines the effective interest rate as the rate that exactly discounts estimated future cash payments or receipts through the expected life of the financial instrument or, when appropriate, a
costs, etc.) that will represent a level effective rate on the sum of the face amount of the financial instrument plus or minus the unamortized items at the beginning of each period. For example, the effective interest rate of a loan is the rate of return implicit in the loan (that is, the contractual interest rate adjusted for any net deferred loan fees or costs, premiums, or discount existing at the origination or acquisition of the loan).

In some instances, interest is not recognized on the basis of contractual cash flows; rather, estimated cash flows are used:

- If an enterprise holds a large number of similar loans for which prepayments are probable and the timing and amount of prepayments can be reasonably estimated, the enterprise may consider estimates of future principal prepayments in the calculation of the constant effective yield necessary to apply the interest method.
- If upon initial investment in a loan (or a debt security acquired in a transfer) there is evidence of credit deterioration, the effective interest method is applied on the basis of estimated cash flows, in accordance with ASC 310-30.
- When an investment in a debt security represents a beneficial interest in a securitized financial asset that is not of high credit quality, the effective interest method is applied on the basis of estimated cash flows in accordance with ASC 325-40.
- When an investment in a debt security is considered a structured note within the scope of ASC 320, and does not contain an embedded derivative that must be bifurcated, the effective interest method is applied on the basis of estimated cash flows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, as a general matter, the effective interest method is applied on the basis of contractual cash flows. However, in certain cases, contractual cash flows are not used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under IFRS, the calculation of the effective interest rate is generally based on the estimated cash flows over the expected life of the asset. Contractual cash flows over the full contractual term of the financial asset are used only in those rare cases when it is not possible to reliably estimate the expected cash flows over the expected life of a financial asset.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Entities following US GAAP will need to adjust the cash flows used in their effective interest calculations to reflect estimated cash flows over the expected lives of the financial assets. This may or may not be the same as contractual cash flows over the contractual lives. The difference between the two accounting frameworks can affect the carrying values of financial assets and the timing of income recognition.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**Depends on policy election**

**Yes**

**No**

**IFRS 1 implications:**

For financial assets measured at amortized cost (e.g., debt securities classified as HTM) or measured at fair value and classified as AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position, an entity should determine its cost basis based on the circumstances that existed when the financial assets first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39 (except for those financial assets acquired in a past business combination that is not restated, in which case their carrying amount under previous GAAP immediately following the business combination is their deemed cost). In determining the amortized cost basis at the date of the opening balance sheet, estimated cash flows over the expected life of the asset will need to be used. That is, the effective interest rate must be used to calculate the amortized cost at the date of transition. For a debt security designated as HTM or AFS under IFRS, this will represent the security's IFRS cost basis. Amortized cost determined according to the effective interest method required by IFRS may be different from that determined under US GAAP. Also, due to the differences in the impairment models discussed above, an entity may have recognized an other-than-temporary impairment under US GAAP while no impairment will be recognized under IFRS.

**Has there been a change in the expectation of cash flows to be received related to a loan, debt security, or debt issuance?**

**Yes**

**No**

**US GAAP — 310-20, 320-10-35-38 through 35-43, 310-30, 325-40**

Interest income is generally recognized on the basis of contractual cash flows. US GAAP discusses three different approaches to account for a change in estimated cash flows for investments in loans or debt securities where interest income recognition is based on estimated (see Question 9) rather than contractual cash flows: the catch-up, retrospective, and prospective methods. The appropriate method to apply depends on the instrument type and reason for the change in cash flows.

A catch-up approach adjusts the carrying amount to the present value of the revised estimated cash flows, discounted at the original effective interest rate. While Concept Statement No. 7, IAS 39.50, AG7 and 8

**IFRS — IAS 39.50, AG7 and 8**

In the case of changes in estimates used in calculating the effective interest rate under IFRS, an entity should recalculate the carrying amount of the financial instrument by calculating the present value of the remaining cash flows at the original effective interest rate. The adjustment to the carrying amount is recognized as income or expense in profit or loss. This method is analogous to the catch-up method under US GAAP.

The above method is used in all cases, except for financial instruments that were previously reclassified out of FVPL, pursuant to IAS 39.50B, IAS 39.50D or IAS 39.50E. In these situations, when the entity subsequently increases its estimate of future cash flows as a
**Using Cash Flow Information and Present Value in Accounting Measurements**, states that the catch-up approach is the preferred approach, it is rarely used in practice.

A *prospective approach* computes a new effective interest rate based on the carrying amount and remaining cash flows. This approach is used for an investment in a loan or debt security within the scope of ASC 310-30 (i.e., for loans acquired in a transfer where there is evidence of credit deterioration since origination), for investments in debt securities that represent beneficial interests in securitized assets within the scope of ASC 325-40, and for accounting for debt securities subsequent to an other-than-temporary impairment pursuant to ASC 320-10-35.

A *retrospective approach* computes a new effective interest rate based on the original carrying amount, actual cash flows to date, and remaining estimated cash flows. The new effective interest rate is then used to adjust the carrying amount to the present value of the revised estimated cash flows, discounted at the new effective interest rate. This is the method described in ASC 310-20 and is used when measuring interest income of a loan or an investment in a debt security that is part of a pool of prepayable financial assets. This is also the method to be used for structured notes within the scope of ASC 320.

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**Implications:**

The requirement in IFRS to use the catch-up method to recognize changes in estimated cash flows is a significant difference between IFRS and US GAAP. Also, the catch-up method will result in an immediate effect on earnings, compared to the prospective method, when there is a change in estimated cash flows. Even compared to the retrospective method, the immediate effect on earnings from a change in estimated cash flows is more severe under the catch-up method.

result of an increase in recoverability of those cash flows, the effect is recognized as an adjustment to the effective interest rate from the date of the change prospectively over the remaining estimated life of the financial asset, in accordance with IAS 39.AG8.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

For financial assets measured at amortized cost (e.g., debt securities classified as HTM) or measured at fair value and classified as AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position, an entity should determine its cost basis based on the circumstances that existed when the financial assets first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39 (except for those financial assets acquired in a past business combination that is not restated, in which case their carrying amount under previous GAAP immediately following the business combination is their deemed cost). In determining the amortized cost basis at the date of the opening balance sheet, estimated cash flows over the expected life of the asset will need to be used. That is, the effective interest rate must be used to calculate the amortized cost at the date of transition. For a debt security designated as HTM or AFS under IFRS, this will represent the security’s IFRS cost basis. Amortized cost determined according to the effective interest method required by IFRS may be different from that determined under US GAAP to the extent there have been changes in estimated cash flows (see also Question 9 for additional differences regarding the effective interest method under US GAAP and IFRS). Also, due to the differences in the impairment models discussed above, an entity may have recognized an other-than-temporary impairment under US GAAP while no impairment will be recognized under IFRS.

11. Has the entity sold any investments during the period that were classified as HTM?

Investments in debt securities should be classified as held-to-maturity only if an entity has the positive intent and ability to hold those securities to maturity. Notwithstanding the above, certain sales of held-to-maturity securities due to events that are isolated, nonrecurring and unusual will not call into question (i.e., taint) the entity’s intent to hold other debt securities to maturity.

US GAAP — 320-10-25-6 through 25-18

Under US GAAP, a sale or transfer of a held-to-maturity security, other than those that are attributable to certain specific circumstances (which are similar to IFRS), calls into question whether any remaining HTM securities should continue to be classified in that category. Generally, all securities that remain in the HTM category would be “tainted” and any remaining HTM securities should be reclassified to AFS.

After securities are reclassified to AFS in response to a “taint,” US GAAP does not specify a timeframe after which classification of a security as HTM would once again be permitted. Management must use judgment to determine when circumstances have changed such that management can assert with a greater degree of

IFRS — IAS 39.9 and 52

Under IFRS, an entity generally may not classify a financial asset as HTM if it has, during the current financial year or during the two preceding financial years, sold or reclassified more than an insignificant amount of HTM investments before maturity other than sales or reclassifications that are attributable to certain specified circumstances (which are similar to US GAAP).

If more than an insignificant amount of HTM securities that do not meet any of the specified circumstances are sold or reclassified, any remaining HTM securities must be reclassified to AFS.
credibility that it now has the intent and ability to hold debt securities to maturity. However, the SEC staff has concluded, in certain circumstances, that sales of HTM securities preclude management from credibly asserting the entity’s ability and intent to hold securities to maturity for at least one year and more likely two years.

Implications:

IFRS and US GAAP are similar for the HTM category. However, there are unique issues to be considered upon transition to IFRS. See IFRS 1 implications below for further discussions.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

The classification of financial assets as HTM investments under IAS 39 relies on the entity designating its intention and ability at the date of transition to IFRS to hold the securities until maturity. That intent and ability starts at the date of transition to IFRS and a pattern or history of frequent selling of securities before that would not trigger the “tainting” rules in IAS 39 and prevent the use of this category.

Although an entity’s use of the HTM classification under US GAAP requires an assertion of the positive intent and ability to hold a debt security to maturity, a first-time adopter is nevertheless not required to classify a security that is classified as HTM for US GAAP as of the date of transition to IFRS as HTM in the first-time adopter’s IFRS opening balance sheet. Even though an entity may have the positive intent and ability to hold a security to maturity, IAS 39 permits that entity to designate that security as AFS. However, as long as the first-time adopter continues to prepare US GAAP financial statements, that entity must continue to abide by the US GAAP HTM requirements for its US GAAP financial statements (i.e., the entity cannot sell or transfer the security out of the HTM category except in certain circumstances as permitted by ASC 320) during the periods in which it prepares US GAAP financial statements. For example, if an entity were to adopt IFRS for the first time in its 31 December 2016 financial statements, and those financial statements are required to include three years of income statements (and other performance statements) for comparative purposes, the date of transition to IFRS would be 1 January 2014. In this circumstance, the entity must still prepare financial statements in accordance with US GAAP for full years 2014 and 2015 and for the first three quarters of 2016 until its first reporting date under IFRS of 31 December 2016 during which time the entity would need to follow the US GAAP HTM requirements.

Because a sale or transfer prior to maturity of a security classified as HTM for US GAAP would trigger the tainting rules for US GAAP (except in cases where the sale or transfer was made in certain limited circumstances), the question arises as to whether a sale or transfer out of HTM for US GAAP subsequent to the date of transition to IFRS (i.e., date of opening balance sheet — 1 January 2014 in the above example) but before the first-time adopter publishes its first set of IFRS financial statements, would also taint the entity for IFRS purposes (i.e., would require the first-time adopter to reclassify all HTM securities to AFS and would preclude it from classifying any financial assets as
Recognition and measurement

held to maturity for IFRS for a period of two years following the occurrence of the sale or transfer). As discussed above, the classification of financial assets as HTM investments for IFRS relies on a designation made by the entity in applying IAS 39 reflecting the entity’s intention and ability at the date of transition to IFRS. As a consequence, sales of only those securities classified as HTM for IFRS can trigger the IFRS tainting rules. Therefore, sales of securities classified as AFS for IFRS, yet classified as HTM for US GAAP, would taint only the US GAAP classification if the sale occurred in a period reported in accordance with US GAAP. Likewise, a sale after the first IFRS reporting date of a security classified as AFS for IFRS, which was previously classified as HTM under US GAAP, would not trigger the tainting rules for IFRS.

Additionally, if a first-time adopter has a debt security that is classified as AFS for US GAAP as of the date of transition to IFRS, the first-time adopter is free to classify that debt security as HTM for IFRS in the first-time adopter’s IFRS opening balance sheet. However, if the first-time adopter were to sell or transfer that security out of the HTM category prior to its maturity, even prior to the time the first-time adopter publishes their first set of IFRS financial statements, the first-time adopter would trigger the HTM tainting rules, provided that the sale or transfer was not insignificant and did not meet one of the limited exceptions in IAS 39 permitting such sales or transfers.

12. Does the entity hold any debt securities that are not traded in an active market?

Under US GAAP, the term debt security includes, among other items, US treasury securities, US government agency securities, municipal securities, corporate bonds, convertible debt, commercial paper and all securitized debt instruments, such as collateralized mortgage obligations (CMOs) and real estate mortgage investment conduits (REMICs), and interest-only and principal-only strips.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 310, 320-10-20, 320-10-25-1, 320-10-35-1, ASC 825-10, ASC 948-310</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.9 and 46</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 320 requires investments in debt securities (even if they are not quoted in an active market) to be classified as either trading, AFS, or HTM. An investment in a debt security may be classified as HTM if the entity “has the intent and ability to hold a security to maturity.” However, if the security can be prepaid or settled in such a way that the holder would not recover substantially all of its recorded investment, then the security should not be classified as HTM - that is, the security must be classified as either trading or AFS in accordance with ASC 320-10. Loans and receivables, which are not within the scope of ASC 320, are accounted for in accordance with either ASC 310 or ASC 948-310. As an example, mortgage loans are either:</td>
<td>Investments in debt securities not quoted in an active market may not be classified as HTM investments. These financial instruments should be evaluated to determine if they should be classified as L&amp;R, FVPL, or AFS. Instrument that meet the definition of L&amp;R are measured at amortized cost (using the effective interest method) unless such instruments are classified as either FVPL or AFS. In either of these latter two cases, the instrument is measured at fair value. IFRS does not have a category of L&amp;R that is similar to those classified as “held-for-sale” under US GAAP and accounted for at the lower of cost or market. IAS 39.9 defines L&amp;R as non-derivative financial assets with fixed or determinable payments not quoted in an active market and that are other than:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recognition and measurement

► measured at fair value if the ASC 825-10 fair value option is elected.

Impairment for loans under US GAAP is determined in accordance with ASC 310-10 and ASC 450-20.

designates as at fair value through profit or loss;
► those that the entity upon initial recognition designates as available for sale; or
► those for which the holder may not recover substantially all of its initial investment, other than because of credit deterioration, which shall be classified as available for sale.

An interest acquired in a pool of assets that are not loans or receivables (i.e., an interest in a mutual fund or a similar fund) is not a loan or receivable.

Implications:

Debt securities not quoted in an active market that are classified as HTM for US GAAP and those designated as L&R under IFRS will be measured on the same basis (i.e., amortized cost). However, financial assets that are classified as L&R under IFRS are not subject to the “tainting” provisions that apply to investments classified as HTM under both IFRS and US GAAP. (See Question 11 above.)

Identified difference?

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

At the date of transition to IFRS, a first-time adopter must recognize and measure all financial assets and financial liabilities in its opening IFRS balance sheet in accordance with IAS 39 (except for those non-derivative financial assets and non-derivative financial liabilities that would qualify for derecognition pursuant to the derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities provisions of IFRS 1). As described above, debt securities that are not traded in an active market cannot be designated as HTM for IFRS. Rather, such debt securities must be classified for IFRS as L&R, AFS, or FVPL, as defined by IAS 39.

If the debt securities are classified as L&R or AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position, the effective interest rate must be retroactively applied to the acquisition of the security in order to determine the amortized cost at the date of transition. Debt securities classified as AFS should be measured at fair value, with the difference between fair value and amortized cost being recognized directly in OCI (i.e., AFS-reserve) and transferred to the income statement on subsequent disposal or impairment of the financial asset.

If the debt securities are classified as FVPL, they should be measured and carried over at fair value with any change between fair value and acquisition cost recognized directly in retained earnings at the date of transition. Subsequent changes in fair value should be recognized through profit or loss.
13. Are transaction costs related to the purchase of securities measured at fair value (either as AFS securities or under ASC 946-320) excluded as a part of the securities’ cost basis at initial recognition?

ASC 320 is not explicit as to whether transaction costs should be included in the cost basis of securities purchased. As a result, diversity in practice exists as it pertains to AFS and HTM securities, with some entities expensing transaction costs through profit and loss as incurred and others capitalizing these costs as part of the securities’ cost basis (i.e., resulting in a “day 1” unrealized loss in OCI for AFS securities). Conversely, IFRS requires transaction costs to be included in the cost basis of financial assets and liabilities not measured at fair value through profit or loss (e.g., AFS and HTM securities).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 820-10-35-9B and C-</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.43</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 820-10 clarifies that the price in the principal (or most advantageous) market used to measure fair value should not be adjusted for transaction costs (e.g., commissions and certain due diligence costs).</td>
<td>Under IAS 39, financial assets and financial liabilities, other than those measured at fair value through profit or loss, are initially recognized at fair value plus transaction costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition or issue of the financial asset or financial liability.</td>
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</table>

Transaction costs represent incremental direct costs to transact in the principal (or most advantageous) market and are not an attribute of the asset or liability being measured. Therefore, they should not be included in the fair value measurement of the asset or liability. However, ASC 820-10 does not provide any specific guidance as to when transaction costs should be recognized or where they should be reported, but simply states that these costs should be accounted for in accordance with the provisions of other accounting pronouncements.

Implications:

The guidance regarding transaction costs in measuring fair value is generally consistent between US GAAP and IFRS, because both US GAAP and IFRS exclude transactions costs from the measurement of fair value. As such, the potential differences identified below do not technically result from differences in the measurement of fair value between US GAAP and IFRS. Instead these potential differences in the treatment of transaction costs are associated with differences in the measurement objective at initial recognition (i.e., in the determination of the securities cost basis) for financial instruments in certain instances.

**Treatment of transaction costs related to AFS securities**

While it is clear that the subsequent measurement objective for AFS and trading securities accounted for under ASC 320 is fair value, ASC 320 is silent whether a security’s basis includes transaction costs. Because ASC 820-10 was not intended to increase the required use of fair value measurements in US GAAP it provides no additional clarity as to the initial measurement objective for ASC 320 securities. Therefore, upon the adoption of ASC 820-10 many US GAAP preparers continued to follow their existing accounting policies with respect to the treatment of transaction costs for securities accounted for under ASC 320. As a result, diversity in practice exists as it pertains to AFS and HTM securities, with some entities expensing transaction costs through profit
and loss as incurred and others capturing these costs for AFS securities in OCI (until the security is sold) because these costs were initially included in the cost basis of the security. As noted above, under IAS 39, financial assets and liabilities not measured at fair value through profit or loss (e.g., AFS and HTM securities) are initially recorded at fair value plus direct transaction costs. As a result, under IFRS transaction costs associated with AFS securities are captured in OCI upon subsequent measurement at fair value.

Treatment of transaction costs incurred related to securities accounted for under the AICPA Audit and Accounting Guide for Investment Companies

While no specific guidance exists in ASC 320, authoritative guidance regarding the treatment of transaction costs incurred in the purchase of a security does exist in ASC 946-320-40-1. It indicates that the cost of an acquired security includes the commission and other charges that are part of security purchase transactions. As such, direct transaction costs are typically capitalized by investment companies as part of the cost of the security and then immediately recognized as an unrealized loss when the security is reported at fair value through earnings. Under IFRS, transaction costs associated with financial assets measured at fair value through profit and loss are expensed as incurred. As a result, income statement geography differences may exist for US GAAP preparers that follow the Investment Company Guide as this accounting results in transaction costs being recognized (on “day 1”) as a component of unrealized gains and losses and not as expenses.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes  No  Depends on policy election

IFRS 1 implications:

For financial assets measured at amortized cost (e.g., debt securities classified as HTM) or measured at fair value and classified as AFS in the opening IFRS statement of financial position, an entity should determine its cost basis based on circumstances that existed when the financial assets first satisfied the recognition criteria in IAS 39 (except for those financial assets acquired in a past business combination that is not restated, in which case their carrying amount under previous GAAP immediately following the business combination is their deemed cost). In determining the amortized cost basis at the date of the opening balance sheet, transaction costs related to the purchase of the securities should be considered, if significant.
Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities

Similarities:
ASC 860 focuses on legal isolation and control over the transferred financial asset and the ability to exercise that control. The derecognition rules in IAS 39 are based on different accounting concepts, in particular a "risks-and-rewards" model and a “control” model, which may lead to different conclusions. IAS 39 seeks to avoid the potential conflict between those accounting models by requiring the “risks-and-rewards” model to be applied first and the “control” model second.

Transfer of financial assets
Both IFRS and US GAAP permit derecognition of an entire financial asset, a group of entire financial assets or portions of an entire financial asset in certain cases. However, US GAAP and IFRS differ in how they define a portion of a financial asset that is eligible for derecognition (see Question 2).

Both IFRS and US GAAP disallow sales of future revenues. In practice, sales of future revenues are generally accounted for as borrowings by the transferor.

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, transfers of lease residual values that are guaranteed at the inception of the lease are subject to the derecognition requirements of ASC 860 and IAS 39, respectively. However, unguaranteed lease residual values and lease residual values guaranteed after inception of the lease do not meet the definition of financial assets under US GAAP and, therefore, are subject to the requirements of ASC 860 and continue to be subject to ASC 840, Leases. IFRS considers unguaranteed residual value to be a part of the lessor’s financial asset and, therefore, its derecognition is subject to IAS 39.

Continuing involvement
A transferor’s continuing involvement in transferred financial assets includes any involvement with the transferred financial assets that permits the transferor to receive cash flows or other benefits that arise from the transferred financial assets or that obligates the transferor to provide additional cash flows or other assets to any party related to the transfer (e.g., servicing arrangements, recourse or guarantee arrangements).

If the transferor has no continuing involvement with either the transferred financial assets or the transferee, the transfer typically meets the conditions for sale accounting under both US GAAP and IFRS.

Under IFRS, if an entity neither transfers nor retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a transferred financial asset, but retains control of the transferred financial asset, IAS 39 requires the entity to continue to recognize the transferred financial asset to the extent of its “continuing involvement” (the extent to which it is exposed to changes in the value of the transferred financial asset), plus an associated liability.

Under US GAAP, some forms of continuing involvement may result in the transferred financial assets not being legally isolated from the transferor and its creditors, provide the transferor with a unilateral ability to reacquire the transferred financial assets, or constrain the transferee from selling the transferred financial asset, and therefore, enable the transferor to effectively control the transferred financial assets. If a transfer of financial assets fails to meet any of the derecognition conditions in ASC 860, the transfer is accounted for as a secured borrowing with a pledge of collateral.

Initial measurement of transfers of financial assets that qualify for derecognition
Upon completion of a transfer of financial assets that meets the conditions for derecognition, both US GAAP and IFRS provide similar guidance for determining the gain or loss from the sale as well as the carrying amounts of the assets obtained and the liabilities assumed as proceeds. However, because US GAAP and IFRS have different definitions of the unit of account eligible for derecognition and different interpretations of what constitutes a newly-created asset, the measurement of any associated gain or loss may differ under the two accounting standards.
**Accounting for servicing rights**

An entity that transfers financial assets in a transfer that qualifies for sale accounting and retains servicing rights will recognize a servicing asset or liability depending on whether the servicing fee is above or below "adequate compensation." Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the definition of servicing assets and liabilities, including the requirements for separate recognition, are similar. However, both initial and subsequent measurement of servicing rights differs under the two accounting standards.

**Accounting for transfers of financial assets that fail the derecognition requirements**

If a transfer of a financial asset (or portion thereof) in exchange for cash or other consideration does not meet the criteria for sale accounting, both US GAAP and IFRS require that the transferor continue to recognize the transferred financial asset and recognize a financial liability for the consideration received (i.e., the transferor accounts for the transfer as a secured borrowing with pledge of collateral). In subsequent periods, the transferor will continue to recognize any income on the transferred financial asset and any expense incurred on the financial liability.

**Extinguishment of financial liabilities**

A debtor derecognizes a liability if and only if it has been extinguished. The criteria for derecognizing liabilities under US GAAP are similar to IFRS. A liability generally has been extinguished if either 1) the debtor pays the creditor and is relieved of its obligation for the liability or 2) the debtor is legally released from being the primary obligor under the liability, either judicially or by the creditor.

**Accounting for collateral**

In many financing transactions, a debtor may grant a security interest in certain assets to a lender (the secured party) to serve as collateral for its obligation under a borrowing, with or without recourse to other assets of the debtor. If collateral is transferred to the secured party, the custodial arrangement is commonly referred to as a pledge. Secured parties sometimes are permitted to sell or re-pledge collateral held under a pledge. In a transfer of collateral that is accounted for as a secured borrowing, the recognition of the collateral by the secured party and the reclassification of the collateral by the debtor is similar under both US GAAP and IFRS and depend on whether the secured party has the right to sell or re-pledge the collateral and whether the debtor has defaulted under the terms of the borrowing.

**Repurchase agreements and Securities lending arrangements**

Under US GAAP, an agreement that both entitles and obligates the transferor to repurchase or redeem transferred financial assets from the transferee maintains "effective control" over the assets and requires that the transaction be accounted for as a secured borrowing.

Under IFRS, an entity has retained substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset if its exposure to the variability in the present value of the future net cash flows from the financial asset does not change significantly as a result of the transfer. IAS 39 gives securities lending transactions and repurchase agreements as examples of transactions in which an entity has retained substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership.

The accounting for securities lending transactions and repurchase agreements will often be the same under both US GAAP and IFRS (that is, secured borrowing rather than sale accounting). However, differences in accounting can result because US GAAP focuses on transfer of control while IFRS primarily considers the transfer of risks and rewards of ownership.

Pursuant to ASC 860, a transferor is required to account for a "repurchase-to-maturity transaction" as a secured borrowing as if the transferor retains effective control, even though the transferred financial assets are not returned to the transferor at settlement. This represents an exception to the control-based derecognition model in US GAAP — one that is closer to the risks and rewards model under IFRS.
Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 860, Transfers and Servicing</td>
<td>► IAS 39, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, Consolidation</td>
<td>► IFRS 10, Consolidated Financial Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 405-20, Extinguishments of Liabilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 460, Guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Convergence:**
Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any current convergence plans in this area.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**
A first-time adopter must apply the derecognition requirements in IAS 39 prospectively to transactions occurring on or after the date of transition to IFRS. If a first-time adopter derecognized non-derivative financial assets or non-derivative financial liabilities under its previous GAAP, it does not recognize those assets and liabilities under IFRS (unless they qualify for recognition as a result of a later transaction or event). However, transfers on or after the date of transition to IFRS are subject to the full requirements of IAS 39 and will have to be re-evaluated to determine whether they meet the criteria for derecognition. Therefore, unless the derecognition requirements of IAS 39 are satisfied, financial assets and financial liabilities transferred after the date of transition to IFRS must be recognized under IFRS.

A first-time adopter may elect to apply the derecognition requirements in IAS 39 retrospectively from a date of the entity’s choosing. Such an election is permissible provided that the information needed to apply IAS 39 to financial assets and financial liabilities derecognized as a result of past transactions was obtained at the time of initially accounting for those transactions. Therefore, an entity that was not permitted to derecognize transferred financial assets under its previous GAAP may be able to derecognize those assets through retrospective application of IAS 39, provided the entity also retained contemporaneous documentation of its original basis for conclusion. However, the limitation on the retrospective application of IAS 39 helps to prevent the re-estimation of measurements used in the risks-and-rewards analysis pursuant to IAS 39 with the unacceptable benefit of hindsight.

IFRS 1 contains no specific exemption from the retrospective application of IFRS 10 to structured entities that are not businesses, as defined in IFRS 3. Accordingly, the IFRS 10 requirements with regard to the consolidation of structured entities that are not businesses are retrospective for first-time adopters. As a result, previously derecognized assets and liabilities may not remain off-balance sheet upon adoption of IFRS. For example, if under US GAAP a reporting entity derecognized non-derivative financial assets and non-derivative financial liabilities as the result of a transfer to a nonconsolidated structured entity (SE), those assets and liabilities may be required to be re-recognized upon transition to IFRS, as a result of consolidation of the SE (i.e., assuming the reporting entity is deemed to control the SE under IFRS 10). However, if the SE itself then subsequently transferred the assets and achieved derecognition of the items concerned under the SE’s previous GAAP (other than by transfer to a consolidated entity), the items remain derecognized on transition.

Refer to the “Consolidation” section of this publication for additional guidance.
1. **Has the reporting entity transferred an entire financial asset or groups of entire financial assets to an entity (including a special-purpose entity) and derecognized such assets?**

If no, Questions 2 through 7 do not need to be answered and evaluated.

Under US GAAP and IFRS, financial assets consist of cash, evidence of ownership interest in an entity, or a contract that conveys to one entity a contractual right (1) to receive cash or another financial instrument from a second entity or (2) to exchange other financial instruments on potentially favorable terms with the second entity.

Under US GAAP a transfer is defined as the conveyance of a noncash financial asset (or a portion thereof) by and to someone other than the issuer of that financial asset. Although IFRS does not explicitly define transfers, we understand that transfers under US GAAP are generally considered transfers under IFRS.

Several factors must be evaluated to determine whether a transfer of financial assets constitutes a sale and, if so, the determination of any resulting gain or loss.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 860-10-40 and 860-10-55</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.15 through 23, 30 through 35 and AG36 through AG51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A transferor can derecognize financial assets (i.e., achieve sale accounting) when control has been surrendered over the financial assets. Control has been surrendered if and only if all of the following conditions are met:</td>
<td>The derecognition model under IFRS is based on a mixed model that considers both transfer of risks and rewards and control. Derecognition is required in the following cases:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► <strong>Legal isolation of the transferred financial assets:</strong> The transferred financial assets have been isolated from the transferor—put presumptively beyond the reach of the transferor, including any of its consolidated affiliates, and its creditors — even in bankruptcy or other receivership</td>
<td>► When the rights to cash flows from the financial asset have expired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► <strong>Transferee’s right to pledge or exchange:</strong> Each transferee (or, if the transferee is a securitization entity, each holder of its beneficial interests), has the right to pledge or exchange the transferred financial assets (or beneficial interests), and no condition both constrains the transferee (or third-party holder of its beneficial interests) from taking advantage of its right to pledge or exchange and provides more than a trivial benefit to the transferor</td>
<td>► When the reporting entity has transferred substantially all risks and rewards from the financial asset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► <strong>Transferor’s surrender of effective control:</strong> The transferor does not maintain effective control over the transferred financial assets or beneficial interests (e.g., through a call option or repurchase agreement).</td>
<td>► When the reporting entity (a) has neither transferred substantially all, nor retained substantially all, the risks and rewards from the financial asset and (b) has not retained control of the financial asset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial sale accounting is not permitted under US GAAP. However, portions of entire financial assets may be derecognized if such portions</td>
<td>An entity has “transferred” a financial asset if, and only if, it either:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a) Transfers the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of the financial asset; or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Retains the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of the financial asset, but assumes a contractual obligation to pay the cash flows on to one or more recipients in an arrangement that meets the conditions specified in IAS 39 (a so-called “pass-through arrangement”). An example of a pass-through arrangement is one in which the entity is a special-purpose entity or trust and issues to investors beneficial interests in financial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities

| meet the definition of a participating interest. Refer to Question 2 for further information regarding transfers of portions of entire financial assets. | assets that it owns and provides servicing of those assets. When an entity retains the contractual rights to receive the cash flows of a financial asset but assumes a contractual obligation to pay those cash flows to the eventual recipients, special “pass-through” conditions apply, as explained in IAS 39.19. These conditions are also discussed in Question 2. If the transferor has neither retained nor transferred substantially all of the risks and rewards, the transferor’s control is then evaluated. Control is considered to be surrendered if the transferee has the practical ability to unilaterally sell the transferred financial asset to a third party, without restrictions (ability to pledge is not sufficient). There is no legal “isolation in bankruptcy” test that is required to be met under IFRS to demonstrate that control has been surrendered. Lastly, if an entity neither transfers nor retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a transferred financial asset, and retains control of the transferred financial asset, the entity continues to recognize the transferred financial asset to the extent of its continuing involvement. The extent of the entity’s continuing involvement in the transferred financial asset is the extent to which it is exposed to changes in the value of the transferred financial asset. In addition, when an entity continues to recognize an asset to the extent of its “continuing involvement,” the entity also recognizes an associated liability and special measurement rules apply (refer to IAS 39.31). |

**Implications:**

Differences in accounting for transfers of financial assets are likely to arise between US GAAP and IFRS in situations in which legal control has been retained by the transferor while substantially all risks and rewards have been transferred. For instance, in order to derecognize financial assets under US GAAP, the transferor has to give up control over the transferred financial assets, but does not have to transfer substantially all risks and rewards of ownership in order to achieve sale accounting.

IFRS primarily allows financial assets to be derecognized when the entity has transferred substantially all risks and rewards from the financial asset. IAS 39 attempts to clarify that the transfer of risks and rewards should be evaluated by comparing the entity’s exposure, before and after the transfer, to the variability in the amounts and timing of the net cash flows of the transferred financial asset. An entity has transferred substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset if its exposure to the variability in the amounts and timing of the net cash flows of the
transferred financial asset is no longer significant in relation to the total of such variability (IAS 39.AG39 to AG41). See also Chapter 50 our International GAAP 2016 publication for additional guidance.

Under US GAAP, control is considered to be surrendered if, among other criteria enumerated in ASC 860-10-40-5, the transferee has the ability to sell or pledge the transferred financial assets. Under IFRS, a transferor that has neither retained nor transferred substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership of a transferred financial asset can still derecognize the asset to the extent it has transferred control over the asset to the transferee — that is, when the transferee has the practical ability to sell the asset unilaterally to an unrelated party without additional restrictions. However, unlike US GAAP, a transferee’s ability to only repledge the assets it receives is not sufficient to evidence surrender of control by the transferor under IFRS.

Lastly, IFRS’ special “pass-through” conditions do not exist under US GAAP. However, some similarities exist to IFRS’ pass-through requirements when the transaction involves the transfer of a portion of an entire financial asset.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 2. Has the reporting entity achieved partial derecognition by transferring a portion of an entire financial asset?

Groups of banks or other entities may jointly fund large borrowings through loan participations in which a single lender makes a large loan to a borrower and subsequently transfers interests in the loan to other entities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 860-10-40-4 through 40-5 and 860-10-05-23</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.15 through 23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A portion of an entire financial asset is eligible for sale accounting if it meets the conditions of a participating interest. A participating interest is defined in ASC 860-10-40-6A as a portion of a financial asset that possesses each of the following characteristics:</td>
<td>A portion of a financial asset may be considered for derecognition only if the portion meets one of the following three conditions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Represents a proportionate (pro rata) ownership interest in an entire financial asset</td>
<td>► The portion comprises only specified identified cash flows from a financial asset (e.g., an interest-only strip)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Entitles each participating interest holder to all the cash flows received from the entire financial asset in proportion to their share of ownership</td>
<td>► The portion comprises only a fully proportionate (pro rata) share of the cash flows from a financial asset (e.g., 90% of all cash flows from a loan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Requires each participating interest holder to have the same priority and no participating interest holder is subordinated to another — that is, it involves no recourse to, or subordination by, any participating interest</td>
<td>► The portion comprises only a fully proportionate (pro rata) share of specifically identified cash flows (e.g., 90% of interest cash flows)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, the transfer of a portion of a financial asset generally would be evaluated as a transfer of a financial asset subject to the
holder and it does not entitle any participating interest holder to receive cash before any other participating interest holder.

- Does not entitle any participating interest holder the right to pledge or exchange the entire financial asset unless all participating interest holders agree to pledge or exchange the entire financial asset.

Additionally, the requirements for a participating interest stipulate that certain cash flows should be excluded when evaluating whether all cash flows received from the entire financial asset are divided proportionately among the participating interest holders. Such exclusions include:

- Cash flows allocated as compensation for services performed (if not “significantly above” an amount that would fairly compensate a substitute service provider, should one be required, which includes the profit that would be demanded in the marketplace).

- Proceeds from sales of participating interests (except proceeds that permit the transferor to receive disproportionate cash flows).

- Recourse in the form of an independent third-party guarantee.

If the transferred portion of an entire financial asset meets the above conditions of a participating interest, and the sale criteria of ASC 860-10-40-5 are met (see Question 1), the transferor may derecognize the participating interests transferred (i.e., a portion of the loan is derecognized by the transferor to the extent of the participating interest sold to the transferee).

“pass-through” criteria of IAS 39. For pass-through arrangements, IAS 39 permits derecognition (i.e., sale accounting) only if the following three conditions are met:

- The transferor has no obligation to pay amounts to the eventual recipients unless it collects equivalent amounts from the underlying assets.

- The transferor is prohibited from selling or pledging the underlying asset, and

- The transferor has an obligation to remit any cash flows it collects on behalf of the eventual recipients without material delay.

Additionally, the transferor cannot reinvest such cash flows received from the underlying assets, unless they are invested in cash equivalents and interest earned is passed on to the eventual recipients.

Implications:

A reporting entity that transfers portions of financial assets will need to assess whether the conclusions previously reached under US GAAP will be affected by the adoption of IFRS. For example, transferred portions of an entire financial asset that did not meet the definition of a "participating interest" under US GAAP may be eligible for derecognition under IAS 39 if the criteria described above are met. Additionally, a reporting entity will need to assess if transfers of financial asset portions that achieved sale accounting under US GAAP include provisions that do not meet the pass-through requirements of IAS 39 and, therefore, should be accounted for as a secured borrowing.

Under IFRS, retention of servicing rights in connection with sale of participating interests may be problematic (prevent derecognition of the transferred financial asset) unless cash flows received from the underlying assets are promptly remitted to the transferee or invested in cash equivalents.
and interest earned is passed on to the transferee. In contrast, under US GAAP a servicing arrangement that permits the servicer (transferor) to earn and retain interest on cash collected from the underlying assets prior to the contractual payment date(s) to the participating interest holders (transferees) does not prevent derecognition of the transferred participating interest (unless such arrangement causes the transferor to fail the legal isolation requirement). Unlike the participating interest requirements under US GAAP, the pass-through requirements of IFRS do not limit the amount of service fees received as compensation provided such fees are dependent upon the servicing work being performed satisfactorily and that would end upon termination or transfer of the servicing contract.

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the gain or loss from a transfer of a portion of an entire financial asset that meets the requirements for sale accounting is typically determined based on the difference between the allocated cost basis of the financial asset components derecognized and the proceeds, which includes the fair value of any assets or liabilities that are newly created as a result of the transaction. However, because IFRS and US GAAP have different definitions of the unit of account eligible for derecognition and different interpretations of what constitutes a newly-created asset, the measurement of any associated gain or loss may also differ under the two accounting standards. For example, under US GAAP, if an entire financial asset (e.g., a mortgage loan) is transferred to a securitization entity that it does not consolidate and the transfer meets the conditions for sale accounting, the transferor may obtain an interest-only (I/O) strip as proceeds from the sale. An I/O strip received as proceeds of a sale is initially recognized and measured at fair value under US GAAP. Under IFRS, such a transaction would represent the transfer of a portion of an entire financial asset (i.e., in the case of the mortgage loan, a transfer of 100% of the principal cash flows and a portion of the interest cash flows). Unlike US GAAP, assuming the transfer qualifies for sale accounting under IFRS, the I/O strip would not represent a newly-created asset and, therefore, it would initially be recognized and measured based upon an allocation of the previous carrying amount of the larger financial asset (e.g., the mortgage loan). Assuming the original financial asset transferred was not designated upon initial recognition at fair value through profit or loss, the I/O strip would not initially be recognized at fair value under IFRS. Consequently, the amount of gain or loss recognized upon sale would differ.

### Identified difference?

<table>
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<th>Describe:</th>
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</table>

Questions 3 through 5 below are intended to identify differences in accounting for certain forms of continuing involvement associated with securitization transactions, including a transferor's guarantee, cleanup option and removal-of-accounts provision.
3. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity subject to a performance guarantee?

Guarantees can come in many forms and, when provided by a transferor in a transfer of financial assets, represent a form of the transferor’s continuing involvement with the transferred financial assets. For example, a loan guarantee by a transferor is a promise to the transferee to assume a borrower’s debt obligation if the borrower defaults (i.e., fails to repay debt in accordance with the borrower note). Third-party guarantees are sometimes necessary to entice lenders to lend by reducing concerns about the borrower's ability to repay. In securitization transactions, guarantees may be required by credit rating agencies in order to justify or preserve high credit ratings for certain classes of beneficial interests (securities) issued by the transferee, which are backed by the transferred financial assets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 860-10-40-4 through 40-5 and 460-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.20(c)(ii), 30 through 35, AG48 and IAS 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Guarantees may cause a transfer of financial assets to fail sale accounting for two reasons. That is, the guarantee may either:  
  ► Cause the transfer to fail the legal isolation requirements of ASC 860-10-40-5(a), or  
  ► Constrain the transferee’s right to pledge or exchange the transferred financial asset  
  For example, a freestanding transferor guarantee may effectively constrain a transferee because the transferee may be unlikely to forfeit the benefit of the guarantee (e.g., if the guarantee is sufficiently valuable to the transferee and not transferable). This constraint may also provide the transferor a more-than-trivial benefit (e.g., by knowing the location of such assets if it were to seek to reclaim them or by effectively limiting the ability of such assets to be obtained by a competitor).  
  Additionally, a guarantee provided by the transferor in conjunction with the sale of a portion of an entire financial asset is a form of recourse that would cause the transfer to fail to meet the participating interest definition. Refer to Question 2 for further information about transfers of portions of financial assets.  
  Some guarantee or recourse arrangements associated with transfers of financial assets do not preclude sale accounting because the transferor has relinquished effective control (i.e., each of the derecognition criteria of ASC 860-10-40-5 have been met). In those instances, the transferor would fully derecognize the transferred financial assets, recognize a corresponding gain or loss (if any), and record a liability for the guarantee in accordance with ASC 460-10. | Full derecognition of a transferred financial asset can be achieved only if substantially all of the risks and rewards are transferred. If an entity neither transfers nor retains substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a transferred financial asset, but retains control of the transferred financial asset, IAS 39 requires the entity to continue to recognize the transferred financial asset to the extent of its “continuing involvement” — that is, the extent to which it is exposed to changes in the value of the transferred financial asset.  
  When the entity’s continuing involvement takes the form of guaranteeing the transferred financial asset, IAS 39 states the extent of the entity’s continuing involvement is the lower of:  
  ► The amount of the asset; and  
  ► The maximum amount of the consideration received that the entity could be required to repay (the “guarantee amount”)  
  Additionally, when an entity continues to recognize an asset to the extent of its continuing involvement, IAS 39 also requires the entity to recognize an associated liability initially measured at the guaranteed amount plus the fair value of the guarantee (which is normally the consideration received for the guarantee). |
For example, assume an entity has a loan portfolio carried at $10 million with a fair value of $10.5 million. The entity sells the rights to 100% of the cash flows to a third party for a payment of $10.55 million, which includes a payment of $50K in return for the transferor agreeing to absorb the first $1 million of default losses on the portfolio.

Assuming the transferor meets the derecognition criteria specified in ASC 860-10-40-5, the transferor will derecognize the assets and recognize a liability measured at the fair value of the guarantee (i.e., $50K, assuming this represents a market based premium for the guarantee) in accordance with ASC 460-10. Therefore, the transferor’s continuing involvement in the transaction will be reflected as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>$10.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans transferred</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liability ($50K guarantee)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under ASC 460-10, the guarantee described above is initially recorded as a liability at fair value. Subsequently, the guarantee is reduced (by a credit to earnings) as the guarantor is released from risk under the guarantee (e.g., depending on the specific nature of the guarantee, upon either expiration or settlement of the guarantee, by a systematic and rational amortization method, or as the fair value of the guarantee changes).

Implications:
For transactions occurring on or after the date of transition to IFRS, a reporting entity will need to assess if a transfer that includes a guarantee that achieved sale accounting under ASC 860 would represent “continuing involvement” under IAS 39. In particular, and in contrast to the treatment for transactions that do not qualify for derecognition through retention of risks and rewards, an entity that is determined to have “continuing involvement” in the transferred financial assets under IFRS will need to record a second entry — that is, an asset that represents its continuing involvement in the transferred financial assets and an associated liability, which is often calculated as a balancing figure that will not necessarily represent the proceeds received as the result of the transfer.

Additionally, a reporting entity will need to re-assess transfers of a portion of a financial asset that did not qualify for derecognition under US GAAP because a guarantee associated with the portion transferred caused it to fail the requirements of a participating interest. Depending on its terms, such
transfers may achieve sales accounting under IAS 39 and require an entity to recognize an asset to the extent of its continuing involvement and an associated liability initially measured at the guaranteed amount plus the fair value of the guarantee.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

4. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity pursuant to a transfer arrangement that includes a “cleanup call” that would allow the entity (transferor) to liquidate the trust or SPE (the transferee) under specified conditions?

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, a cleanup call is defined as an option held by the servicer or its affiliate, which may be the transferor, to purchase the remaining transferred financial assets if the amount of outstanding assets falls to a level at which the cost of servicing those assets or beneficial interests becomes burdensome in relation to the benefits of servicing.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under ASC 860-10-40-5(c), a cleanup call is permitted as an exception to the requirement that the transferor has no rights (e.g., call options) or obligations to repurchase the transferred financial assets. That is, not only does a qualifying cleanup call not preclude derecognition (sales accounting), full derecognition of the transferred financial assets is permitted.</td>
<td>IAS 39.AG51(m) states that “provided a clean-up call results in the entity neither retaining nor transferring substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership and the transferee cannot sell the assets, it precludes derecognition only to the extent of the amount of the assets that is subject to the call option.” For example, if an entity that transfers assets and retains servicing can demonstrate that the cost of servicing those assets becomes burdensome in relation to the benefits of servicing when the outstanding assets fall to 10% of the original transferred balance, and the entity has neither retained nor transferred substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership and the transferee is prohibited from selling the transferred financial assets, then the entity will derecognize only 90% of the transferred financial assets. In addition, when the entity continues to recognize an asset to the extent of its continuing involvement, the entity also recognizes an associated liability. The associated liability is measured in such a way that the net carrying amount of the transferred financial asset and the associated liability is:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► The amortized cost of the rights and obligations retained by the entity, if the transferred financial asset is measured at amortized cost; or</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Equal to the fair value of the rights and obligations retained by the entity when measured on a stand-alone basis, if the transferred financial asset is measured at fair value.  
(Refer to paragraph AG48 of IAS 39 and Chapter 50 of our International GAAP 2016 publication for additional guidance.)

**Implications:**

Under ASC 860, a transferor (that is also the servicer) that holds a cleanup call is not precluded from accounting for the transfer of financial assets entirely as a sale. However, IAS 39 allows only partial derecognition of transferred financial assets provided a cleanup call results in an entity neither retaining nor transferring substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership and the transferee is constrained from selling the assets. Moreover, when an entity continues to recognize an asset to the extent of its “continuing involvement,” the entity also recognizes an associated liability as defined in paragraph 31 of IAS 39. On the other hand, if the transferor transfers substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership, then full derecognition is achieved under IFRS (i.e., in this instance, the cleanup call would not preclude full derecognition).

**Identified difference?**

*Describe:*

Click here to enter text.

**5. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets to another entity pursuant to a transfer arrangement that includes a “removal-of-accounts provision” (ROAP)?**

Many transfers of financial assets in securitization transactions (including credit card and other accounts receivable) empower the transferor to reclaim assets subject to certain restrictions. Such a power is often referred to as a “removal-of-accounts provision” or ROAP.

| --- | --- |
| A ROAP does not preclude derecognition of transferred financial assets by the transferor if it does not result in the transferor maintaining effective control over specified transferred financial assets. Whether a ROAP precludes sale accounting depends on whether it allows the transferor to unilaterally cause the return of specific assets and it provides the transferor with more than a trivial benefit. Examples of ROAPs that would not preclude derecognition include those:  
  ► For random removal of excess assets, if the ROAP is sufficiently limited so that the  | IAS 39.AG51(l) states that “provided that such an option (the ROAP) results in the entity neither retaining nor transferring substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership, it precludes derecognition only to the extent of the amount subject to repurchase (assuming the transferee cannot sell the assets).” For example, if an entity transfers loan receivables with a carrying amount of $100,000 for proceeds of $100,000 and any individual loan can be called back subject to a maximum of $10,000, $90,000 of the loans would qualify for derecognition. |
**Implications:**

Under IFRS, a transferor's ROAP in a securitization transaction or other asset-backed financing arrangement precludes full derecognition of transferred financial assets when such an option results in the transferor neither retaining nor transferring substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership. In these instances, IFRS permits derecognition, except to the extent of the amount subject to repurchase. Under US GAAP, a ROAP that allows the transferor to reacquire at any time a few specified individual assets from an entire pool of transferred financial assets and provides the transferor with more than a trivial benefit will preclude derecognition only to the extent of those assets subject to the ROAP, not the entire pool. Conversely, an unconditional ROAP that allows the transferor to specify the assets that may be removed from an entire pool of transferred financial assets and provides the transferor with more than a trivial benefit precludes sale accounting for all transferred financial assets.

A ROAP may also be considered a form of continuing involvement under IFRS and consequently require the entity to record a second entry as described above — that is, an asset that represents its continuing involvement in the transferred financial assets and an associated liability, which is often calculated as a balancing figure that will not necessarily represent the proceeds received as the result of the transfer.
Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

6. Has the reporting entity transferred a financial asset in conjunction with a total return swap with the same transferee?

A total return swap represents a swap agreement in which one party makes payments based on a set rate, either fixed or variable, while the other party makes payments based on the return of an underlying asset, which includes both the income it generates and any gains or losses. In total return swaps, the underlying asset, referred to as the reference asset, is usually an equity index, loans or bonds. This asset is owned by the party receiving the set rate payment.

Total return swaps allow the party receiving the total return to gain exposure and benefit from a reference asset without actually having to own it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 860-10-40-4 and 40-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.15 through 23, AG40(c) and AG51(o)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A transferor can derecognize a financial asset when effective control has been surrendered. Transfer of substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset is not a criterion for derecognition under ASC 860. Therefore, an entity that surrenders control over a transferred financial asset can retain substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership of that asset by concurrently entering into a total return swap with the same counterparty and still achieve sale accounting.</td>
<td>The derecognition model under IFRS is based on a mixed model that considers both transfer of risks and rewards and control. Transfer of control is considered only when the transfer of risks and rewards assessment is not conclusive. IAS 39 provides examples of when derecognition of a transferred financial asset would be precluded because an entity has retained substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership. One of the examples relates to a sale of a financial asset together with a total return swap that transfers the market risk exposure back to the entity (IAS39.AG40(c)).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Under US GAAP, an entity may sell a financial asset and retain substantially all of the risks and rewards by concurrently entering into a total return swap with the same counterparty and still achieve sale accounting provided control has been surrendered by meeting the derecognition criteria of ASC 860-10-40-4 and 40-5. In contrast, under IFRS, sale accounting for the same transactions would likely be precluded because the derecognition model requires that substantially all of the risks and rewards be transferred. Consequently, previously derecognized financial assets under US GAAP may be re-recognized under IFRS if an associated total return swap remains open as of the transition date, subject to the transition provisions of IFRS 1.
## Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

- Yes ☐
- No ☐
- Depends on policy election ☐

---

## 7. Has the reporting entity transferred financial assets and retained servicing rights?

An entity that transfers financial assets in a transfer that qualifies for sale accounting and retains servicing rights will recognize a servicing asset or liability depending on whether the servicing fee is above or below "adequate compensation." US GAAP defines adequate compensation as the amount of benefits of servicing that would fairly compensate a substitute servicer should one be required, which includes the profit that would be demanded in the marketplace. The key point of this definition is that adequate compensation is the amount demanded by the marketplace to perform the specific type of servicing; it does not vary according to the specific servicing costs of the servicer. We understand that adequate compensation is similarly interpreted under IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 860-50</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.24, 25, 27, IAS 37, IAS 18 and IAS 38.9-10 and 72</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All separately recognized servicing assets and servicing liabilities are required to be initially measured at fair value.</td>
<td>Upon completion of a transfer of financial assets that qualifies for derecognition, a servicing asset is initially recognized for the servicing right at an amount determined on the basis of an allocation of the carrying amount of the larger financial asset, as defined. Specifically, the previous carrying amount of the larger financial asset (e.g., transferred loans) is allocated between the part that continues to be recognized (which includes the servicing asset) and the part that is derecognized, based on the relative fair values of those parts on the date of the transfer. (Refer to paragraphs 24, AG45 and AG46 of IAS 39 for additional guidance and Chapter 50 of EY’s International GAAP publication for illustrative examples.) A separately recognized servicing liability for the servicing obligation is initially recognized at its fair value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| An entity must subsequently measure each class of separately recognized servicing assets and servicing liabilities either at fair value or by amortizing the amount recognized in proportion to and over the period of estimated net servicing income for assets — (the excess of servicing revenues over servicing costs) or the period of estimated net servicing loss for servicing liabilities (the excess of servicing costs over servicing revenues). ASC 860 requires that classes of servicing assets and servicing liabilities be identified based on one or both of the following:  
- The availability of market inputs used in determining the fair value of servicing assets or liabilities  
- An entity’s method for managing the risks of its servicing assets or servicing liabilities | While IAS 39 provides guidance for the initial recognition of servicing assets and liabilities it does not address subsequent measurement considerations because servicing rights do not represent financial assets or financial liabilities. However, IAS 38 provides guidance for servicing assets that meet the definition of an intangible asset. Under IAS 38, an entity is permitted to choose either the "cost model" in paragraph 74 or the "revaluation model" in paragraph 75 (subject to the fair value criterion specified in that standard) as its accounting policy to subsequently measure servicing assets. If a servicing asset |
The effect of remeasuring an existing class of servicing assets and liabilities at fair value is reported as a cumulative-effect adjustment to retained earnings as of the beginning of the period of election, and should be separately disclosed.

meets the definition of an intangible asset, including the fair value criterion of IAS 38, and an entity elects to measure the servicing asset using the “revaluation model” available under that standard, all other assets in its class will also be accounted for using the same model, unless there is no active market for those assets.

Additionally, we believe IAS 37 and IAS 18 provide applicable guidance for the subsequent measurement of servicing liabilities. For example, because the servicing contract represents an obligation to perform a service for a fee, IAS 18 provides relevant guidance for amortizing the servicing liability over the service period, while IAS 37 provides guidance for increasing the liability if the obligation becomes more onerous at a later date.

**Implications:**

Upon completion of a transfer of financial assets that qualifies for derecognition, both US GAAP and IFRS provide guidance for recognition of retained servicing rights. Those rights will result in the recognition of a servicing asset or liability depending on whether the servicing fee is above or below, respectively, “adequate compensation” (see also Question 2 for implications when a transfer involves portions of a financial asset – i.e., a participating interest).

**Servicing assets**

Under US GAAP, ASC 860 requires an initially recognized servicing asset to be measured at fair value. Thereafter, a reporting entity can choose to remeasure the asset at fair value or amortized cost. In contrast, under IFRS a servicing asset is recognized by allocating the previous carrying amount of the larger financial asset between the part that continues to be recognized (which includes the servicing asset) and the part that is derecognized, based on the relative fair values of those parts on the date of the transfer.

**Servicing liabilities**

While both US GAAP and IFRS initially require that a separately recognized servicing liability for a servicing obligation be recognized at its fair value, differences in accounting may exist in the subsequent remeasurement of servicing liabilities. Under US GAAP an entity may elect to subsequently amortize a recognized servicing liability (and assess for increased obligation based on fair value at each reporting date) or re measure the liability at fair value in accordance with the provisions of ASC 860. In contrast, under IFRS a servicing liability is subsequently amortized over the service period in accordance with IAS 18 and assessed for the need to increase the obligation to the extent the contract has become more onerous in accordance with IAS 37.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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Describe: Click here to enter text.
8. Has the reporting entity received or pledged collateral in connection with a securities lending transaction or repurchase agreement?

Securities lending

In a typical securities lending transaction, a borrower-transferee provides cash or a security (or pool of securities) as collateral for borrowing a specific security or securities. Typically, the lender-transferor of the security makes a payment to the borrower-transferee of the security known as a “rebate.” A rebate consists of an interest charge, for the cash collateral received by the lender-transferor of the security (assuming cash is received), netted by any loan fee owed by the borrower-transferee for the security it borrowed. The cash collateral received by the lender-transferor is then invested by the lender-transferor, earning a rate higher than the amount rebated. In the situation in which a security is received as collateral rather than cash, the lender-transferor charges a loan fee.

Repurchase agreement

Under a repurchase agreement, the transferor-repo party transfers a security to a transferee-reverse repo party in exchange for cash and concurrently agrees to reacquire that security at a future date for an amount equal to the cash exchanged plus a stipulated amount of interest. The transferor-repo party is viewed to be the debtor that borrowed cash and transferred securities as collateral while the transferee-reverse repo party is viewed as the secured lender that receives securities as collateral. The transferee-reverse repo party may or may not have the right to sell or re-pledge the securities to a third party during the term of the repurchase agreement.

For purposes of this Question, unless otherwise indicated, the lender-transferor in a securities lending transaction and the transferor-repo party in a repurchase agreement are collectively referred to as the “transferor,” while the borrower-transferee in securities lending transaction and transferee-reverse repo party in a repurchase agreement are collectively referred to as the “transferee.”

|---|---|
| An agreement that both entities and obligates the transferor to repurchase or redeem transferred financial assets from the transferee results in the transferor maintaining effective control over those assets. In those instances, the transferor will account for the transfer as a secured borrowing, if and only if all of the following conditions are met (ASC 860-10-40-24): (a) The assets to be repurchased or redeemed are the same or substantially the same as those transferred. (b) The agreement is to repurchase or redeem the financial assets before their maturity, at a fixed or determinable price. (c) The agreement is entered into contemporaneously with, or in contemplation of, the transfer. | An entity has retained substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership of a financial asset if its exposure to the variability in the present value of the future net cash flows from the financial asset does not change significantly as a result of the transfer. IAS 39 gives securities lending transactions and repurchase agreements as examples of transactions in which an entity has retained substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership. The following examples come from the application guidance of IAS 39 and illustrate when derecognition is precluded for financial assets transferred concurrently with a securities lending transaction or repurchase agreement: (a) If a financial asset is sold under an agreement to repurchase it at a fixed price or at the sale price plus a lender’s return or if it
Under many agreements to repurchase transferred financial assets before their maturity the transferor maintains effective control over those assets. Repurchase agreements that do not meet all the derecognition criteria of ASC 860 will be treated as secured borrowings. “Repurchase-to-maturity transactions” are also treated as secured borrowings as if the transferor maintains effective control.

Fixed-coupon and dollar-roll repurchase agreements, and other contracts under which the securities to be repurchased need not be the same as the securities sold, qualify as borrowings if the return of substantially the same securities as those concurrently transferred is assured. If a transferor has transferred securities to an independent third-party custodian, or to a transferee, under conditions that preclude the transferee from selling or re-pledging the assets during the term of the repurchase agreement or securities lending arrangement, the transferor has not surrendered control over those assets.

In transactions accounted for as secured borrowings, the cash (or securities that the holder is permitted by contract or custom to sell or re-pledge) received as “collateral” is considered the amount borrowed, and the securities “loaned” are considered pledged as collateral against the cash borrowed and reclassified (i.e., reported separately on the balance sheet) from securities owned in accordance with the requirements of ASC 860. Additionally, in a securities lending transaction, any “rebate” paid to the borrower-transferee of the securities is the interest on the cash the lender-transferor is considered to have borrowed.

However, in some securities lending transactions and repurchase agreements the criteria for sale accounting are met. In those instances, the transferor will account for the transaction as a sale of the “loaned” securities for proceeds consisting of the cash (or in the case of securities lending transactions, securities that the holder is permitted by contract or custom to sell or re-pledge) “collateral” and a forward repurchase commitment, while the transferee recognizes a purchase of the “borrowed” securities in exchange for the “collateral” and a forward resale commitment. Other transfers that are accompanied by an agreement to repurchase the transferred financial assets that are accounted for as sales include transfers with agreements to repurchase at maturity.

is loaned under an agreement to return it to the transferor (IAS 39.AG51(a)).

(b) If a financial asset is sold under an agreement to repurchase the same or substantially the same asset at a fixed price or at the sale price plus a lender’s return or if a financial asset is borrowed or loaned under an agreement to return the same or substantially the same asset to the transferor (IAS 39.AG51(b)).

(c) If a repurchase agreement at a fixed repurchase price or a price equal to the sale price plus a lender’s return, or a similar securities lending transaction, provides the transferee with a right to substitute assets that are similar and of equal fair value to the transferred financial asset at the repurchase date (IAS 39.AG51(c)).

However, a transfer of a financial asset that is subject to a forward repurchase agreement that has an exercise or repurchase price equal to the fair value of the financial asset at the time of repurchase results in derecognition because substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership have been transferred (IAS 39.AG51(j)). Likewise, an entity that sells a financial asset, and retains only a right of first refusal to repurchase the transferred financial asset at fair value if the transferee subsequently decides to sell it, will derecognize the asset (IAS 39.AG51(d)).

IAS 39 provides additional application guidance on the treatment of transfers of financial assets that are subject to a forward repurchase agreement that will be settled net (IAS 39.AG51(k)). The guidance indicates that the key factor for determining whether derecognition is appropriate remains whether or not the entity has transferred substantially all the risks and rewards of the transferred financial asset.
**Accounting for collateral in a securities lending transaction**

In a securities lending transaction, the lender-transferor of securities being "loaned" accounts for cash received in the same way whether the transfer is accounted for as a sale or a secured borrowing. The cash received is recognized as the lender-transferor’s asset — as will investments made with that cash, even if made by agents or in pools with other securities lenders — along with the obligation to return the cash. In addition, if securities that may be sold or re-pledged are received, the lender-transferor of the securities being "loaned" accounts for those securities in the same way as it would account for cash received. In other words, ASC 860 considers securities received by the lender-transferor, which may be sold or re-pledged, to be akin to the proceeds of either a sale of the "loaned" securities or a borrowing secured by them (i.e., the transferor records an asset (to recognize the in-kind proceeds) and a liability (to recognize a related obligation to repay the transferee or return the collateral received).

**Accounting for collateral in a securities lending transaction**

Under IFRS, the accounting for cash collateral received in a securities lending transaction is similar to US GAAP. However, unlike US GAAP, a lender-transferor in a securities lending transaction does not recognize on its balance sheet securities received as collateral, including an obligation to return securities received as collateral, even if it has the ability to sell the collateral received. However, if the lender-transferor actually sells the collateral received, it must recognize the proceeds received and an obligation to return the collateral. (Refer to Chapter 50 of EY’s International GAAP publication for additional guidance).

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, the lender-transferor will recognize the securities pledged as collateral, and a corresponding liability representing the obligation to return the securities received as collateral, provided it has the right by contract or custom to sell or pledge the collateral received. In other words, the lender-transferor accounts for the securities collateral as if the collateral was sold and cash received. In contrast, IFRS requires a lender-transferor to recognize collateral received and a corresponding obligation to return the collateral to the borrower-transferee, only when the collateral is sold.

The accounting for securities lending transactions and repurchase agreements will often be the same (i.e., secured borrowing rather than sale accounting) under both US GAAP and IFRS. However, differences in accounting can result because the US GAAP model focuses on transfer of control while IFRS considers transfer of risks and rewards of ownership.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
Liabilities and equity

Similarities:
Under both US GAAP and IFRS, common equity, preferred equity, and debt instruments are evaluated at issuance based on their contractual provisions and settlement alternatives to determine the appropriate classification as a liability (or asset in some cases) or equity. Instruments with both equity and liability components (“compound instruments” in IFRS) and instruments with embedded derivatives (“hybrid instruments” in both IFRS and US GAAP) will be evaluated to determine if those components or embedded features require separate accounting. Both GAAPs require identification of the same contractual features for analysis, although there frequently will be differences in the resulting classification.

After issuance, instruments classified in equity generally are not remeasured for subsequent changes. For instruments carried at amortized cost, both US GAAP and IFRS require an effective interest method to accrete or amortize any discounts or premiums and issuance costs. Certain instruments or features will fall under a fair value model, with the instrument or bifurcated feature remeasured at fair value through earnings each period. Both US GAAP and IFRS provide a similar model to determine if an instrument has been modified or extinguished based on significant changes to its cash flows. However, there are slight differences in the detailed guidance for subsequent measurement, modification, and settlement accounting.

Contracts that can be settled in the entity’s shares are also closely examined to determine equity or liability classification, with a focus on how the settlement amount is determined (i.e., whether it is equivalent to a “fixed amount of cash for a fixed number of shares”) and the form of settlement (that is, whether it is settled in net cash, net shares, or for a gross exchange of cash for shares), including any settlement alternatives. An instrument ultimately may be classified in equity, or as an asset or liability at fair value, or as a liability at an accreted value. Again, the similarity is in the identification of settlement amount calculation and settlement method alternatives, but the application of US GAAP and IFRS often will result in different classifications for the same instrument.

When evaluating a financial instrument under both US GAAP and IFRS, it is important to focus on identifying the contractual features and applying the detailed literature to that feature. As discussed above, both sets of standards are similar in that generally the same features will be identified within instruments. However, once the features are identified and the preparer is ready for the analysis, the underlying standards are organized differently.

The FASB’s Codification has condensed relevant literature into three main topics: ASC 470, Debt; ASC 480, Distinguishing Liabilities from Equity; and ASC 815-40, Derivatives — Contracts in Entity’s Own Equity. IFRS contains most of the same guidance in two standards and several IFRIC issues. IAS 32 broadly addresses the classification issues between liabilities and equity, focusing on specific characteristics of instruments such as contractual obligations to deliver cash, settlement in the entity’s own equity shares, contingent settlement provisions, and compound financial instruments. IAS 39 generally addresses measurement and subsequent accounting issues, including the derivative literature. IFRS 7 comprehensively addresses disclosure.

In accounting for financial instruments, including liability and equity instruments, fair value is frequently the measurement basis for an entire instrument, or a component of an instrument, such as a bifurcated embedded derivative or the liability component of a compound instrument. ASC 820 and IFRS 13 both provide a framework for measuring fair value that is applicable under the various accounting topics that require (or permit) fair value measurements in US GAAP and IFRS, respectively. Accordingly, the measurement of fair value across US GAAP and IFRS is generally based on a single definition and a consistent framework for the application of that definition. Although the principles of measuring fair value are virtually identical between US GAAP and IFRS, certain differences remain between the two sets of literature. IFRS adopters should consider the differences noted in the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication.
Overview

The Questions that follow below are generally organized based on the type of instrument being evaluated to assist in shifting the mindset from "instrument-based" US GAAP to "feature-based" IFRS. The Questions are generally organized within the following categories:

- Equity instruments (e.g., common and preferred shares — Questions 1 through 5)
- Debt (including convertible debt — Questions 6 through 12)
- Freestanding equity derivatives (e.g., warrants, forwards — Questions 13 through 18)

The use of the term "equity derivative" in the Questions does not imply the instrument is a derivative for accounting purposes under US GAAP or IFRS; rather, it is used in a generic sense. The term "equity instrument" generally refers to an instrument in the form of a share (either common stock or preferred stock). Instruments, features and components are evaluated to be assets, liabilities, derivatives or equity.

Within each section, a general Question is used to help distinguish some of the key considerations and differences, with subsequent Questions using specific instruments to highlight the key differences. The subsequent Questions examine representative instruments, but do not represent a complete listing of instruments with differences under US GAAP and IFRS.

The Questions provide the basic guidance to be considered when evaluating a liability or equity instrument for the appropriate accounting. Extensive interpretative guidance can be found in our US GAAP publications, including in our Financial Reporting Developments – Derivative instruments and hedging activities. For IFRS, our International GAAP® publication provides extensive discussion and examples of issues related to accounting for financial instruments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 260, Earnings Per Share</td>
<td>❯ IAS 32, Financial Instruments: Presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 405, Liabilities</td>
<td>❯ IAS 39, Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 470, Debt</td>
<td>❯ IFRS 7, Financial Instruments: Disclosures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 480, Distinguishing Liabilities from Equity</td>
<td>❯ IFRS 13, Fair Value Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 505, Equity</td>
<td>❯ IFRIC 19, Extinguishing Financial Liabilities with Equity Instruments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 815, Derivatives and Hedging</td>
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<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 820, Fair Value Measurement</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>❯ ASC 835, Interest</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

Debt issuance costs – The FASB issued ASU 2015-03 in April 2015 that requires debt issuance costs to be presented as a deduction from the corresponding debt liability. The guidance is effective for PBEs for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For all other entities, it is effective for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016. Early adoption is permitted. IFRS currently requires that transaction costs be deducted from the carrying value of the financial liability and not recorded as separate assets. Once ASU 2015-03 is adopted, there will no longer be a difference between US GAAP and IFRS.

Financial instruments with characteristics of equity — While both Boards have discontinued their efforts to converge in this area, the IASB continues its research project on potential improvements to (1) the classification of liabilities and equity in IAS 32, Financial Instruments: Presentation, including potential
amendments to the definitions of liabilities and equity in the Conceptual Framework and (2) the presentation and disclosure requirements for financial instruments with characteristics of equity, irrespective of classification. The IASB is expected to continue its discussions on these initiatives at future meetings. The FASB currently has a targeted improvements project to simplify certain areas of the accounting for financial instruments with characteristics of liabilities and equity. In addition, the FASB included a broad project on distinguishing liabilities from equity in its recently issued Invitation to Comment and is soliciting feedback from stakeholders in setting its agenda for the next several years.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

The general principles of IFRS 1 require a first-time adopter to retrospectively recognize and derecognize all financial assets and financial liabilities (including derivatives) in its opening IFRS balance sheet in accordance with IAS 32 and IAS 39. IFRS 1 requires a first-time adopter to apply IAS 32 retrospectively and separate all compound financial instruments into their debt and equity components. Under that general principal, if the liability component of a compound financial instrument is no longer outstanding at the date of transition, retrospective application of IAS 32 would result in two separate equity portions: (1) a portion recorded in retained earnings, representing the cumulative interest accretion on the liability component and (2) the equity component initially allocated at inception.

Because retrospective application under this situation does not affect the total amount of equity recorded for this instrument, IFRS 1 provides an exemption under which a first-time adopter need not identify separately the two portions of equity if the liability component of the instrument is no longer outstanding at the date of transition. The exemption is only relevant for the issuers of compound financial instruments that require "split accounting." That is, the exemption applies to compound instruments with a component accounted for as a liability and a component accounted for as equity. However, this exemption does not extend to the issuer of a convertible instrument in which the "equity" component is an embedded equity-linked instrument (that is, it does not meet the "fixed-for-fixed" criterion) and is required to be separately accounted for (bifurcated) as a derivative under IAS 39.

**Equity instruments**

1. **Has the entity issued any equity instruments other than simple common stock? For example, has it issued preferred stock, or instruments with redemption features, or equity instruments with conversion features?**

   Once an instrument departs from being a simple residual interest in the assets of an entity after deducting its liabilities (e.g., a simple common share), the features representing contractual obligations to deliver cash or another asset and provisions requiring contingent settlement will need to be analyzed to determine the proper classification of the instrument and perhaps separate accounting for the feature(s).

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8 Compound financial instruments are instruments that contain both a liability and equity component. IAS 32 requires an issuer to split a compound financial instrument at inception into separate liability and equity components. The substance of the contractual arrangement, rather than the legal form, governs the classification of the components of compound financial instruments. The measurement of the components is determined based on the circumstances existing at the date when the instrument was first issued. For example, a convertible bond contains an obligation to pay interest and principal (a liability component) and an embedded conversion option (an equity component). The fair value of the liability component, excluding the conversion option, is measured at the fair value of expected cash flows at inception and recorded as a liability. The residual amount of the issuance proceeds is recorded in equity. This is sometimes referred to as "split accounting" and applies only when the conversion option is considered to be a "fixed-for-fixed" feature. If the "fixed-for-fixed" criterion is not met, then IAS 39 requires the issuer of the instrument to separate (or bifurcate) the equity conversion option (the embedded derivative) and to account for the embedded derivative at fair value. (See paragraphs 28 through 32 of IAS 32 and IAS 32.AG30 through AG35.) See question 1 for further discussion.
Under US GAAP, some features may render the entire instrument a liability under ASC 480. But if the equity instrument is not a liability under ASC 480, the implicit or explicit terms that affect some or all of the cash flows or the value of other exchanges required by the contract must be evaluated for potential bifurcation as embedded derivatives under ASC 815. Instruments containing such features are referred to as hybrid instruments. Therefore, under US GAAP, some features may result in liability classification of the instrument while others may be separated from the instrument as embedded derivatives.

Under IFRS, separate accounting for a feature can result when a non-derivative instrument is determined to contain both a liability component and an equity component. IFRS refers to these as compound instruments in IAS 32 and the separate accounting is often referred to as split accounting. IFRS also has a similar concept of bifurcating embedded derivatives from hybrid instruments. Therefore, under IFRS, features may be split as equity or liability components, or bifurcated as embedded derivatives.

The literature referenced below provides a high level overview of the US GAAP literature that is applied to equity instruments (excluding “equity derivatives,” which are discussed in Question 13 below), along with the IFRS literature that examines the same features under its guidance that is more concisely contained in IAS 32 (for equity and liability features) and IAS 39 (for embedded derivatives).

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distinguishing liabilities from equity</strong></td>
<td>The emphasis of IAS 32 is on the contractual rights and obligations arising from the terms of an instrument, rather than on the probability of those rights and obligations leading to an outflow of cash or other resources from the entity. Additionally, IAS 32 requires the issuer of a financial instrument to classify a financial instrument by reference to its substance rather than its legal form. An equity instrument is defined in IAS 32.11 as any contract that evidences a residual interest in the assets of an entity after deducting all of its liabilities. The instrument is an equity instrument if, and only if, both of the following conditions are met:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC 480 requires that certain freestanding financial instruments be classified as liabilities. Among those instruments are:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ A financial instrument in the form of a share that is mandatorily redeemable (as defined) unless the redemption is required to occur only on the liquidation or termination of the reporting entity.</td>
<td>▶ The instrument includes no contractual obligation to either deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity or exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially unfavorable to the entity; and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ A financial instrument that embodies an unconditional obligation, or a financial instrument other than an outstanding share that embodies a conditional obligation, that the entity must or may settle by issuing a variable number of its equity shares if, at inception, the monetary value of the obligation is based solely or predominantly on any of: a fixed monetary amount known at inception; variations in something other than the fair value of the entity’s equity shares, or variations inversely related to changes in the fair value of the entity’s equity shares.</td>
<td>▶ If the instrument will or may be settled in the entity’s own equity instruments, it is either: (1) a non-derivative that includes no contractual obligation for the entity to deliver a variable number of its own equity instrument or, (2) a derivative that will be settled only by the entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC 480 requires that mandatorily redeemable equity instruments be initially measured at fair value. Those instruments are subsequently measured based on whether the settlement amount and date are fixed. If fixed, subsequent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Liabilities and equity

measurement is at the present value of the settlement amount with interest accrued at the implicit rate at inception. If not, subsequent measurement is at the amount that would be paid if settlement occurred at the reporting date, recognizing any resulting changes in that amount from the previous reporting date as interest expense.

If a conditionally redeemable equity instrument (in the form of a share) becomes mandatorily redeemable, the reporting entity reclassifies the instrument from equity to a liability based on the fair value of the instrument at that time.

**Evaluation of embedded derivatives**

If the equity instrument is not classified as a liability, then it is likely classified in equity, and any terms affecting future cash flows are evaluated as potential embedded derivatives requiring bifurcation. In evaluating the features, the entity first evaluates the nature of the host instrument as either debt-like or equity-like in accordance with ASC 815-15-25-16 through 25-17D. (ASU 2014-16, issued in November 2014 and codified in ASC 815-15-25-16 through ASC 815-15-25-17D, requires all entities to use the whole instrument approach to determine the nature of the host contract in a hybrid instrument issued in the form of a share. The whole instrument approach requires entities to consider all of a hybrid instrument’s stated and implied substantive terms and features, including the embedded derivative feature being evaluated for bifurcation. This guidance is effective for public business entities for fiscal years and interim periods within those years beginning after 15 December 2015. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016.) The embedded features are then evaluated under ASC 815-15 for bifurcation. ASC 815-10-15 will also be considered to determine if a derivative that otherwise requires bifurcation receives a scope exception under ASC 815 (and thus would not require bifurcation).

For embedded conversion options, this will include the consideration of the scope exception in ASC 815-10-15-74(a) that excludes contracts that are both indexed only to the entity’s own stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and classified in stockholders’ equity (using the indexation literature in ASC 815).

exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own equity instruments (frequently, referred to as the “fixed-for-fixed” notion from IAS 32).

An instrument that fails to meet the definition of equity will meet the definition of a financial liability in IAS 32.11 as the two definitions are essentially the inverse of each other — that is, if an instrument failed one of the criteria for equity, then it met the criteria in the liability definition.

Under IAS 32.19, if an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability. A contractual obligation that is conditional on a counterparty exercising its right to redeem is a financial liability because the entity does not have the unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset.

Under IAS 32.25, a financial instrument with contingent settlement provisions (i.e., it is settled in the event of the occurrence or non-occurrence of uncertain future events (or on the outcome of uncertain circumstances) that are beyond the control of both the entity and the holder of the instrument) it is a financial liability of the entity unless either the part of the contingent settlement provision that could require settlement in cash or another financial asset (or otherwise in such a way that it would be a financial liability) is not genuine; or the entity can be required to settle the obligation only in the event of liquidation of the entity.

A puttable equity instrument meets the definition of financial liability, because it gives the holder the right to put it back to the entity for cash or another financial asset, which means that the entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or other financial assets under the contract. However, IAS 32.16A through D provides limited exceptions to the general requirement that puttable instruments are financial liabilities allowing equity classification of certain puttable instruments, if they meet certain conditions.

IAS 32.28-32 discusses the concept of a compound instrument in which the non-derivative financial instrument is separated into its liability and equity components, which is often
the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). Part of the analysis under the equity classification literature depends on whether the instrument is considered conventionally convertible under ASC 815-40-25-39 through 25-42. Bifurcated derivatives are initially recorded at fair value and subsequently measured at fair value with changes reflected in earnings.

If the equity instrument is convertible, and classified as a liability under ASC 480, then the guidance in the Cash Conversion subtopics under ASC 470-20 is considered if the conversion can be settled in cash or partial cash, which may result in separate accounting for the liability and equity components as required in that guidance. If separate accounting is required, the liability component is subsequently accreted using an interest method and the equity component is not remeasured.

If a conversion option does not require bifurcation under ASC 815, and is not addressed in ASC 470-20’s Cash Conversion Subtopics, then it is considered for separate accounting at intrinsic value in equity as a beneficial conversion feature pursuant to the guidance in the General Subtopics under ASC 470-20. The amount classified in equity is not remeasured subsequently unless the terms of the conversion option change (e.g., contingently adjustable conversion options).

**Consideration of SEC guidance for redeemable securities**

Public entities also consider the SEC’s guidance in ASC 480-10-S99-1 and ASC 480-10-S99-3A for classification of redeemable securities as temporary equity. This guidance also specifies the subsequent measurement of the instruments and related effects on earnings per share (EPS).

**Consideration of SEC guidance for redemption or conversion of preferred shares**

If a public entity redeems its preferred stock, the excess (or deficiency) of the fair value of the consideration transferred to the holders of the preferred stock over the carrying amount of the preferred stock in the entity’s balance sheet is treated in a manner similar to dividends and thus subtracted from (or added to) net earnings to arrive at net earnings available to common shareholders in the calculation of earnings per share.

referred to as split accounting. This process also involves the identification of any embedded derivatives (e.g., other non-equity features such as prepayment features, or even equity-related features that are not equity — such as conversion options that are not “fixed-for-fixed” — as discussed further in Question 4 below) under IAS 39.10-13. Split accounting allocates fair value to the liability component (including the value related to any embedded derivatives that will be bifurcated) and allocates the residual to the equity component.

In accordance with IAS 39, financial liabilities are classified as either at fair value through profit or loss or as other financial liabilities (not explicitly defined in the standard). Financial liabilities issued by the reporting entity classified as at fair value through profit or loss would include a derivative instrument.

Financial liabilities are initially measured at fair value. However, financial liabilities not classified as at fair value through profit or loss are initially recorded at fair value less any transaction costs that are directly attributable to the issuance of the financial liability.

Subsequent measurement of financial liabilities classified as at fair value through profit or loss are measured at fair value. All other financial liabilities are subsequently measured at amortized cost using the effective interest method.
If convertible preferred stock is converted to other securities issued by the entity pursuant to an inducement offer as contemplated in ASC 470-20-40-13 through 40-17, the excess of the fair value of all securities and other consideration transferred in the transaction by the registrant to the holders of the convertible preferred stock over the fair value of securities issuable pursuant to the original conversion terms is subtracted from net earnings to arrive at net earnings available to common shareholders in the calculation of earnings per share.

**Implications:**

The discussion above outlines the basic approach to analyzing financial instruments that appear to be in the form of equity (common stock, preferred shares), other than the most basic forms of those instruments. Both US GAAP and IFRS require contractual terms and features in the instrument to be identified and the accounting guidance to be applied to determine if the instrument is accounted for as a single instrument or accounted for in pieces (components or bifurcated embedded derivatives). Questions 2 through 5 that follow illustrate some of the key concepts in the discussion above, but are not intended to be a complete listing of instruments with differences under US GAAP and IFRS accounting.

Given the significant differences in how certain features (such as redemption features) are treated under the US GAAP and IFRS, entities should not be surprised to find that reclassifications between equity and liabilities are necessary upon adopting IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
2. Has the entity issued puttable common or preferred shares? For example, has the entity issued shares that are puttable at any time or at certain times at the option of the holder?

In some cases, a common share may include a contractual provision that allows the holder to require the entity to redeem the share at any time or on a specific date. It is even more common for outstanding preferred shares to contain such provisions. In addition, preferred shares may include other rights, (e.g., cumulative or noncumulative dividends that may be mandatorily payable or payable at the entity's option).

In determining whether a common or preferred share is a financial liability or an equity instrument, IFRS requires an entity to assess the particular rights attached to the share to determine whether it exhibits the fundamental characteristics of a financial liability (with limited exceptions). If an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability. In addition, IFRS focuses on the substance of a financial instrument, rather than its legal form, to determine the classification of such financial instrument in the entity's statement of financial position. Substance and legal form are commonly consistent, but not always. Some financial instruments take the legal form of equity but are liabilities in substance and others may combine features associated with equity instruments and features associated with financial liabilities.

Under US GAAP, unless an equity instrument (in the form of a share) is one of the three types of financial instruments for which ASC 480 requires liability classification, the legal form generally governs its classification. An embedded put option in a share would be evaluated for bifurcation under ASC 815 rather than resulting in liability classification for the entire instrument.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815, 480, and 480-10-S99-3A</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The redemption of puttable shares is contingent upon the holder’s exercise of the embedded put option. Therefore, they are not “mandatorily redeemable” instruments that require liability classification under ASC 480, as the exercise of the put option by the holder and the delivery of cash or transfer of assets is not certain to occur. However, once the put option is exercised, but prior to final settlement, the instruments being redeemed would be measured at fair value (recognizing no gain or loss), reclassified to a liability, and subsequently measured as required under ASC 480. The guidance in ASC 815-15-25-16 through 25-17D (to determine the nature of the host contract in preferred shares) and then the guidance in either ASC 815-15-25-20 (for equity hosts) or ASC 815-15-25-40 through 25-43 (for debt hosts) would be considered in evaluating the put feature for bifurcation. ASU 2014-16, issued in November 2014 and codified in ASC 815-15-25-16 through ASC 815-15-25-17D, requires all entities to use the whole instrument approach to determine the</td>
<td>A puttable instrument meets the definition of financial liability, because it gives the holder the right to put it back to the entity for cash or another financial asset, which represents a contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset for which the entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid under IAS 32.19. This is so even when the amount of cash or other financial assets fluctuates with an index or other item, or the puttable instrument gives the holder a right to a residual interest in the assets of an entity. IAS 32.16A through D provides limited exceptions to its general requirement that puttable instruments are financial liabilities. These exceptions allow equity classification of certain puttable instruments if they have particular features and meet certain conditions. This exception is provided to address what some regarded as an inappropriate result of classifying certain puttable instruments as financial liabilities in the financial statements of entities such as open-ended mutual funds, unit trusts,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nature of the host contract in a hybrid instrument issued in the form of a share. The whole instrument approach requires entities to consider all of a hybrid instrument's stated and implied substantive terms and features, including the embedded derivative feature being evaluated for bifurcation. This guidance is effective for public business entities for fiscal years and interim periods within those years beginning after 15 December 2015. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016.

For public entities, ASC 480-10-S99-3A requires securities with redemption features that are not solely within the control of the reporting entity to be classified outside of permanent equity. Accordingly, a puttable equity instrument is classified as temporary equity (in the mezzanine between liabilities and equity).

Implications:

Puttable preferred shares are generally classified as equity (temporary equity for public entities) under US GAAP and as liabilities under IFRS. There is no concept of “temporary equity” or “mezzanine classification” under IFRS. It is very common for preferred shares to contain redemption rights for the holders, so this may represent a significant difference.

Under IFRS, puttable preferred shares that are also convertible would be compound instruments, with the conversion feature representing an equity component (or perhaps a derivative depending on its characteristics). Under US GAAP, conversion options are generally not bifurcated as embedded derivatives from preferred shares, although they may be separately accounted for if they represent beneficial conversion options. See Question 4 for additional discussion on convertible preferred shares.

Note that a preferred share redeemable in cash at the option of the entity does not fall under this category, because redemption of the shares is solely at the discretion of the entity; therefore, it does not meet the definition of a financial liability under either IFRS or US GAAP.
3. Has the reporting entity issued contingently redeemable common or preferred equity instruments? For example, are the instruments optionally redeemable or automatically redeemed based on events that are not certain to occur?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Some financial instruments may require an entity to deliver cash or another financial asset in the event of the occurrence or non-occurrence of uncertain future events that are beyond the control of both the entity and the holder of the instrument (e.g., contingently redeemable preferred shares). These contingent events might include: a change in a stock market index, consumer price index, interest rate or taxation requirements; the level of the entity's future revenues, net income or debt-to-equity ratio; or specified events of default.

**US GAAP — 815, 480, and 480-10-S99-3A**

The instrument does not represent a "mandatorily redeemable" liability under ASC 480-10-25-4 through 25-7 because the redemption is contingent upon the occurrence or non-occurrence of a future event. Accordingly, it is classified as equity. However, if the future event occurs, the contingency is resolved or the event becomes certain to occur, the reporting entity should reclassify the instrument from equity to a liability based on the fair value of the instrument at that time.

The guidance in ASC 815-15-25-16 through 25-17D (to determine the nature of the host contract in preferred shares) and then the guidance in either ASC 815-15-25-20 (for equity hosts) or ASC 815-15-25-40 through 25-43 (for debt hosts) would be considered in evaluating the put feature for bifurcation. ASU 2014-16, issued in November 2014 and codified in ASC 815-15-25-16 through ASC 815-15-25-17D, requires all entities to use the whole instrument approach to determine the nature of the host contract in a hybrid instrument issued in the form of a share. The whole instrument approach requires entities to consider all of a hybrid instrument’s stated and implied substantive terms and features, including the embedded derivative feature being evaluated for bifurcation. This guidance is effective for public business entities for fiscal years and interim periods within those years beginning after 15 December 2015. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016. For public entities, ASC 480-10-S99-3A requires securities with redemption features that are not solely within the control of the reporting entity to be classified outside of permanent equity. Accordingly, a puttable equity instrument

**IFRS — IAS 32**

IAS 32.25 requires that a contingently redeemable instrument that is redeemable upon the occurrence of an event that is beyond the control of both the entity and the holder, and for which the entity does not have the unconditional right to avoid the obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset (or otherwise to settle it in such a way that it would be a financial liability) be classified as a financial liability. Exceptions are provided if the contingency is not “genuine” or it is triggered only in the event of a liquidation of the entity or it has all the features and meets the conditions for certain puttable instruments in IAS 32.16A and B.

The contingency is not considered genuine if the requirement would arise “only on the occurrence of an event that is extremely rare, highly abnormal and very unlikely to occur.”
is classified as temporary equity (in the mezzanine between liabilities and equity).

**Implications:**

Similar to puttable preferred shares, contingently redeemable shares that are redeemable upon events that are beyond the control of both the entity and the holder are generally classified as equity (temporary equity for public companies) under US GAAP and as liabilities under IFRS. Again, there is no concept of mezzanine classification under IFRS.

In preparing for the adoption of IFRS, an entity may need to identify all of its contingently redeemable instruments to analyze the events triggering the redemption features to determine whether these events are within the entity’s control or not, which will require judgment based on facts and circumstances. If the events are not within the control of the entity, financial liability classification is required under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**4. Has the entity issued redeemable preferred shares that are convertible by the holder?**

Convertible preferred shares are common and frequently will also include redemption features. Those redemption features may be either at the option of the holder or mandatory.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815, 480, 470-20, 815-40, 480-10-S99-3A and 480-10-S99-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If mandatorily redeemable preferred shares are also convertible, then they are generally not classified as liabilities under ASC 480-10-25-4 through 25-7 as redemption is not certain given that conversion may occur. Once any conversion option lapses, the instrument is classified as a liability. However, if the instrument is convertible and requires cash to be delivered equal to the stated value (liquidation or preference amount) of the preferred shares in addition to cash or shares for the conversion spread, then the instrument is classified as a liability under ASC 480 because it is known that cash equal to the stated value will be paid by the entity either at conversion or maturity. Whether classified in equity or as a liability, the embedded conversion option requires analysis. In evaluating the embedded conversion option, the entity first evaluates the nature of the host instrument in the preferred stock as either debt-</td>
<td>A redeemable preferred share that is also convertible is a compound instrument under IAS 32.28. As a redeemable instrument, it contains a financial liability because it gives the holder the right to put it back to the entity for cash or another financial asset, which represents a contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset for which the entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid under IAS 32.19. As a convertible instrument, the conversion option must be analyzed for the appropriate accounting. If the conversion option meets the “fixed-for-fixed” notion in IAS 32, it would not be a derivative and would be separately accounted for as an equity component under split accounting. Split accounting allocates fair value to the liability component (including the value related to any other embedded derivatives that</td>
</tr>
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</table>
like or equity-like under ASC 815-15-25-16 through 25-17D. (ASU 2014-16, issued in November 2014 and codified in ASC 815-15-25-16 through ASC 815-15-25-17D, requires all entities to use the whole instrument approach to determine the nature of the host contract in a hybrid instrument issued in the form of a share. The whole instrument approach requires entities to consider all of a hybrid instrument’s stated and implied substantive terms and features, including the embedded derivative feature being evaluated for bifurcation. This guidance is effective for public business entities for fiscal years and interim periods within those years beginning after 15 December 2015. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016.) The embedded conversion option is then evaluated under ASC 815-15 for bifurcation. If the preferred stock host is classified in equity and is also deemed to be an equity-like host instrument as is frequently the case, then the conversion option is not bifurcated as it is considered clearly and closely related to the host contract.

However, if the preferred stock is either classified as a liability or classified in equity but deemed to have a debt-like host, and if the conversion option meets the criteria for bifurcation, ASC 815-10-15 will also be considered to determine if the conversion option receives a scope exception under ASC 815 (and thus would not require bifurcation). This will include the consideration of the scope exception in ASC 815-10-15-74(a) that excludes contracts that are both indexed only to the entity’s own stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and classified in stockholders’ equity (using the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). Part of the analysis under the equity classification literature depends on whether the instrument is considered conventionally convertible under ASC 815-40-25-39 through 25-42. Bifurcated derivatives are initially separated at fair value and subsequently measured at fair value with changes reflected in earnings.

If the preferred stock instrument is classified as a liability under ASC 480, and is not bifurcated under ASC 815, then the guidance in the Cash Conversion Subtopics under ASC 470-20 is will be bifurcated) and allocates the residual to the equity component.

However, if the conversion option was considered a derivative, it would not be clearly and closely related to the debt host and would require bifurcation as an embedded derivative.
considered if the conversion can be settled in cash or partial cash, which may require separate accounting for the liability and equity components. The liability component is subsequently accreted using an interest method and the equity component is not remeasured.

If a conversion option is not bifurcated under ASC 815, and is not addressed in ASC 470-20's Cash Conversion Subtopics, then it is considered for separate accounting at intrinsic value in equity as a beneficial conversion feature pursuant to the guidance in the General Subtopics under ASC 470-20. The amount classified in equity is not remeasured subsequently unless the terms of the conversion option change (e.g., contingently adjustable conversion option).

Consideration of SEC guidance for redeemable securities

Public entities also consider the SEC’s guidance in 480-10-S99-1 and ASC 480-10-S99-3A for classification of redeemable securities as temporary equity. This guidance also specifies the subsequent measurement of the instruments and related effects on EPS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Under IFRS, the redeemable preferred share itself represents a liability. It is also certain that the conversion option in a redeemable preferred share will be accounted for separately. However, the specific characteristics of the instrument will determine whether the separate accounting is split accounting as an equity component or bifurcation as an embedded derivative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, the same instrument is likely to be accounted for entirely in equity. The redemption feature will usually result in the instrument being reflected in temporary equity by SEC registrants. The conversion option will usually not be bifurcated; however, separate accounting as a beneficial conversion feature is not uncommon.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.
5. Does the reporting entity (or a consolidated subsidiary) hold any previously purchased shares of its own stock? Does it enter into market-making activities or hedging activities that involve its own stock?

Holdings of treasury shares may arise in a number of ways. For example, the entity may directly purchase shares, such as from the market or in a buy-back of shares from specific shareholder or groups of shareholders. A financial institution may have a market-making operation that may buy and sell its own shares along with those of other listed entities in the normal course of business, or perhaps hold them in order to ‘hedge’ issued derivatives. In consolidated financial statements, parent entity shares may be held by a subsidiary (perhaps purchased by that entity before it became a subsidiary) or perhaps a consolidated Special Purpose Entity (SPE) holds shares of the parent.

**US GAAP — 505-30**

If an entity acquires shares of its own capital stock, the cost of the acquired shares is generally shown as a deduction from capital. Gains and losses on sales of treasury stock are accounted for as adjustments to capital and not as part of income. ASC 505-30-30-5 through 30-10 provides additional guidance.

A purchase price that is significantly in excess of current market price may indicate that the price paid includes consideration for other factors such as stated or unstated rights, privileges, or agreements in addition to the capital stock. In such cases, the excess should be attributed to the other factors and accounted for based on their substance. Application of this provision generally results in a current charge to earnings for any excess price paid under ASC 505-30-30-2 through 30-4.

**IFRS — IAS 32**

If an entity acquires its own equity instruments, IAS 32.33-34 requires those instruments to be deducted from equity. They are not recognized as financial assets, regardless of the reason for which they are acquired. No gain or loss is recognized in profit or loss on the purchase, sale, issue or cancellation of an entity’s own equity instruments. Accordingly, any consideration paid or received in connection with treasury share must be recognized directly in equity.

It is not clear whether or not the IASB specifically considered transactions in the entity’s own equity other than at fair value in the context of IAS 32.

**Implications:**

The accounting for treasury share transactions under US GAAP and IFRS is generally consistent. Because no gain or loss is generally recognized on share transactions, a market-making function must be careful to account for all purchases and sales of the entity’s own stock through equity (as opposed to income).

However, US GAAP provides specific guidance in limited situations for purchases of treasury shares significantly in excess of market prices (typically referred to as a “greenmail transaction”) which will likely result in the recognition of an expense for such excess, whereas IFRS read literally would require such difference to be recorded in equity.

In a “greenmail transaction,” where the entity may wish to rid itself of a troublesome shareholder or group of shareholders, the entity might have to offer a premium specific to the holder over and above the ‘true’ fair value of the equity instruments concerned. It is not clear whether IAS 32 contemplated such a transaction. There could be an argument that the holder-specific premium should be accounted for in profit or loss, not equity. Alternatively, it might be argued that in the
circumstances the amount paid is the fair value of the shares concerned. Under the literal guidance in IAS 32, no amount should be recorded in earnings for this type of transaction.

A transaction in which the entity reissues treasury shares for cash or other assets with a fair value lower than the fair value of the shares may fall under the scope of IFRS 2, thus requiring the shortfall to be accounted for under IFRS 2, which would result in an expense for the shortfall. The key consideration that is further discussed in our International GAAP® publication is whether the shares are being issued to investors or for goods or other services. We believe that a similar conclusion would be reached under US GAAP if the shares were sold at a significant discount from fair value.

**Identified difference?**

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<th>Describe:</th>
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**Debt instruments**

6. **Has the entity issued any debt instruments other than simple fixed-rate debt with a stated maturity? For example, has the entity issued convertible debt, or debt with variable interest rates, or debt that is puttable by the holder or callable by the entity?**

Debt instruments will generally be liabilities under both US GAAP and IFRS. US GAAP will require liability treatment based on the legal form of the instrument. IFRS will usually result in liability treatment due to the contractual obligation to settle the interest and principal amount in cash. However, given the focus on substance and contractual obligations in IFRS rather than legal form, it is possible certain debt could be considered equity if it was perpetual (with no obligation to settle the principal amount); however, if interest payments were required, split accounting would be required and it is likely that the liability component would represent the full face amount of the instrument.

Debt instruments frequently have features that can cause variations in the amount and/or timing of the cash flows and settlements. Similar to the equity instruments, debt instruments can represent compound instruments and hybrid instruments. Common examples include interest rates that vary based on an index or a formula, prepayment features (such as an entity call option or holder put option), conversion options, and make-whole features. These features will be analyzed under both US GAAP and IFRS for the appropriate accounting — either split accounting or bifurcation under IFRS and separate accounting (for certain conversion features) or bifurcation under US GAAP.

While not discussed in detail below, debt (except some convertible instruments) is generally eligible for the fair value option under ASC 825-10-25. If the fair value option is applied, there are no bifurcation analyses to be performed. IFRS has a more limited ability to designate a debt instrument as fair value through profit and loss. See Question 2 in the “Recognition and measurement” section above for more information.

The literature references below provide a high level overview of the US GAAP literature that is applied to debt instruments (including convertible debt), along with the IFRS literature that examines the same instruments and features under guidance that is more concisely contained in IAS 32 (for equity and liability features) and IAS 39 (for embedded derivatives).
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Issuance and subsequent accounting</strong></td>
<td><strong>Issuance and subsequent accounting</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| ASC 835-30  
Debt is generally recorded at the amount of the cash proceeds (or fair value of goods or services) received. The difference between the proceeds and the face amount is treated as a premium or discount and classified as a direct addition to or deduction from the debt and amortized to interest expense using the interest method. Until ASU 2015-03 is adopted, issue costs are treated as deferred charges and also amortized to interest expense. The FASB issued ASU 2015-03 in April 2015, which amends ASC 835-30 to require debt issuance costs to be presented as a deduction from the corresponding debt liability rather than as deferred charges. The guidance is effective for PBEs for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For all other entities, it is effective for financial statements issued for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2015, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016. Early adoption is permitted. Once this guidance is adopted, there will no longer be a difference between US GAAP and IFRS. | The emphasis of IAS 32 is on the contractual rights and obligations arising from the terms of an instrument, rather than on the probability of those rights and obligations leading to an outflow of cash or other resources from the entity. Additionally, IAS 32 requires the entity of a financial instrument to classify a financial instrument by reference to its substance rather than its legal form. Transaction costs are deducted from the carrying value of the financial liability. |
| ASC 470-20  
Convertible debt is generally accounted for as a single instrument under ASC 470-20 provided the detailed analysis of the conversion feature does not indicate the need for bifurcation or other separate accounting. | IAS 32.11 defines a financial liability as any liability that is:  
| - a contractual obligation to either deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity or exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially unfavorable to the entity; or:  
- a contract that will or may be settled in the entity’s own equity instruments and is either:  
  (1) a non-derivative that does or may oblige the entity to deliver a variable number of its own equity instrument; or  
  (2) a derivative that will be or may be settled other than by exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own equity instruments.  
Under IAS 32.19, if an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual |
ASC 815-10-15-74(a) and ASC 815-40 that excludes contracts that are both indexed only to the entity’s own stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and classified in stockholders’ equity (using the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). The analysis under the indexation literature focuses on contingent exercise provisions and on settlement provisions for the conversion option. The analysis under the equity classification literature will depend on whether the instrument is considered conventionally convertible under ASC 815-40-25-39 through 25-42.

Under ASC 815, an embedded conversion option that receives an exception from derivative accounting is evaluated each reporting period to determine whether the exception remains applicable.

ASC 470-20 guidance related to cash conversion features and beneficial conversion features

If the debt instrument is convertible, and the conversion option is not bifurcated under ASC 815, then the guidance in the Cash Conversion Subtopics in ASC 470-20 is considered if the conversion can be settled entirely or partially in cash, which results in separate accounting for the liability and equity components as required in that guidance.

If a conversion option does not require bifurcation under ASC 815, and is not addressed in ASC 470-20’s Cash Conversion Subtopics, then the guidance related to beneficial conversion features under the General Subtopics of ASC 470-20 is considered to determine if the conversion feature requires separate accounting at intrinsic value in equity as a beneficial conversion feature.

ASC 480-10-S99-1 and S99-3A

A public entity that issues a debt instrument with an equity conversion feature separately accounted for in equity must consider the guidance in ASC 480-10-S99-3A for classification of all or a portion of that equity feature as temporary equity, which will depend on the settlement characteristics of the host debt instrument (i.e., if the amount due upon settlement of the debt exceeds the current liability balance for the instrument, all or a portion

obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability. A contractual obligation that is conditional on a counterparty exercising its right to redeem is a financial liability because the entity does not have the unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset.

IAS 32.28-32 discusses the concept of a compound instrument in which the non-derivative financial instrument is separated into its liability and equity components, which is often referred to as split accounting. This process also involves the identification of any embedded derivatives (other non-equity features such as prepayment features, or even equity-related features that are not equity) such as conversion options that are not “fixed-for-fixed” as discussed further in Question 9 below under IAS 39.10-13. Under IAS 39, derivatives are generally evaluated for bifurcation only at issuance.

If a debt instrument is denominated in a currency different from the entity’s functional currency, then bifurcation of the conversion option is required as it is not presumed to meet the “fixed-for-fixed” notion (which also consistent with the evaluation under the indexation literature in US GAAP).

However, provided all the other requirements for “fixed-for-fixed” are met, we believe convertible debt issued by a subsidiary that is convertible into the shares of the parent may contain an equity component in the consolidated financial statements of the parent. An entity may, as a matter of accounting policy, determine the classification in its consolidated financial statements by reference to either the subsidiary’s or the parent’s functional currency. In these circumstances, an equity component can only exist where the debt is denominated in the designated reference functional currency.

In accordance with IAS 39, financial liabilities are classified as either at fair value through profit or loss or as other financial liabilities (not explicitly defined in the standard). Financial liabilities issued by the reporting entity classified as at fair value through profit or loss would include a derivative instrument.

Financial liabilities are initially measured at fair value. However, financial liabilities not classified as at fair value through profit or loss are initially recorded at fair value less any transaction costs
of the amount classified in equity must be reclassified to temporary equity).

Subsequent measurement of financial liabilities classified as at fair value through profit or loss are measured at fair value. Transaction costs relating to those financial liabilities are recognized in profit or loss as they are incurred. All other financial liabilities are subsequently measured at amortized cost using the effective interest method, with transaction costs treated as a discount on the debt and included in the amortization.

Settlement of debt

Under ASC 405-20, debt is derecognized only when it has been extinguished, which requires that either the debtor pay the creditor and be relieved of its obligation for the liability or the debtor is legally released from being the primary obligor under the liability, either judicially or by the creditor. When debt is extinguished prior to maturity, under ASC 470-50 the difference between the reacquisition price and the net carrying amount is recognized in income. If convertible debt is extinguished, as opposed to converted, the result is the same.

Under an interpretation of ASC 470-50, if converted, or converted early, by issuing only shares in satisfaction of the conversion option, the net carrying amount of the debt is credited to the capital accounts upon conversion to reflect the shares issued and no gain or loss is recognized. However, if the conversion option was never considered substantive and conversion was triggered by the issuer calling the debt, the conversion would be accounted for as a debt extinguishment pursuant to ASC 470-20-40-5 through 40-10.

If a conversion occurs pursuant to changed conversion privileges that are exercisable for only a limited period of time and includes the issuance of all of the equity securities issuable pursuant to conversion privileges included in the terms of the debt at issuance for each debt instrument that is converted, then the induced conversion charge is determined under ASC 470-20-40-13 through 40-17.

The settlement of convertible debt under the Cash Conversion Subtopics in ASC 470-20 in all cases (extinguishment, maturity, conversion, that are directly attributable to the issuance of the financial liability.

Settlement of debt

Under IAS 39, an entity removes a financial liability (or a part of a financial liability) from its balance sheet when, and only when, it is extinguished — that is, when the obligation specified in the contract is discharged or cancelled or expires.

IFRIC 19 states that if an entity extinguishes a liability using equity instruments, and such a settlement was not in accordance with the original terms, that the equity instruments are generally measured at their fair value and treated as the consideration paid in the extinguishment transaction.

IAS 32.AG33-35 generally addresses the settlement of convertible debt.

On conversion of a convertible instrument at maturity, the entity derecognizes the liability component and recognizes it as equity. The original equity component remains as equity (although it may be transferred from one line item within equity to another). There is no gain or loss on conversion at maturity.

When an entity extinguishes a convertible instrument before maturity through an early redemption or repurchase in which the original conversion privileges are unchanged, the entity allocates the consideration paid and any transaction costs for the repurchase or redemption to the liability and equity components of the instrument at the date of the transaction. The consideration is allocated using a method consistent with that at issuance, and the amount of gain or loss relating to the liability component is recognized in profit or loss and the amount of
induced conversion, etc.) is accounted for under its extinguishment models.

consideration relating to the equity component is recognized in equity.

An entity may amend the terms of a convertible instrument to induce early conversion. The difference, at the date the terms are amended, between the fair value of the consideration the holder receives on conversion of the instrument under the revised terms and the fair value of the consideration the holder would have received under the original terms is recognized as a loss in profit or loss.

Modifications of debt

If the debtor is considered “troubled” and the debt is restructured (e.g., by transferring other assets or equity interests in settlement or partial settlement, or modifying terms of the debt), ASC 470-60 provides guidance for the issuer on how to measure and when to recognize any gain on the transaction, as well as how to account for the modified debt.

If the modification is not troubled, ASC 470-50 provides guidance on determining whether a transaction is an extinguishment (where the terms of the “old” and “new” instruments are deemed significantly different enough to warrant extinguishment accounting) or a modification (where the terms are not significantly different).

Modifications of debt

IFRS does not have a concept of a troubled debt restructuring.

IAS 39 requires that an exchange between an existing borrower and lender of debt instruments with ‘substantially different’ terms be accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability. Similarly, a substantial modification of the terms of an existing financial liability, or a part of it, (whether or not due to the financial difficulty of the debtor) should be accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability. If the exchange or modification is not considered substantially different, then debt extinguishment accounting would not apply.

Implications:

The discussion above outlines the basic approach to analyzing debt instruments. Both US GAAP and IFRS require appropriate identification of the contractual terms and features in the instrument and application of the guidance to determine if the instrument is accounted for as a single debt instrument or as pieces (components or bifurcated embedded derivatives). Questions 7 through 12 that follow illustrate some of the key concepts in the discussion above, but are not intended to be a complete listing of instruments with differences under US GAAP and IFRS accounting.

Given the significant differences in how certain features (such as equity conversion options) are treated under the US GAAP and IFRS, entities should not be surprised to find numerous instances of reclassifications or separate accounting (either split accounting or bifurcation) on adopting IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
7. Has the entity issued any debt with prepayment features?

Prepayment features are terms that can affect the timing and amount of cash flows in a debt instrument and must be evaluated for bifurcation as embedded derivatives. These are usually referred to as embedded call options (entity can call its debt from the creditor and prepay) or embedded put options (creditor can require the entity to prepay). The key to evaluating these features is determining whether they are clearly and closely related to the host debt instrument.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Embedded prepayment features are addressed in ASC 815-15-25-37 through 25-43, ASC 815-10-55-13 and 55-25, and ASC 815-10-15-107 through 15-109. The guidance for determining if bifurcation is required looks both to quantitative tests (e.g., impact of prepayment on rates of return) and qualitative considerations (e.g., contingencies that trigger a put or call).</td>
<td>IAS 39.AG30(g) requires a comparison of the exercise price of the prepayment option to the amortized cost of the host debt instrument and a determination as to whether the exercise price of the prepayment option reimburses the lender for an amount in excess of the approximate present value of interest lost over the remaining term of the host contract. If the exercise price is approximately equal to the amortized cost of the host debt instrument at each exercise date or the exercise price reimburses the lender for an amount up to the approximate present value of interest lost over the remaining term of the host contract, the feature is considered clearly and closely related and bifurcation is not required.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

The tests for "clearly and closely related" are different under US GAAP and IFRS and may result in different bifurcation conclusions.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

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9 The FASB issued ASU No. 2016-06, Derivatives and Hedging (Topic 815): Contingent Put and Call Options on Debt Instruments, clarifying that an assessment of whether an embedded contingent put or call option is clearly and closely related to the debt host requires only an analysis of the four-step decision sequence in ASC 815-15-25-42. This guidance is effective for PBEs for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those years. For other entities, the guidance is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted, including adoption in an interim period.
8. Does the entity have any debt instruments that are carried at amortized cost with premium or discount and issuance costs amortized based on the effective interest method?

In measuring a financial liability at amortized cost, both IFRS and US GAAP require the premium or discount and transaction costs to be amortized based on the effective interest rate on the instrument.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 835-30</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, the objective of the effective interest rate method under ASC 835-30-35-2 is to arrive at a periodic interest expense (including amortization) that will represent a level effective rate on the sum of the face amount of the debt plus or minus the unamortized premium or discount and deferred issuance costs at the beginning of each period. The effective interest rate is the yield implicit in the debt (that is the contractual interest rate adjusted for premium or discount and any deferred transaction costs existing at the origination of the debt) and is used to discount contractual cash payments through the contractual life of the financial liability. If the instrument includes a feature where the holder can force prepayment (a put feature), the effective interest rate method may be applied to the first put date. In the case of a debt modification that is not an extinguishment, a new effective interest rate is determined based on the carrying amount of the original debt instrument at the time of the transaction and the modified terms and cash flows. Because US GAAP focuses on contractual cash flows, no adjustments are generally necessary when expected cash flows change.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>IAS 39.47 requires that most financial liabilities be carried at amortized cost using the effective interest method. IAS 39.9 defines the effective interest rate as the rate that exactly discounts estimated future cash payments through the expected life of the financial liability (or when appropriate, a shorter period) to the net carrying amount of the instrument. When calculating the effective interest rate, an entity estimates cash flows considering all contractual terms of the financial instrument but does not consider future credit losses. The calculation includes all fees paid or received between parties to the contract that are an integral part of the effective interest rate, transaction costs, and all other premiums or discounts. If the instrument includes a prepayment feature, it should be considered in the estimated cash flows. However, if that prepayment feature is bifurcated as an embedded derivative, it is not considered to avoid double counting the effect in determining the effective interest rate. If the expected cash flows change in the future, under IAS 39.AG8, a new carrying amount is calculated by computing the present value of the revised estimated future cash flows using the instrument’s original effective interest rate. The adjustment to the carrying amount is recognized immediately in profit and loss. In the case of a modification or exchange that is not accounted for as a debt extinguishment, and when there are no changes in estimated cash flows (e.g., collateral terms or default provisions or covenants are modified), an entity continues to use the original effective interest rate with no recalculation of the carrying amount of the financial liability. However, if the estimated cash flows have changed due to a change in terms (i.e., the interest rate was changed, or life of the debt changed) but the cash flows were not changed enough to meet the 10% threshold pursuant to IAS 39.40 triggering extinguishment accounting, then we believe an entity can either...</td>
<td></td>
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(a) recalculate a new effective rate using the current carrying value of the liability and the new contractual cash flows, including any adjustments for fees or costs as required; or (b) adjust the carrying amount of the liability by computing the present value of the revised estimated cash flows using the original effective interest rate. Any adjustment would then be recognized through income or expense and additional cost or fees would be amortized over the remaining term of the modified contract. (See Question 12 below for additional discussion on modification of debt instruments.)

**Implications:**

There are significant differences between US GAAP and IFRS in terms of the application of the effective interest method. US GAAP focuses on the contractual cash flows of the financial liability while IFRS emphasizes the estimated cash flows of the instrument, which will likely result in differences in the carrying amount of the debt instrument recorded and the timing of interest expense recognition. However, if there are no reliable estimates of the expected cash flows under IFRS, the contractual cash flows are to be used. Under IFRS, the carrying amount of the liability is adjusted when estimates change to an amount calculated as the new estimated cash flows discounted back at the original effective rate. The same is not necessary under US GAAP as contractual cash flows were the basis for the effective interest method.

As a result, changes in estimated cash flows will create differences in the carrying amount recorded and the timing of the interest expense recognition under the two systems.

**Identified difference?**

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
9. Has the entity issued any convertible debt instruments that can be settled in a conversion only by delivering the full amount of shares due in exchange for the debt instrument?

Although less prevalent in recent years than convertible instruments with multiple settlement terms (e.g., Instrument B, Instrument C and Instrument X discussed in Question 11), gross share settled convertible instruments are those that provide the holder an option to convert the debt instrument into a fixed number of shares of the entity at any time or upon certain contingent events.

The economic effect of issuing such an instrument is substantially the same as simultaneously issuing debt with an early settlement provision and warrants to purchase equity shares, or issuing debt with detachable share purchase warrants that can be exercised using the debt instrument itself as consideration.

All of the features of these instruments, including the conversion option and any other potential embedded derivatives, must be evaluated for the appropriate accounting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 470-20, 815, and 815-40</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The conversion feature will be evaluated to see if it first meets the definition of a derivative under ASC 815, including consideration of the net settlement criteria. If it meets the definition in ASC 815-10-15, it is evaluated for the exception under ASC 815-10-15-74(a), and ASC 815-40 that excludes contracts that are both indexed only to the entity’s own stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and classified in stockholders’ equity (using the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). The analysis under the indexation literature focuses on contingent exercise provisions and on settlement provisions for the conversion option. The analysis under the equity classification literature will depend on whether the instrument is considered conventionally convertible under ASC 815-40-25-39 through 25-42. If the conversion option is not bifurcated from the debt host instrument, ASC 470-20 indicates that this type of convertible debt instrument is generally recorded as a single liability, with no portion of the proceeds from the issuance attributable to the conversion feature (equity). However, an entity must consider whether a beneficial conversion feature exists at inception or is created subsequently under the guidance in the General subtopics of ASC 470-20. The recognition of a beneficial conversion feature results in a credit to additional-paid-in-capital and debit to discount on the debt which will be amortized over the period to the redemption date (or perhaps the first put date).</td>
<td>Under IAS 32.28, such a convertible instrument is a compound instrument that comprises two components: a financial liability (a contractual arrangement to deliver cash or another financial asset) and an equity instrument (a call option granting the holder the right, for a specified period of time, to convert it into a fixed number of equity shares of the entity). Generally, under IAS 32, a conversion option in a convertible bond is bifurcated and accounted for by the entity as a derivative, rather than an equity component, if: it can be settled net, in shares or cash, at the option of either party; the conversion ratio is not fixed; or, the bond is denominated in a currency other than the functional currency of the entity. Provided that the conversion feature is characterized with a “fixed-for-fixed” notion as required in IAS 32.22 and meets the other characteristics of equity, it would not be considered an embedded derivative requiring bifurcation. Therefore, upon initial recognition of the instrument, the entity is required to apply split accounting and separately account for the liability and equity components of the convertible instrument. The entity is required to determine the fair value of the liability component (fair value of a similar liability that does not have an associated equity conversion feature, but including any embedded non-equity derivative features). The allocated value of the equity component represents the residual difference between the issuance...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Any remaining potential embedded derivatives would also be evaluated for bifurcation. The proceeds and amount allocated to the liability component. The liability and equity components are presented separately on its balance sheet. Any remaining potential embedded derivatives are also evaluated for bifurcation.

**Implications:**

Significant differences exist between US GAAP and IFRS relating to the accounting for gross settled convertible debt instruments. Specifically, under US GAAP, the instrument is likely recorded as a liability in its entirety, while under IFRS, the instrument is split between a liability and an equity component. This split results in additional interest expense being recorded under IFRS as the liability is accreted to its maturity value. This difference may be partially negated if a beneficial conversion option is recognized under US GAAP, which would result in a discount to be amortized.

Note that there are differences in measuring any conversion option features that require separate accounting. Under both US GAAP and IFRS, a bifurcated derivative is initially measured at fair value, with the remaining proceeds allocated to the host instrument. However, under US GAAP a beneficial conversion feature is separated at intrinsic value, while under IFRS, the equity component of the compound instrument is split out at a residual value after allocating the fair value to the liability component.

**Identified difference?**

Describe: Click here to enter text.

**10. Has the reporting entity settled a gross share settled convertible instrument?**

The conversion accounting for these instruments can vary based on the timing and cause of the conversion. This discussion assumes the conversion was not bifurcated as an embedded derivative under either US GAAP or IFRS.

**US GAAP — 470-20**

ASC 470-20 requires this gross share settled convertible instrument to be accounted for as a single instrument on the balance sheet with no portion of the proceeds allocated to equity. Generally, when such a convertible instrument is converted to equity in accordance with the original terms of the instrument, no gain or loss is recognized under ASC 470-20-40-4.

ASC 470-20-40-13 through 40-17 provides guidance on recognizing a loss when conversion has been induced as defined in the guidance. However, a gross share settled instrument may become convertible into the debtor’s equity upon the debtor’s exercise of a call option when the

**IFRS — IAS 32**

Under IFRS, upon initial recognition of a gross share settled convertible instrument, the entity separately accounts for the liability and equity components of the convertible instrument under split accounting.

On conversion of a gross share settled convertible instrument at maturity, IAS 32.AG32 requires the entity to derecognize the liability component and recognize it as equity. There is no gain or loss on conversion at maturity. We believe the same is true for an early conversion of such an instrument under the original terms.

Upon an early redemption or repurchase of the convertible debt in which the original conversion
debt did not otherwise contain a substantive conversion feature as of its issuance date. Upon such an exercise, debt extinguishment accounting applies under ASC 470-20-40-5 through 40-10. Any difference between the fair value of the equity shares delivered and the carrying amount of the debt instrument is recognized as gain or loss.

Additionally, in the event a gross share settled convertible instrument includes a beneficial conversion option that is recognized at inception or subsequently, upon conversion, any unamortized discount related to either an initial discount or a beneficial conversion feature is recognized immediately as interest expense under ASC 470-20-40-1.

privileges are unchanged, IAS 32.AG33 requires the entity to allocate any consideration paid (and related transaction costs) to the liability and equity components of the instrument at the date of the transaction.

If there is an early conversion pursuant to amended terms of the convertible instrument to induce conversion, IAS 32.AG35 provides limited guidance on recognizing a loss for the fair value of the consideration in excess of the consideration provided for in the original terms.

### Implications:

While under both US GAAP and IFRS a gain or loss is generally not recorded upon the conversion of a gross share settled convertible debt instrument under its original terms, there are certain circumstances where a gain or loss may result under US GAAP. The reason for this difference is primarily attributable to the specific guidance under US GAAP with respect to accounting for beneficial conversion features and nonsubstantive conversion features as defined under ASC 470-20-40-5 through 40-10. Similar guidance does not exist under IFRS.

For a settlement transaction where the investor has been induced to convert the debt early, there is more guidance in US GAAP defining what constitutes an “induced conversion,” but those transactions generally receive the same accounting under US GAAP and IFRS.

### Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.
11. Has the entity issued any convertible debt instruments that are settled in conversion using a method other than gross physical settlement? Do any convertible instruments offer multiple settlement alternatives?

EITF 90-19, *Debtor’s Accounting for a Modification or Exchange of Debt Instruments*, which was not codified, identified several types of convertible instruments. These categorizations are useful in understanding the accounting differences between US GAAP and IFRS for such instruments.

**Instrument A:** Upon conversion, the entity must satisfy the obligation entirely in cash based on the fixed number of shares multiplied by the stock price on the date of conversion (the conversion value).

**Instrument B:** Upon conversion, the entity may satisfy the entire obligation in either stock or cash equivalent to the conversion value.

**Instrument C:** Upon conversion, the entity must satisfy the accreted value of the obligation (the amount accrued to the benefit of the holder exclusive of the conversion spread) in cash and may satisfy the conversion spread (the excess conversion value over the accreted value) in either cash or stock.

**Instrument X:** Upon conversion, the entity may satisfy the entire conversion obligation in all cash, all shares, or any combination thereof.

As the conversion option in Instrument A is cash settled, it is bifurcated under both IFRS and US GAAP, resulting in no difference between the two standards. The other instruments, with their settlement options, must be further analyzed under both US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815, 470-20 (Cash Conversion Subtopics), and 815-40</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The conversion feature will be evaluated to see if it first meets the definition of a derivative under ASC 815, including consideration of the net settlement criteria. If it meets the definition in ASC 815-10-15, it is evaluated for the exception under ASC 815-10-15-74(a) and ASC 815-40 that excludes contracts that are both indexed only to the entity’s own stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and classified in stockholders’ equity (using the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). The analysis under the indexation literature focuses on contingent exercise provisions and on settlement provisions for the conversion option. The equity classification literature is applied in a manner given that the instrument is not conventional convertible debt under ASC 815-40-25-41. If the conversion option is not bifurcated, the guidance in the Cash Conversion Subtopics of ASC 470-20 requires convertible debt instruments that may be entirely or partially settled in cash upon conversion (Instruments B, C and X), to receive accounting similar to the</td>
<td>IAS 32.28 requires liability and equity components of compound financial instruments to be separately recorded. A convertible instrument is a compound instrument that would be subject to the split accounting under IAS 32, provided that the embedded conversion option is not a derivative requiring bifurcation. However, IAS 32.16 requires a derivative with two or more settlement options to be treated as a financial asset or a financial liability unless all possible settlement alternatives would result in it being equity. The conversion rights in these instruments contain a settlement alternative that does not result in it being equity (as the entity has an alternative to settle net in cash or shares). This means that the equity component of a convertible instrument with an entity’s cash settlement option is not equity, but rather a derivative that requires bifurcation and separate accounting from the host debt instrument.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IFRS model for a compound instrument. Separation is achieved by measuring the fair value of a similar liability that does not have an associated equity component, allocating that amount to the liability component, and allocating the residual proceeds to the equity component. The separate accounting model under ASC 470-20’s Cash Conversion Subtopics results in interest expense equal to the entity’s nonconvertible debt borrowing rate due to the accretion of the discount on the liability component from the separation of the equity component.

Any remaining potential embedded derivatives would also be evaluated for bifurcation. If bifurcation is required, the fair value allocated to the liability includes the value associated with that derivative feature, which is then bifurcated from the liability component.

**Implications:**

Many convertible instruments contain provisions whereby, if the holder exercises the conversion option, the entity may settle in either cash, shares, or any combination thereof. These convertible instruments will be subject to bifurcation under IAS 39 rather than split accounting under IAS 32. That is because of the differences between IFRS and US GAAP when it comes to the existence of settlement alternatives. The entity will find that these convertible debt instruments that were presented with separate accounting under US GAAP will likely require bifurcation into debt and derivative components under IFRS.

Thus, under IFRS, the bifurcated conversion option derivative must be accounted for at fair value with changes in value included in profit or loss. As a result, under IFRS, these financial instruments will result in greater volatility in the entity’s financial statements.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
12. Has the entity modified or exchanged debt instruments during the period?

An entity may approach creditors to modify or restructure its debt instruments for a number of reasons, including circumstances when the entity has experienced financial difficulties, desires changes to covenants, or desires changes in the availability of funding. Such changes to the terms of debt can be effected in a number of ways, including a notional repayment of the original loan followed by an immediate re-lending of all or part of the proceeds of the notional repayment as a new loan (“exchange”) or legal amendment of the original loan agreement (“modification”).

**US GAAP — 470-50 and 470-60**

Certain modifications or exchange transactions for debt instruments may be considered troubled debt restructurings under the guidance in ASC 470-60-55-4 through 55-14 that are then subject to ASC 470-60. Pursuant to ASC 470-60, a debtor is generally required to account for the effects of the troubled debt restructuring prospectively although the restructuring may result in a gain in certain circumstances.

All other modifications or exchanges are evaluated and accounted for under ASC 470-50, which requires the entity to determine whether or not such modifications or exchanges are to be accounted for as a debt extinguishment. The determination of whether or not a debt extinguishment occurs is primarily based on whether such a modification or an exchange is considered substantial. There are specific criteria in ASC 470-50-40-10 through 40-12 related to calculating changes in the present value of cash flows and changes in fair value of conversion options relative to a 10% threshold that a debtor evaluates in order to determine whether a substantial modification or exchange occurs. Substantial modification or exchange results in debt extinguishment accounting while a non-substantial modification or exchange does not, and the resulting accounting implications are different.

A modification or exchange that is considered substantial is accounted for as a debt extinguishment, which can result in a gain or loss. Fees paid to or received from the creditor are included in the determination of the gain or loss. Costs paid to third parties are considered to be associated with the new debt and amortized over the term of the new debt.

A modification or exchange that is not considered substantial is deemed to be a modification and

**IFRS — IAS 39**

IFRS does not provide guidance specific to troubled debt restructuring.

IAS 39.40 requires an exchange between an existing borrower and lender of debt instruments with substantially different terms to be accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability. Similarly, a substantial modification of the terms of an existing financial liability, or a part of it, (whether or not due to the financial difficulty of the debtor) is accounted for as an extinguishment of the original financial liability and the recognition of a new financial liability. If the exchange or modification is not considered substantially different, then debt extinguishment accounting does not apply and the effective interest method is applied using the modified cash flows.

IAS 39.AG62 does not provide very detailed guidance on how to calculate the change in cash flows for determining whether they are substantially different, but does require a similar 10% threshold.

If an exchange of debt instruments or modification of terms is accounted for as an extinguishment of the original debt, IAS 39.AG62 requires any fees and costs incurred to be recognized as part of the gain or loss on the extinguishment. However, if the exchange or modification is accounted for as a modification, any fees and costs incurred are an adjustment to the carrying amount of the liability and amortized over the remaining term of the modified liability. (See Question 8 above for discussion of the application of the effective interest method depending on whether the debt instrument was deemed extinguished or modified.)
accounted for prospectively by determining a new effective interest rate based on the carrying amount of the original debt instrument, reflecting the modified terms. Fees paid to or received from the creditor are combined with the existing net carrying amount and amortized over the term of the modified debt. Costs paid to third parties are expensed as incurred.

ASC 470-50 also provides specific guidance when a modification or exchange involves a third-party intermediary such as an investment banker. The accounting analysis may vary depending on whether such intermediary is considered an agent or a principal.

**Implications:**

US GAAP provides more specific guidance for modification or exchange transactions (including troubled debt restructurings) than IFRS, but the approach for determining whether a modification or exchange is considered an extinguishment or modification is generally consistent, focusing on present values of cash flows. However, unlike US GAAP, we believe that under IFRS, changes to debt may be so fundamental that they require extinguishment accounting, even if the effect on cash flows is less than the 10% threshold, as further discussed in our International GAAP® publication.

IAS 39 does not provide specific accounting for restructurings considered to be “troubled debt restructurings.” Accordingly, to the extent the reporting entity has experienced a troubled debt restructuring under ASC 470-60, a potentially significant difference may exist.

It is generally believed that the concepts of fees and costs are consistent between US GAAP and IFRS, with “fees” transacted with the creditor and “costs” transacted with third parties. However, IAS 39 does not differentiate between the two in the modification/extinguishment accounting discussion. That is, under IFRS, fees and costs receive the same accounting in a transaction, whereas under US GAAP fees and costs are treated differently. As a result, fees are treated the same under IFRS and US GAAP (both expense fees in extinguishments and capitalize fees in modifications) but costs are treated differently (for an extinguishment, costs are considered in the gain or loss on the old debt for IFRS but capitalized with the new debt under US GAAP; for a modification, costs are capitalized with the old debt for IFRS but expensed under US GAAP).

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
| 13. Has the entity issued equity derivatives? For example, has it entered into forward contracts requiring it and the counterparty to transact in the entity's shares in the future? Has the entity entered into option contracts that will allow one of the parties the right to require the other party to transact in the entity's shares in the future? | Yes | No |

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, traditional equity derivatives in the form of forward and option contracts will be classified in their entirety as either assets/liabilities (assets in the case of certain forward contracts, depending on their value, and purchased options) or equity. For those classified as assets/liabilities, the contracts will either be recorded at fair value throughout their life with changes in earnings, or in the case of some liabilities, at the present value of the future cash obligation. However, for contracts accounted for as liabilities, US GAAP and IFRS can arrive at a different measurement basis (e.g., an instrument that is a fair value liability under US GAAP could be a present value liability under IFRS). Critical to determining the classification of the contract, and the subsequent measurement model to be applied, is how the settlement amount is determined and how the equity derivative is settled (and, if there are choices involved, who controls the choices).

Under US GAAP, ASC 480 will specifically require some instruments to be accounted for as assets/liabilities. Other instruments not addressed in that standard will be addressed under ASC 815 (including ASC 815-40). In IFRS, all instruments will be addressed in IAS 32.

In US GAAP, for those contracts that are not addressed in ASC 480, many will meet the ASC 815 definition of a derivative. Those that will not meet that definition will usually be contracts issued by nonpublic entities that allow for only gross physical settlement. Those that are derivatives will be evaluated for a potential exception to derivative accounting in ASC 815-10-15-74(a) which is granted to contracts that (1) are indexed to the entity’s stock (using the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and (2) would also be classified in shareholders’ equity (using the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40). (Note this same exception applies in evaluating an embedded equity derivative feature for bifurcation under US GAAP.) A fixed-for-fixed notion (discussed further below) applies in determining if the contract is “indexed to” the entity’s stock. IFRS states that an instrument that meets the definition of a derivative in IAS 39.9 may nonetheless be considered an equity instrument under IAS 32.16 if the derivative will be settled only by the entity exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own equity instruments. That fixed-for-fixed notion is the sole criteria under IFRS for an equity derivative to be considered equity (as opposed to the two criteria — “indexed to” and “classified in equity” — for the ASC 815-10-15-74(a) exception in US GAAP). However, under IFRS, if that now-equity instrument requires a cash payment by the entity, that cash obligation portion will be reflected as a liability even though the instrument is considered an equity instrument.
Some additional discussion of the two “fixed-for-fixed” concepts is necessary. For the ASC 815 exception in US GAAP, the indexation literature in ASC 815-40 is considered in evaluating if the equity contract is indexed to the entity’s own stock, focusing on exercise contingencies and how the settlement amount is determined. Regarding the settlement amount, for a contract to qualify as “indexed to” the entity’s own stock, the settlement amount must be based on the difference between the fair value of a fixed number of the entity’s equity shares and a fixed monetary amount or a fixed amount of a debt instrument issued by the entity. Importantly, there are explicit exceptions in the indexation literature that relax the strict “fixed-for-fixed” notion in certain instances. Both standards provide that the fixed-for-fixed criteria is not met if “fixed amount of cash or another financial asset” is in reference to (or the strike price denominated in) a currency other than the entity’s functional currency. However, IAS.32.16 provides one narrow exception to the “fixed-for-fixed” notion for a specific transaction (i.e., a rights issue) that has a fixed monetary amount (or the strike price) denominated in a foreign currency and is granted pro rata to all of an entity’s existing holders of the same class of non-derivative equity instruments (and can therefore be seen as a transaction with owners in their capacity as owners. The narrow exception does not apply to other instruments (see Question 18 below). Under IFRS, no other stated exceptions exist to the fixed-for-fixed notion (although this is a significant practice issue in terms of how strictly to interpret the IFRS notion).

Critical in the IFRS notion of fixed-for-fixed are the words “settled only,” explicitly stating that any settlement alternatives are not allowed. Under US GAAP, the fixed-for-fixed notion does not address how the instrument is settled, only how the amount is calculated. However, in US GAAP, the equity classification literature in ASC 815 is used to evaluate the second qualifying criterion (“classified in equity”) for the exception in ASC 815-10-15-74(a), and that criterion looks to settlement method. The equity classification literature allows an equity derivative with settlement alternatives to potentially be classified in equity depending on what the alternatives are and who can choose between them. Under IFRS, any choice (other than a choice among alternatives that would all be equity-qualified) renders the contract a liability contract. However, that choice can affect the measurement criteria in IFRS as either a fair value instrument or present value instrument. Another item to highlight under IFRS is that there are no detailed tests on the ability to settle in unregistered shares or having sufficient authorized and unissued shares to actually settle the instrument as there are in the equity classification literature under US GAAP.

The literature references below provide a high level overview of the US GAAP literature that is applied to “equity derivatives,” along with the IFRS literature that examines the same instruments under guidance that is more concisely contained in IAS 32 (for equity and liability instruments) and IAS 39 (for derivative instruments).

In the Questions that follow, the term “entity” relates to the company applying the guidance for its own accounting related to a potential derivative instrument on its own stock. The term “counterparty” refers to the company on the other side of the contract.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815, 480, and 815-40</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32, IAS 39</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Distinguishing liabilities from equity</strong></td>
<td>IAS 32.11 and 32.16 defines an equity instrument as one that both a) includes no contractual obligation to either deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity (the counterparty) or exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity (the counterparty) under conditions that are potentially unfavorable to the entity and b) if the instrument will or may be settled in the entity’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC 480 requires that certain freestanding financial instruments be classified as liabilities. Among those instruments are:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► A financial instrument, other than an outstanding share, that, at inception embodies an obligation to repurchase the entity’s equity shares (or is indexed to such an obligation),</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Liabilities and equity
and requires or may require the entity to settle the obligation by transferring assets

- A financial instrument that embodies an unconditional obligation, or a financial instrument other than an outstanding share that embodies an unconditional obligation, or a financial instrument other than an outstanding share that embodies a conditional obligation, that the entity must or may settle by issuing a variable number of its equity shares, if, at inception, the monetary value of the obligation is based solely or predominantly on any of: a fixed monetary amount known at inception; variations in something other than the fair value of the entity’s equity shares, or variations inversely related to changes in the fair value of the entity’s equity shares.

ASC 480 requires that forward contracts that require physical settlement by repurchase of a fixed number of the entity’s equity shares in exchange for cash be measured initially at the fair value of the shares at inception, adjusted for any consideration or unstated rights or privileges. Equity is reduced by an amount equal to the fair value of the shares at inception.

Forward contracts that require physical settlement by repurchase of a fixed number of the entity’s equity shares in exchange for cash are subsequently measured based on whether the settlement amount and date are fixed. If fixed, subsequent measurement is at the present value of the settlement amount with interest accrued at the implicit rate at inception. If not, subsequent measurement is at the amount that would be paid if settlement occurred at the reporting date, recognizing any resulting changes in that amount from the previous reporting date as interest expense.

All other financial instruments within the scope of ASC 480 are measured initially at fair value.

Evaluate whether instrument is in the scope of derivative accounting

If the instrument is not addressed by ASC 480, it is evaluated to see if it is a derivative under ASC 815. It must first meet the definition of a derivative in ASC 815-10-15, including net settlement. The instrument is then evaluated for any exceptions under ASC 815, especially in ASC 815-10-15-74(a) and ASC 815-40. That own equity instruments, it is either a non-derivative that includes no contractual obligation for the entity to deliver a variable number of its own equity instrument or a derivative that will be settled only by the entity exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own equity instruments. Under IAS 32, certain rights, options or warrants to acquire a fixed number of the entity’s own equity instruments for a fixed amount of any currency are equity instruments if the entity offers the rights, options or warrants pro rata to all of its existing owners of the same class of its own non-derivative equity instruments.

An instrument that meets the definition of a derivative under IAS 39.9 and does not meet the “fixed-for-fixed” notion in the definition of equity in IAS 32 will be a derivative. However, even equity instruments may be thought of as containing a financial liability if the entity is required to deliver cash.

In summary, IAS 32 can result in the following:

- A contract involving the sale or purchase of a fixed number of own equity instruments for a fixed amount of cash or other financial assets is an equity instrument
- A contract for the purchase by an entity of its own equity instruments, even if for a fixed amount of cash or other financial assets (and therefore an equity instrument) may give rise to a financial liability in respect of the cash or other financial assets to be paid. However, the initial recognition of the liability results in a reduction in equity and not in an expense. (That is, while there is a liability to pay cash under the contract, the contract itself is an equity instrument and is therefore not subject to periodic remeasurement to fair value).
- A contract involving the delivery or receipt of either a fixed number of own equity instruments for a variable amount of cash or other financial assets, a variable number of own equity instruments for a variable amount of cash or other financial assets, or an amount of cash or own equity instruments with a fair value equivalent to the difference between a fixed number of own equity instruments and a fixed amount of cash or other financial assets.
entails evaluating whether the instrument is indexed to the entity's own stock utilizing the indexation literature in ASC 815-40, and would be classified in shareholders' equity utilizing the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40. If the exception is not available, the instrument is classified as a derivative asset/liability and subsequently measured at fair value through earnings. If the exception is met, the contract is reflected in equity without subsequent remeasurement. However, the contract is evaluated at each reporting date to determine whether it continues to qualify for the exception.

_Evaluate indexation and equity classification literature_

If the instrument did not meet the definition of a derivative under ASC 815, then ASC 815-40 would be considered. In this case, the application is not for an exception from derivative accounting but rather to directly determine asset/liability or equity classification in its own right. An instrument not passing the criteria in the indexation literature to be “indexed to” the entity's shares is not in the scope of the equity classification literature. The indexation literature itself precludes equity classification for such an instrument. However, the indexation literature does not specify subsequent measurement guidance. Generally, we believe subsequent measurement at fair value is acceptable, but there may be other acceptable methods.

If a contract is considered indexed to the issuer's equity but fails the equity classification literature, it is then classified as asset/liability and subsequently measured at fair value through earnings.

_SEC Views_

Options written by the entity that are not captured by any of the above literature are accounted for in accordance with the SEC staff's longstanding view on written options, which requires they be classified as a liability and marked to fair value through earnings.

(i.e., a net-settled derivative contract) is a financial asset or financial liability.

A contract that allows a choice of settlement methods will be a liability contact as a result of the fixed-for-fixed-settlement-only criteria being violated for equity treatment. However as a liability, the methods of settlement and existence of choice will affect the measurement of the contract. If the contract is either a written put option (counterparty can put shares to the entity) or a forward contact to purchase shares (counterparty must sell shares to the entity), and the contract allows gross physical settlement among its alternatives, then we believe the accounting will depend on who has the choice of settlement method. If the counterparty has the choice, then the entity has no ability to avoid a contractual obligation to pay cash, and a liability for the present value of the potential cash settlement is recorded as a liability as discussed above. However, if the entity has the choice, and thus can elect a form of net settlement (net cash or net share), then that cash obligation can be avoided and the instrument is to be recorded as a derivative liability and subsequently measured at its fair value. (See also our International GAAP® publication.)
**Implications:**

The discussion above outlines the basic approach to analyzing equity derivative instruments. Both US GAAP and IFRS require appropriately identifying the contractual terms and features in the instrument and applying the guidance to determine if the instrument is accounted for as a liability (or asset in some cases) or in equity. Questions 15 through 18 that follow illustrate some of the key concepts in the discussion above, but are not intended to be an exhaustive listing of instruments with differences under US GAAP and IFRS accounting.

Given the significant differences in how settlement amounts and settlement alternatives are treated under US GAAP and IFRS, entities should not be surprised to find numerous instances of reclassifications from equity to liabilities upon adopting IFRS. Settlement alternatives that are sometimes added to allow equity classification under US GAAP will require asset/liability accounting under IFRS. For example, allowing the entity the right to choose the form of settlement is often a negotiating point and may allow the entity the ability to classify a contract as equity under US GAAP. However, the consideration of the entity’s settlement choices in IFRS may result in a different classification or perhaps a different measurement attribute. We believe the form of settlement choices and who controls that choice would affect the measurement attribute of any contract classified as a liability.

As a specific example, if a forward contract to purchase the entity’s shares has settlement options (e.g., net cash, net share, or gross physical), the contract is a financial asset or a financial liability under IFRS. If one of the settlement alternatives is to exchange its cash for shares, one would presume an entity recognizes a liability for the obligation to deliver cash under the implementation guidance to IAS 32 which, as drafted, appears to apply whether the choice of settlement rests with the entity or the counterparty. However, because the entity has the choice of settlement, there would be no obligation for it to settle gross. We assume that the IAS 32 implementation guidance is written on the presumption that the choice of settlement would normally rest with the counterparty rather than the entity. The main body of IAS 32 is clear that an equity contract gives rise to a liability for the purchase price of the shares only when the entity is obligated to purchase its own equity. Accordingly, in our view, when the choice of settlement rests only with the entity, it is acceptable to account for the contract as a derivative at fair value rather than as a liability for the cash obligation (as that obligation can be avoided under the entity’s choices).

IAS 32 states that rights, options or warrants to acquire a fixed number of the entity’s own equity instruments for a fixed amount of any currency are equity instruments if the entity offers the rights, options or warrants pro rata to all of its existing owners of the same class of its own non-derivative equity instruments. As further discussed in the Basis for Conclusions in the IAS 32 amendment, this is an “extremely narrow amendment that requires the entity to treat all of its existing owners of the same class of its non-derivative equity instruments equally.” Thus, under IFRS typical warrants and forwards sold to investors will not be considered “fixed-for-fixed” if they are denominated in a currency other than the issuer’s functional currency.

Although not highlighted in the Questions below, a current practice issue is the consideration of early termination and settlement provisions that are frequently a part of the terms of a derivative using standard International Swaps and Derivatives Association (ISDA) documentation. In a traditional ISDA-documented contract, there are several events that may be outside the control of the parties to the contract that can trigger an early termination or settlement of the ISDA. The traditional ISDA-documented contract may allow or require net settlement in those circumstances. Except for a termination that results from the liquidation of the entity (which is addressed in IAS 32.25(B)), a literal read of IFRS literature would result in asset or liability classification measured at fair value through earnings as a result of the potential net settlement. However, current practice under IFRS tends to overlook these provisions in classifying these contracts, but it is not clear what the basis in the literature is for that approach.
14. Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows it to put the entity’s own shares to the counterparty (purchased put), or call the entity’s own shares from the counterparty (purchased call)? Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows the counterparty to call the entity’s own shares from it (written call)? Is the entity a party to an equity forward contract requiring it to sell, and the counterparty to purchase, the entity’s own shares (forward sale)?

In a purchased call (put) option, the entity pays a counterparty in return for receiving the right, but not the obligation, to buy (sell) a given number of the entity’s own equity instruments from (to) the counterparty for a fixed price at a future date. In a written call option, the entity receives a payment from a counterparty for granting to the counterparty the right, but not the obligation, to buy a given number of the entity’s own equity instruments from the entity for a fixed price at a future date. In contrast, in a forward sale contract, the entity agrees to sell, and the counterparty agrees to buy (both parties are obligated to do so), a given number of the entity’s own equity instruments for a price on a determined date.

The accounting for the various forms of options and the forward listed above will generally depend on the existence of settlement alternatives. Those settlement alternatives are commonly expressed as “net cash” (the party in the loss position delivers an amount of cash equal in value to the net loss under the contract), “net share” (the party in the loss position delivers a number of shares equal in value to the net loss under the contract) or “gross physical” (one party delivers the total amount of consideration due for the strike price and the other party delivers the notional amount of shares).

US GAAP — 815, 480, and 815-40

Under US GAAP, ASC 480 is first considered when evaluating an equity contract. It does not apply to the purchased put or purchased call because these contracts do not embody any obligations. It may apply to the written call option or forward if the underlying shares are puttable back to the entity, or if the option or forward itself is puttable to the entity.

If an equity derivative is not addressed within ASC 480, it is evaluated under ASC 815 to determine whether it meets the definition of a derivative that requires mark-to-market accounting. This includes consideration of the net settlement criteria. Equity derivatives on public companies generally meet the technical definition of a derivative as the underlying shares are readily convertible to cash, as do equity derivatives on private companies that are net settleable on their face. However, these

IFRS — IAS 32

IAS 32.22 provides that a derivative potentially settled in the entity’s own shares is an equity instrument if the derivative will be settled only by the entity exchanging a fixed amount of cash or another financial asset for a fixed number of its own shares (“fixed-for-fixed”). However, if the number of shares to be issued is not a fixed number or the amount of cash or other financial assets receivable is not a fixed amount, then the contract is a financial asset or liability and not an equity instrument.

If a derivative financial instrument has settlement options that give one party the choice over how it is settled, it is equity only if all possible settlement alternatives would result in it being an equity instrument. Accordingly, in the case where a contract provides for any form of net settlement, the financial instrument should be classified as a financial asset or liability. If gross
instruments may qualify for an exception under ASC 815-10-15-74(a), and ASC 815-40 resulting in equity classification.

The exception provides that a contract must be both: (1) indexed to the entity’s own stock (considering the guidance in the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and (2) classified in stockholders’ equity (considering the guidance in the equity classification literature ASC 815-40).

The indexation literature contains a “fixed-for-fixed” concept but provides exceptions to the strict “fixed-for-fixed” rule in determining if the contract is “indexed to” the entity’s shares. Within the equity classification literature, a key consideration is how the instrument is to be settled and who has the option to elect the manner of settlement.

If the instrument did not meet the definition of a derivative under ASC 815, then ASC 815-40 (including the indexation literature and the equity classification literature) would again be considered, but in this case, the application is not for an exception from derivative accounting but rather to directly determine asset/liability or equity classification. An instrument not passing the criteria in the indexation literature to be “indexed to” the entity’s shares is not in the scope of the equity classification literature. The indexation literature itself precludes equity classification for such an instrument. However, the indexation literature does not specify subsequent measurement guidance. Generally, we believe subsequent measurement at fair value is acceptable, but there may be other acceptable methods.

If a contract is considered indexed to the issuer’s equity but fails the equity classification literature, it is then classified as asset/liability and subsequently measured at fair value through earnings.

Options written by the entity that are not captured by any of the above literature are accounted for in accordance with the SEC staff’s longstanding view on written options, which requires they be classified as a liability and marked to fair value through earnings.

physical settlement is an alternative, we believe it may have an effect on measurement of the liability depending on who holds the election.
Implications:

US GAAP and IFRS are significantly different in evaluating these freestanding equity derivatives on an entity’s own shares. Under US GAAP, if the contract requires either net share or gross physical settlement, or allows the entity a choice that includes at least one of net share or gross physical settlement (with the entity either delivering the shares or delivering the cash), then the contract is classified in equity provided the additional detailed criteria are met in ASC 815-40 (including the indexation literature and the equity classification literature). A contract that either requires net cash settlement or provides the counterparty with a choice that includes net cash settlement (with the entity either delivering the shares or delivering the cash), then the contract is classified in equity provided the additional detailed criteria are met in ASC 815-40 (including the indexation literature and the equity classification literature). A contract that either requires net cash settlement or provides the counterparty with a choice that includes net cash settlement will be an asset or liability. However, under IFRS, equity classification requires gross physical settlement only. Any form of net settlement, or any choice that includes a net settlement, would result in derivative classification as it would not meet the “fixed-for-fixed” requirement. However, the form of settlement choices and who controls that choice would affect the measurement attribute of any contract classified as a liability.

Many equity derivative instruments that had previously been classified as equity under US GAAP will be classified as derivatives under IFRS. Upon adoption, an entity will need to identify all of its outstanding equity derivatives classified as equity to evaluate whether they meet the “fixed-for-fixed” criteria to continue to be accounted for as equity. If not, they may be classified as derivatives measured at fair value with changes in fair value recorded in current profit and loss, resulting in greater volatility in earnings under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

15. Is the entity a party to an equity option contract that allows the counterparty to put the entity’s own shares back to the entity (a written put option)?

In a written put option, the entity receives a payment from a counterparty for granting to the counterparty the right, but not the obligation, to sell a given number of the entity’s own equity instruments to the entity for a fixed price at a future date.

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<th>US GAAP — 480</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 32, IAS 39</th>
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| ASC 480-10-25-8 through 25-13 precludes equity classification for a financial instrument, other than an outstanding share, that embodies, or is indexed to, an obligation to repurchase an entity’s equity shares that requires or could require settlement by the transfer of assets, as would happen in a gross physical or net cash settlement of a written put option. In addition, as the written put option changes in value opposite to that of the underlying share (that is, as the share price decreases the value of the put option increases), then even a net share settled put option is a liability under ASC 480-10-25-14. Accordingly, all written put options are classified as liabilities and are initially and subsequently measured at fair value with changes in fair value recorded in current profit and loss, resulting in greater volatility in earnings under IFRS. | Gross settled written put options are equity instruments that also give rise to a financial liability in respect of the obligation to pay the purchase or redemption price. This treatment reflects the same principle that results in a financial liability contained within a redeemable share — that is, if an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability. When the financial liability is recognized initially under IAS 32.23, its fair value (the present value of the redemption amount) is recorded as a liability (representing the entity’s obligation to
measured at fair value, with any changes recognized in earnings.

| purchase its own equity) with the offset reflected in equity. Subsequently, the financial liability is measured at amortized cost using the effective interest method in accordance with IAS 39.47. If the contract expires without delivery, the carrying amount of the financial liability is reclassified to equity.

| IAS 32 offers no guidance as to how the liability is to be calculated when the number of shares to be purchased and/or the date of purchase are not known. We believe it is consistent with the requirement of IAS 39 that liabilities with a demand feature (such as a demand bank deposit) are measured at the amount payable on demand to adopt a worst case approach. In other words, it is assumed that the purchase will take place on the earliest possible date for the maximum number of shares. This is also consistent with IAS 32’s emphasis, in the general discussion of the differences between liabilities and equity instruments, on a liability arising except to the extent that an entity has an “unconditional” right to avoid delivering cash or other financial assets.

| If a derivative financial instrument has settlement options that give one party the choice over how it is settled, it is equity only if all possible settlement alternatives would result in it being an equity instrument. Accordingly, in the case where a contract provides for any form of net settlement, the financial instrument should be classified as a financial asset or liability. If gross physical settlement is an alternative, we believe it may have an effect on measurement of the liability depending on who holds the election.

**Implications:**

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, a written put option on the entity’s own shares will result in a liability on the balance sheet. However, the measurement of that liability may differ. As more fully described in Questions 13 and 14, we believe the form of settlement choices and who controls that choice would affect the measurement attribute of any contract classified as a liability.

Under US GAAP, for all written put options, including a gross settled written put, the liability is measured initially and subsequently at fair value with any changes recognized in earnings.

Under IFRS, if gross settlement is required or one of several alternatives at the option of the counterparty, the present value of the potential payable based on the first possible redemption date is initially recorded and accreted as interest expense through the first possible redemption date. Under IFRS, this leads to a different accounting treatment for written American put options (i.e., those that can be exercised at any time during a period ending on a future date) and written European put options (i.e., those that can be exercised only at a given future date). In the case of
an American option, a liability would be recorded immediately for the full potential liability. In the case of a European option, a liability would be recorded for the net present value of the full potential liability and interest accrued on that liability until the date of potential exercise.

For written put options requiring net settlement under IFRS, the instruments are accounted for initially and subsequently at fair value. That same is true for written put options with a choice of gross physical settlement at the option of the entity because the entity could avoid the gross cash obligation under the put option by not electing gross physical settlement.

Because of these differences, earnings will be different under US GAAP and IFRS, with US GAAP being the more volatile of the two.

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**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

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**16. Is the entity a party to an equity forward contract that requires it to purchase its own shares from the counterparty?**

Yes [ ] No [ ]

In a forward purchase contract, the entity agrees to buy and the counterparty agrees to sell (both parties are obligated to do so) the entity’s own equity instruments for a price on a determined date. The number of equity instruments may be fixed or variable.

The accounting for a forward contract to purchase the entity’s own shares will generally depend on the existence of settlement alternatives.

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**US GAAP — 480**

Under US GAAP, a forward to purchase the entity’s own shares will be a liability under ASC 480. For gross physically settled or net cash settled forwards, ASC 480-10-25-8 through 25-13 requires asset/liability classification. For net share settled forward purchase contracts, ASC 480-10-25-14 requires liability classification.

Forward contracts that require physical settlement by repurchase of a fixed number of the entity’s equity shares in exchange for cash are measured initially at the fair value of the shares at inception, adjusted for any consideration or unstated rights or privileges. Equity is reduced by an amount equal to the fair value of the shares at inception. These forward contracts are subsequently measured based on whether the settlement amount and date are fixed. If fixed, subsequent measurement is at the present value of the settlement amount with interest accrued at the implicit rate at inception. If not, subsequent measurement is at the amount that would be paid if settlement occurred at the reporting date, recognizing any resulting changes.

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**IFRS — IAS 32**

Gross settled forward purchase contracts are equity instruments that also give rise to a financial liability in respect of the obligation to pay the purchase or redemption price. This treatment reflects the same principle that results in a financial liability contained within a redeemable share — that is, if an entity does not have an unconditional right to avoid delivering cash or another financial asset to settle a contractual obligation, the obligation meets the definition of a financial liability.

When the financial liability is recognized initially under IAS 32.23, its fair value (the present value of the redemption amount) is recorded as a liability (representing the entity’s obligation to purchase its own equity) with the offset reflected in equity. Subsequently, the financial liability is measured at amortized cost using the effective interest method in accordance with IAS 39.47.

If a derivative financial instrument has settlement options that give one party the choice over how it is settled, it is equity only if all possible settlement alternatives would result in it being an
in that amount from the previous reporting date as interest expense.

All other forward contracts (net cash or net share settled) are measured initially and subsequently at fair value.

equity instrument. Accordingly, in the case where a contract provides for any form of net settlement, the financial instrument should be classified as a financial asset or liability. If gross physical settlement is an alternative, we believe the approach to measurement of the liability depends on who holds the election.

**Implications:**

US GAAP and IFRS are different in evaluating forward contracts to purchase the entity’s own shares.

These forward contracts will be liabilities under ASC 480, with the measurement of gross physically settled forward contracts being similar to the liability treatment of the same instruments under IFRS. However, all other forward contracts are accounted for at fair value under US GAAP with changes in fair value reflected in earnings.

Under IFRS, if gross settlement is required or one of several settlement alternatives at the option of the counterparty, the present value of the potential payable based on the first possible redemption date is initially recorded and accreted as interest expense through the settlement date.

For those forward contracts requiring net settlement under IFRS, the instruments are accounted for initially and subsequently at fair value. That same is true for forward contracts with a choice of gross physical settlement or net settlement at the option of the entity because the entity could avoid the gross cash obligation under the put option by not electing gross physical settlement. As more fully described in Questions 13 and 14, we believe the form of settlement choices and who controls that choice would affect the measurement attribute of any contract classified as a liability. Refer to our International GAAP® publication for discussion of our consideration of this alternative relative to the examples in IAS 32.

Because of these differences, earnings will be different under the two GAAPs, with US GAAP being the more volatile of the two.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**17. Has a consolidated subsidiary issued any equity derivatives (options or forwards) on its shares, or the parent entity issued any such contracts on the subsidiary’s shares?**

All the contracts described in previous Questions could likewise be issued by, or indexed to, the shares of a consolidated subsidiary.

**US GAAP — 480 and 815-40**

The application of ASC 480 is the same for instruments that are indexed to the shares of a consolidated subsidiary as ASC 480 broadly defines “equity shares” to include the equity of any consolidated subsidiary.

Under ASC 815-40-15-5C, a freestanding financial instrument (and embedded feature) for

**IFRS — IAS 32**

The requirements of IAS 32 relating to contracts over the entity’s own equity instruments generally apply in consolidated financial statements to forward and option contracts on a subsidiary’s shares.
which the payoff to the counterparty is based, in whole or in part, on the stock of a consolidated subsidiary is not precluded from being considered indexed to the entity’s own stock in the consolidated financial statements of the parent if the subsidiary is a substantive entity. Therefore these instruments would undergo essentially the same analysis under ASC 815 and its related guidance and exceptions.

**Implications:**

Generally, any differences between the accounting under US GAAP and IFRS that exist in the accounting for equity derivatives on parent entity shares will exist in the accounting for equity derivatives on subsidiary shares.

Our International GAAP® publication contains additional discussion relative to the interaction of IAS 32 and IFRS 10 on noncontrolling interests. There may be diversity in practice in certain situations related to puts and calls over noncontrolling interests due to a lack of clarity and consistency among IAS 32, IFRS 10 and IFRS 3.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

18. **Has the entity made rights issues to its existing shareholders to acquire common shares of the entity in exchange for a fixed amount denominated in a currency other than the entity’s functional currency?**

Laws or regulations in many jurisdictions throughout the world require the use of rights issues when raising capital. In the current economic environment, a number of global organizations have made rights issues to existing shareholders in order to raise additional capital. When listed in more than one jurisdiction, or, if regulatory restrictions so require, some entities have had to make the rights issue in a currency other than their functional currency.

These rights issues (including rights, options and warrants) are offered pro rata to all of the entity’s existing owners of a class of its own non-derivative instruments and entitle them to acquire a fixed number of additional shares. The exercise price is normally below the current market price of the shares.

**US GAAP — 815 and 480**

ASC 480 is first considered when evaluating a rights issue. Generally, a rights issue is not a liability under ASC 480.

If the rights issue is not addressed within ASC 480, it is evaluated under ASC 815 to determine whether it meets the definition of a derivative. In most cases, rights issues meet the

**IFRS — IAS 32**

IAS 32.11 and 32.16 defines an equity instrument as one that both: (1) includes no contractual obligation to either deliver cash or another financial asset to another entity (the counterparty) or exchange financial assets or financial liabilities with another entity (the counterparty) under conditions that are
A definition of a derivative in ASC 815-10-15 as they meet the net settlement criteria since the underlying shares are traded on exchanges. The scope exception in ASC 815-10-15-74(a) and ASC 815-40 is then applied, which provides that a contract may be classified as equity, not a derivative, if it is both: (1) indexed to the entity’s own stock (considering the guidance in the indexation literature in ASC 815-40) and (2) classified in stockholders’ equity (considering the guidance in the equity classification literature in ASC 815-40).

The indexation literature specifically precludes a contract from meeting the “fixed-for-fixed” criteria if the “fixed monetary amount” is in reference to (or the strike price denominated in) a currency other than the entity’s functional currency. Thus, a rights issue denominated in a currency other than the entity’s own functional currency would not be considered “indexed to” the entity’s own stock. As such, the rights issue must be accounted for as a derivative liability measured at fair value with changes in its fair value recognized in earnings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>US GAAP and IFRS are significantly different in evaluating rights issues denominated in a currency other than the entity’s functional currency. Under US GAAP, these rights issues would be recorded as derivative liabilities subject to fair value remeasurement in earnings. Because these are usually relatively large transactions, they could have a substantial effect on entities’ financial statement amounts under US GAAP. However, under IFRS, they are classified as equity instrument with no subsequent remeasurement required, resulting in no volatility in earnings.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tr>
<td>Describe:</td>
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<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
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</table>
Derivatives and hedging

Similarities:
Both US GAAP and IFRS require derivatives to be accounted for at fair value, with changes in fair value recorded through profit and loss. And both US GAAP and IFRS provide guidance for when derivatives can qualify as hedging instruments and qualify for special hedge accounting. ASC 815, *Derivatives and Hedging*, contains the US GAAP guidance for derivatives and hedging, while the IFRS guidance for derivatives and hedging is contained in IAS 39, *Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement*. ASC 815 and IAS 39 are very similar in principle, and IAS 39 was specifically written in the image of ASC 815, albeit with some purposeful differences inserted. In addition to the purposeful differences, in practice, other differences will arise given the substantially greater breadth of the US GAAP literature.

Under both standards, the definition of a derivative is similar in that both standards require certain contractual characteristics to be present for a contract to be accounted for as a derivative. Yet a notable difference exists with regard to the settlement provisions. IAS 39 requires settlement at a future date, whereas ASC 815 emphasizes the characteristic of *net settlement*, which is not as common a characteristic. Both standards also provide a number of very similar scope exceptions to certain contracts that otherwise have all the required characteristics of a derivative. For example, many fixed-price commodity contracts that represent normal purchases and/or normal sales for an entity are exempt from the scope of both ASC 815 and IAS 39 (i.e., exempt from being accounted for on the balance sheet at fair value), although under ASC 815, this scope exception is an election.

ASC 815 and IAS 39 also provide the same basic guidance for when an embedded derivative is required to be separated from a host contract and accounted for separately. The guidance under both standards requires bifurcation if the economic characteristics and risks of the embedded derivative are not closely related to the economic characteristics and risks of the host contract. However, the two standards apply the "closely related" principle differently in some circumstances and hence may not always reach the same conclusion.

Hedge accounting is permitted by both standards for fair value, cash flow and net investment hedge relationships. Many aspects of the hedge accounting rules, in particular the documentation and initial and ongoing hedge effectiveness assessment, are similar under US GAAP and IFRS. The hedged item needs to be exposed to the specific risk that an entity has chosen to hedge, and the hedged risk must be one that could affect profit or loss. The hedged item can be a single or group of recognized assets or liabilities, unrecognized firm commitments, highly probable forecast transactions, net investments in foreign operations with similar risk characteristics, or a portion of a portfolio of financial assets or financial liabilities that share the risk being hedged. All derivatives, including separable embedded derivatives, can qualify as hedging instruments, with some limitations. Similarly under both standards, hedge accounting would be discontinued prospectively if: (1) the hedger elects to terminate the hedge relationship (de-designation); (2) the hedged transaction is no longer highly probable, (3) the hedged item is derecognized, (4) the hedging instrument expires, is terminated, sold or exercised, or (5) the hedge is no longer highly effective.

Detailed disclosures with regard to derivatives and hedging activities are required by both standards. For US GAAP, these disclosure requirements are provided in ASC 815, while for IFRS these disclosure requirements are primarily provided in IFRS 7.

Fair value is the measurement basis for all financial instruments meeting the definition of a derivative. ASC 820 and IFRS 13 both provide a framework for measuring fair value that is applicable under the various accounting topics that require (or permit) fair value measurements in US GAAP and IFRS, respectively. Accordingly, the measurement of fair value across US GAAP and IFRS is generally based on a single definition and a consistent framework for the application of that definition. Although the principles of measuring fair value are virtually identical between US GAAP and IFRS, there are certain differences. IFRS adopters should consider the differences noted in the "Fair value measurements" section of this publication.
Convergence:

**IFRS 9** introduces a substantial overhaul of the hedge accounting model that aligns the accounting treatment with risk management activities. The aim of the new standard is to allow entities to better reflect these activities in their financial statements and provide users of the financial statements with better information about risk management and the effect of hedge accounting on the financial statements. The IASB continues to deliberate issues pertaining to accounting for macro hedging, with an objective to address risk management strategies for open portfolios. It issued a Discussion Paper in the first half of 2014 and discussed feedback in the first half of 2015. The IASB is expected to continue its discussions on the project at future meetings. In September 2016, the FASB issued an exposure draft to make certain targeted improvements to its hedge accounting model in an effort to make the accounting easier for companies to apply and for users of the financial statements to understand.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

A first-time adopter is required to account for all derivatives in its opening IFRS balance sheet as assets or liabilities measured at fair value. It is important to note that under IFRS all derivatives, other than those that are designated and effective hedging instruments, are classified as held for trading. As a result, such instruments must be measured at fair value with changes in fair value recognized in income each period.

A first-time adopter is not permitted to designate hedges retrospectively in relation to transactions entered into before the date of transition to IFRS. This requirement is to prevent an entity from reflecting hedge relationships in its opening balance sheet that it did not identify as such under the entity’s previous GAAP. Further, the implementation guidance to IFRS 1 explains that hedge accounting can be applied prospectively only from the date the hedge relationship is fully designated and documented. Therefore, if the hedging instrument is still held at the date of transition to IFRS, the designation and documentation of a hedge relationship under IAS 39 must be completed on or before that date if the hedge relationship is to qualify for hedge accounting on an ongoing basis from that date. For comparative financial statements, that designation and documentation must be present as of the first day of the first year that is presented on a comparative basis. Accordingly, an entity currently following US GAAP and anticipating a conversion to IFRS may need to run parallel hedge designations, one for US GAAP and one for IFRS, in the years leading up to the formal transition date.

IFRS 1 provides that a hedge relationship should be reflected in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet if the hedge has been accounted for as a hedge relationship under the previous GAAP and the hedge relationship is a type that is eligible under IAS 39. Therefore, as long as a hedge relationship can be specifically identified under US GAAP and that hedge relationship would be a type that qualifies for hedge accounting under IFRS, then the first-time adopter must account for the hedge relationship and recognize the hedging instrument in its opening IFRS balance sheet. This opening
IFRS balance sheet treatment applies even if an entity does not desire to pursue qualification for hedge accounting subsequently under IFRS, and even if the pre-existing documentation is US GAAP-compliant but not IFRS-compliant.

Subsequently however, in order for a first-time adopter to continue to apply hedge accounting subsequent to the transition date, all of the documentation, effectiveness and designation requirements of hedge accounting under IAS 39 must be satisfied on or before transition date. In some cases, the US GAAP-compliant requirements would also be IFRS-compliant without any necessary changes. In other cases, an entity may find it necessary to make changes to comply with IAS 39 or may simply voluntarily make changes prospectively to take advantage of additional flexibility under IAS 39. If the hedge relationship does not meet all of the documentation, effectiveness, and designation requirements in IAS 39 prospectively, then hedge accounting must be discontinued immediately upon transition. In a few cases, an entity might decide voluntarily to not pursue hedge accounting under IAS 39, and should therefore formally de-designate the hedge relationship that had previously existed under US GAAP.

Derivatives and hedging

Section 1: Definition and scope

1. **Does the reporting entity have a potential derivative with no notional amount?**

   A notional amount can be defined as a number of currency units, shares, bushels, pounds or other units specified in an instrument. The definition of a derivative under US GAAP requires a notional amount; however, IFRS does not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-83(a)(2) and 15-92 through 15-93; 55-5 through 55-7</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.9, AG9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The US GAAP definition of a derivative requires the existence of a notional amount or a payment provision or both. The settlement of a derivative with a notional amount is determined by interaction of that notional amount with the underlying. A payment provision specifies a fixed or determinable settlement to be made if the underlying behaves in a specified manner. In circumstances in which the notional amount is not determinable, making the quantification of such an amount highly subjective and relatively unreliable, such contracts are considered not to contain a notional amount and are not accounted for as derivatives under ASC 815.</td>
<td>A derivative under IAS 39 is a financial instrument or other contract for which the fair value changes in response to the change in an underlying, requires no initial net investment and is settled at a future date. The IFRS definition of a derivative does not include a requirement that a notional amount be indicated. IAS 39 describes contracts with payment provisions if an underlying moves in a particular way as an example of a contract without a notional amount that is also a derivative.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

A financial instrument or other contract that does not have a notional amount may meet the definition of a derivative under IFRS. For example, “requirements contracts” as discussed in ASC 815-10-55-5 through 55-7 may not meet the definition of a derivative under US GAAP but would under IFRS. (A requirements contract does not specify a fixed number of units to be bought or sold, but rather, as many units as may be required to satisfy a party’s actual utilization or consumption needs.) Many contracts, particularly in commodity-based industries such as energy, rely on the guidance in ASC 815-10-55-5 through 55-7 to determine when to exclude certain
contracts from the derivative definition. Overall, more contracts may meet the definition of a derivative under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**  
Click here to enter text.

**Yes** ☐  **No** ☐  **Depends on policy election** ☐

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Considering the fact that the definition of a derivative under IFRS is broader than the definition under US GAAP, it is likely that contracts that were previously accounted for as derivatives under ASC 815 will continue to be accounted for as derivatives and measured at fair value under IAS 39. Upon adoption, these previously accounted for derivatives will be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet and carried at fair value, resulting in no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. Contracts that had not been accounted for as derivatives under US GAAP, but that would qualify as derivatives under IFRS, will be measured at fair value in the opening IFRS balance sheet. The effect of retrospective application of derivative accounting for these contracts should result in adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet.

Entities adopting IFRS that were parties to requirements contracts accounted for in accordance with ASC 815-10-55-5 through 55-7 should consider the differences in the definition of a derivative and contemplate the financial statement effect when entering into future contracts. Any instruments that were not derivatives under US GAAP but would be under IFRS will need to be documented and designated upon transition if the entity desires to attempt hedge accounting under IFRS.

2. **Does the reporting entity hold potential derivatives that are not capable of “net settlement”?**

A “net settlement” is a one-way transfer of an asset, usually cash, from the counterparty in a loss position to the counterparty in a gain position. (In a “gross settlement,” there is a two-way exchange where one party typically delivers cash or cash equivalent, and the other party delivers an underlying asset.) When a contract requires “net settlement,” neither party is required to deliver the underlying asset equal to the notional amount of the contract to the other party. For example, in an interest rate swap, one counterparty pays a stream of fixed rate cash flows in exchange for a stream of floating cash flows from the other party. The exchange of cash flows occurs periodically (e.g., monthly or quarterly), and typically one counterparty pays or receives a net cash amount each period based on the difference between the fixed and floating cash flows. The notional amount is generally not exchanged between counterparties, but is used only for calculating the size of cash flows to be exchanged.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-83(c) and 15-99 through 15-139</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Net settlement is an essential characteristic of a derivative. To be a derivative, the contract must either explicitly permit net settlement or put the receiving party in a position that is essentially equivalent to net settlement. ASC 815 provides three ways that the net settlement criteria can be satisfied:</td>
<td>Net settlement is not a requirement (neither is it prohibited) for a contract to meet the definition of a derivative. The definition of a derivative under IFRS does not depend on the distinction between gross or net settlement. However, IFRS includes a “settlement at a future date” as one characteristic in the definition of a derivative.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Net settlement through the contractual terms themselves
Existence of a market mechanism that facilitates net settlement outside the contract
The contract requires delivery of an asset that is readily convertible to cash (a gross settlement that is economically equivalent to a net settlement)

Implications:

More instruments (e.g., forward or option contracts on certain nonpublic equity stocks that can be only gross settled in the future) will be classified as derivatives under IFRS. This seemingly subtle difference in the definition of a derivative between two standards might result in a significant measurement difference for instruments that call for the delivery of an asset that is not readily convertible to cash, because IFRS may view them as derivatives. Option or forward contracts on non-financial assets or liabilities or instruments on nonpublic equity stocks that can only be settled gross in the future are generally scoped out of ASC 815 and not accounted for as derivatives because they are not readily convertible to cash and as such fail the net settlement requirement. These contracts are not required to be measured at fair value under US GAAP. Under IFRS, however, they may be accounted for as derivatives and reported at fair value on the balance sheet, with changes in fair value recorded in current earnings. (Note however that IAS 39.46(c) requires that derivatives that are linked to and must be settled by delivery of equity instruments that do not have a quoted market price in an active market and whose fair value cannot be reliably measured shall be measured at cost.) Since more financial instruments will be accounted for as derivatives under IFRS, entities may desire to utilize them as hedging instruments under IFRS. Many of the commodity contracts that otherwise meet the definition of a derivative under IFRS but not US GAAP will be immediately exempted from derivatives accounting based on the “own use” exception addressed in Question 3.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Considering the fact that the definition of a derivative under IFRS is broader than the definition under US GAAP, it is likely that contracts that were previously accounted for as derivatives under ASC 815 will continue to be accounted for as derivatives and measured at fair value under IAS 39. Upon adoption, these previously accounted for derivatives will be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet and carried at fair value, resulting in no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. Contracts that had not been accounted for as derivatives under US GAAP, but that would qualify as derivatives under IFRS, will be measured at fair value in the opening IFRS balance sheet. The effect of retrospective application of derivative accounting for these contracts should result in adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. Many entities will want to designate these derivatives as cash flow hedges going forward under IFRS if they do not constitute “own use” contracts exempt from IAS 39.
3. Does the entity hold any potential derivative contracts that qualify for the normal purchase and normal sale scope exception in ASC 815?

Yes □ No □

Normal purchases and normal sales (NPNS) are contracts that provide for the purchase or sale of something other than a financial instrument or derivative instrument that will be physically delivered in quantities expected to be used or sold by the reporting entity over a reasonable period in the normal course of business. While both US GAAP and IFRS provide an exemption from derivative treatment for items that meet the definition of a NPNS or “own use”, differences exist due to differences in the definitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-13(b) and 15-22 through 15-51</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.5 through 7, AG10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If a contract qualifies for the NPNS exception, such scope exception is elective. Documentation is required if elected. Contracts with volumetric optionality, even if intended to be physically settled, do not qualify for the NPNS exception. The FASB reasoned that option contracts only contingently provide for a purchase or sale since exercise of an option contract is not assured, and therefore an entity cannot determine at contract inception that it will be probable that physical delivery will result. Accordingly, option contracts in which the quantities to be delivered are not fixed cannot qualify for the NPNS exception. Contracts with fixed quantities but optional pricing features may qualify for the NPNS exception, however.</td>
<td>“Own use” contracts (the IFRS term for what US GAAP calls NPNS contracts) are those to buy or sell non-financial items that can be settled net as long as they were entered into and continue to be held for the purpose of the receipt or delivery of the non-financial item in accordance with the entity’s expected purchase, sale, or usage requirements. The “own use” scope exception is not elective. If a contract meets the “own use” requirements, it is not accounted for as a derivative. “Own use” contracts may be purchased options or contracts that include volumetric optionality; however, written options cannot be “own use” contracts.</td>
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</table>

Implications:

To qualify for the NPNS exception under US GAAP, the contract must be probable of physical settlement (no net settlement), be for normal quantities and time periods based on the operations of the entity, have clearly and closely related pricing terms and have fixed contracted quantities. ASC 815-10-15-45 through 15-51 also allows power purchase or sales capacity contracts, which might otherwise be considered option contracts ineligible for the NPNS exception, to qualify as NPNS if certain criteria are met. Qualification also requires documentation of the contract as a NPNS, including the basis for concluding that it meets the criteria. Under IFRS the practice of settling net or taking delivery and selling it within a short period of time for the purpose of generating a profit from short-term fluctuations in price or dealer’s margin would indicate that the contracts should be accounted for as derivatives (including power capacity contracts). Freestanding option contracts are not eligible to be considered NPNS under US GAAP, but could be exempt as “own use” contracts under IAS 39 (unless they are written options).

ASC 815-10-15-37 through 15-39 clarifies that due to the documentation requirement, the normal purchase/normal sale exception is an election. In some cases under US GAAP, entities with contracts that qualify for the NPNS exception do not wish to use the exception, because they prefer derivatives accounting for a variety of reasons. Those companies simply choose not to document such contracts as NPNS. However in most cases, entities want to use the NPNS exception. Once the election is made, the decision cannot be reversed (although a change in the probability that the contract will be physically settled would render the exemption no longer appropriate).
Under IAS 39, the “own use” exception is not an election. A contract meeting the “own use” requirements is outside the scope of IAS 39 and should be accounted for as an executory contract. Like US GAAP, if a contract is entered into with the intent to use but subsequently it is determined that it will be net settled, the contract should be accounted for as a derivative prospectively. However, if a contract is originally accounted for as a derivative under IAS 39 and it is subsequently determined that it will be physically settled, the contract should continue to be accounted for as a derivative because it was not entered into with the intent of being held for “own use.”

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon initial adoption, entities will need to identify all financial instruments and contracts that fall within the scope of IAS 39 and apply the provisions of that standard as if IFRS had always been in place. Entities that elected not to use the NPNS scope exception from ASC 815 must determine if those contracts would have qualified for the required scope exception from IAS 39. If they would have qualified, they should not appear in the opening IFRS balance sheet, and retained earnings should be adjusted accordingly. In addition, contracts that did not qualify for the NPNS exception under ASC 815 (such as option contracts and forward contracts with volumetric optionality) will need to be evaluated to determine if they would have met the required “own use” exception requirements in IAS 39. If they would have been considered “own use,” then these contracts should also not appear in the opening IFRS balance sheet. Contracts that are outside the scope of IAS 39 would be accounted for under other appropriate IFRS literature. Utilities may have special issues in transition. There is extensive, specialized guidance for utility capacity contracts in US GAAP (ASC 815-10-15-45 through 15-51) that is absent in IFRS.

4. **Does the entity have any contracts that do not qualify for the normal purchase normal sale exemption because the price in the contract is based on an underlying that is not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased?**

Both US GAAP and IFRS limit the use of the normal purchase and normal sale (NPNS) or “own use” exception if the price in the contract is based on an underlying that is extraneous. However, the accounting implications for a contract with a price based on an unrelated underlying are different under each standard.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contracts that have a price based on an underlying that is not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased are not considered normal purchases and normal sales and are accounted for as derivatives.</td>
<td>The component of a contract that is not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased may represent an embedded derivative that requires bifurcation. The embedded derivative is accounted for under IAS 39. The host contract will need to be evaluated separately to determine if it meets the “own use” exception in IAS 39.</td>
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</table>
Implications:

ASC 815-10-15-31 states that the application of the phrase “clearly and closely related” requires both a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the relationship between the underlying and the price adjustment features of the contract and provides specific circumstances where the clearly and closely related criteria are not met. If it is determined that the price adjustment is not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased, the entire contract must be accounted for under ASC 815.

Under IAS 39, if the economic characteristics and risks of the underlying are not clearly and closely related to the asset being sold or purchased, then that component of the contract should be bifurcated and treated as a derivative under IAS 39. The host contract may still meet the “own use” scope exception. IAS 39 does not give detailed guidance for determining whether a pricing feature is clearly and closely related.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon initial adoption, entities will need to identify all financial instruments and contracts that fall within the scope of IAS 39 and apply the provisions of that as if IFRS had always been in place. Entities that were unable to elect the NPNS scope exception from ASC 815 because the price in the contract was based on a underlying that was not clearly and closely related must determine if the host contract qualifies for the “own use” scope exception from IAS 39. At transition, the contract should be removed from the opening balance sheet as under IAS 39 it would have not been accounted for as a derivative in its entirety under IAS 39. However, the price adjustment feature (that had disqualified it from NPNS under US GAAP) would be viewed as a derivative under IFRS and it should be reflected in the opening balance sheet at fair value.

5. Does the entity have any weather derivatives?

Weather derivatives are contracts requiring payments based on changes in climatic, geological or other physical variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-13(e), 15-59(a), and 815-45</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 4.B18-B19, IAS 39</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contracts that are not exchange-traded are not subject to ongoing remeasurement at fair value as derivatives under ASC 815-10 if the underlying on which the settlement is based is a climatic or geological variable or other physical variable. Paragraph 252 of the basis for conclusions to FAS 133, Accounting for Derivative Instruments and Hedging Activities noted that constituents did not have adequate time to assess the implications and measurement difficulties related to non-exchange-traded derivatives based on physical variables.</td>
<td>Contracts that require payment based on a climatic, geological or other physical variable that is not specific to a party to the contract are derivatives and accounted for under IAS 39.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Implications:**

ASC 815-10-15-59 states that contracts that are not exchange-traded are not subject to ASC 815-10’s fair value accounting if the underlying on which the settlement is based is a climatic or geological variable or other physical variable. However, ASC 815-10-15-3 provides that events occurring after the inception of a contract may cause the contract to later meet the definition of a derivative instrument. Consistent with the basis for conclusions in FAS 133 (paragraph 252), if the underlying variable to a non-exchange traded contract becomes exchange traded, the contract will automatically become subject to the fair value accounting provisions of ASC 815-10.

Contracts that combine financial variables with weather and other physical variables are derivatives and fair valued under ASC 815 (ASC 815-10-55-136 through 55-137). The illustrative example provided in that guidance is a contract that requires a $10 million payment if aggregate property damage for all hurricanes in the state of Florida exceeds $50 million. ASC 815-10-55-138 through 55-140 also distinguishes between derivatives and insurance contracts, noting that while insurance contracts are also outside the scope of ASC 815’s fair value accounting, the illustrative example is not an insurance contract.

An entity that enters into a non-exchange-traded weather derivative applies ASC 815-45, *Weather Derivatives*, under US GAAP. The accounting under ASC 815-45 differs depending on whether the derivative is a swap, purchased option or written option, but none of the models are fair value accounting models (unless entered into for trading or speculative purposes).

Under IFRS, contracts that require payment based on climatic variables or on geological or other physical variables are accounted for as derivatives at fair value under IAS 39 unless they meet the definition of an insurance contract. Weather derivative contracts generally will not meet the definition of an insurance contract because the variable is unlikely to be specific to either party to the contract.

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**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

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**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon initial adoption, entities will need to identify all weather derivatives that had not been accounted for as derivatives under US GAAP, but that would qualify as derivatives under IFRS, and measure them at fair value in the opening IFRS balance sheet. The effect of retrospective application of derivative accounting for these contracts should result in adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. A transition adjustment may be necessary to convert the ASC 815-45 accounting (which is not a full fair value model) to fair value accounting as required by IAS 39 for weather derivatives.
6. Does the entity have “regular-way” purchases of financial assets?

Regular-way security trades are contracts that provide for delivery of a security within the time generally established by regulations or conventions in the marketplace or exchange in which the transaction is being executed. Generally under both standards, regular-way trades are not accounted for as derivatives. Under US GAAP, an entity may either report “regular-way” purchases of financial assets on a trade date or settlement date basis unless trade date is required by specific industry guidance. The trade date is the date that an entity commits itself to purchase or sell an asset, while the settlement date is the date than an asset is delivered to or by an entity. Trade-date accounting refers to the recognition of an asset to be received and the liability to pay for it on the trade date, and derecognition of an asset that is sold, or recognition of a receivable from the buyer for payment on the trade date. Settlement-date accounting refers to the recognition of an asset on the day it is received by the entity, and the derecognition of an asset and recognition of any gain or loss on disposal on the day that it is delivered by the entity. Under IFRS, an entity may make a policy election for either method. Under both standards, contracts that are not “regular-way” are derivatives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-13(a) and 15-15 through 15-21</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.9, 38, AG53 through 56, B.28 through 32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ASC 815 does not address the application of either the settlement-date or trade-date method. However, certain industry guidance requires the trade date method. ASC 815 states that a contract for an existing security cannot qualify for the regular-way exception if it requires or permits net settlement (unless an entity is required, or has a continuing policy, to account for the contract on a trade-date basis). | A regular-way purchase or sale of financial assets is recognized using either trade-date accounting or settlement-date accounting. The method used is applied consistently for all purchases and sales of financial assets that belong to the same category of financial assets. When settlement-date accounting is applied, an entity accounts for any change in the fair value of the asset to be received during the period between the trade date and the settlement date in the same way as it accounts for the acquired asset:  
  - Change in value is not recognized for assets carried at cost or amortized cost,  
  - Change in value is recognized in profit or loss for assets classified as financial assets at fair value through profit or loss, and  
  - Change in value is recognized in equity for assets classified as available-for-sale. |

Implications:
If the regular-way exception cannot be used under either standard, an entity must account for the affected contract as a derivative, albeit a derivative with a short life. The “net settlement” limitation on use of the regular-way exception in US GAAP is not present in IFRS, but IFRS has a different limitation. Under IFRS, the regular-way exception cannot be used if the contract is not settled in the way established by regulation or convention in the marketplace concerned.
Assuming the regular-way exception is in use, under US GAAP, there is no guidance on whether entities should use the settlement-date or trade-date method. However, there are industry specific guides that require the trade-date method. These include the following:

- ASC 940, Financial Services — Broker Dealers
- ASC 942, Financial Services — Depository and Lending
- ASC 944, Financial Services — Insurance
- ASC 946, Financial Services — Investment Companies

Under IFRS, entities that were required to use the trade-date method under US GAAP due to industry accounting restraints may be able to elect to use the settlement-date method under IFRS. The extent to which one method is selected over another may depend on how and whether the specific industry guidance in US GAAP is adapted to IFRS and influence practice.

### Identified difference?

Describe:  
Click here to enter text.

### IFRS 1 implications:

Upon initial adoption, entities may be able to make a policy election regarding the method of accounting for "regular-way" purchases of financial assets and apply that method prospectively subsequent to adoption.

7. **Does the entity have any contracts with payments that are indexed to the sales or service revenues of another party to the contract?**

ASC 815 and IAS 39 both address whether contracts indexed to the sales or service revenues of another party to the contract are exempted from derivatives accounting. An example is a retailer's lease with the owner of a shopping center where the monthly lease payments are indexed to the monthly sales volume of that retailer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-13(e) and 15-59(d)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.IG.B8, AG33(f)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contracts that are not exchange traded are not subject to ASC 815 accounting as derivatives if the underlying is based on specified volumes of sales or service revenues of one of the parties to the contract.</td>
<td>Contracts with underlyings that are based on sales volumes are subject to IAS 39 accounting as derivatives, or embedded derivatives, as applicable. However, an embedded derivative in a host lease contract is considered closely related to the host contract if the embedded derivative is contingent rentals based on related sales. Accordingly, the embedded feature in this example would not be bifurcated and accounted for as a derivative.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

ASC 815 specifically excludes from its scope contracts that are not exchange traded if the underlying is based on specific volumes of sales or service revenues of one of the parties to the contract. IAS 39 does not exclude these contracts from its scope and provides examples of its application to such contracts in IG.B8 and AG33(f). However, in the most commonly cited example of underlyings based on volumes of sales — contingent rentals based on related sales — both standards provide similar results.

Identified difference?

Describe: 
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon initial adoption, entities will need to identify all financial instruments and contracts that fall within the scope of IAS 39 and apply the provisions of that standard as if IFRS had always been in place and prospectively thereafter. Entities that have derivatives based on sales volumes that were excluded from the scope of ASC 815 will need to determine if those contracts are in the scope of IAS 39 and if so, account for them as derivatives at fair value in the opening IFRS balance sheet, and in accordance with IFRS prospectively.

8. Does the entity enter into loan commitments?

Loan commitments are legally binding commitments to extend credit to a borrower under certain pre-specified terms and conditions. They have fixed expiration dates and may either be fixed-rate or variable-rate. Fixed-rate loan commitments change in fair value between the commitment date and loan funding as market interest rates and borrower credit spreads change. Loan commitments can either be revolving (in which the amount of the overall line of credit is re-established upon repayment of previously drawn amounts) or non-revolving (in which the amount of the overall line of credit is not re-established upon repayment of previously drawn amounts). Loan commitments can be distributed through syndication arrangements, in which one entity acts as a lead lender and an agent on behalf of other entities that will each extend credit to a single borrower.

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Potential borrowers under all commitments to originate loans, (2) issuers (i.e., potential lenders) of commitments to originate non-conforming loans (including commercial loans and commercial mortgages), and (3) issuers of commitments to originate mortgage loans that will be held for investment are scoped out of ASC 815.</td>
<td>Loan commitments that are not designated as at fair value through profit or loss, cannot be settled net, and do not involve a commitment to provide a loan at a below-market interest rate are not accounted for as derivatives. Loan commitments that can be settled net in cash or by delivering or issuing another financial instrument (other than the loan itself that is the subject of the commitment) are derivatives. A loan commitment is not regarded as settled net merely because the loan is paid out in installments (for example, a mortgage construction loan that is paid out in installments in line with the progress of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
construction). However, a loan commitment is regarded as being able to be settled net when the entity has a past practice of selling the assets (loans in the same class) resulting from its loan commitments shortly after origination.

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, one of the characteristics of a derivative is that a contract must permit net settlement or put the receiving party in a position that is essentially equivalent to net settlement (i.e., the underlying asset is “readily convertible to cash”). The underlying loan to which the commitment contract related is inherently “readily convertible to cash” if the issuer engages in the business activity of entering commitments to originate loans to be held for resale. As such, the FASB determined that mortgage loans held for resale should be deemed “readily convertible to cash” and all other loans should not. Therefore, only the loan commitments for mortgage loans that will be held for sale meet the definition of a derivative under ASC 815.

IFRS has a similar concept in that it requires derivatives accounting for loan commitments for loans in which the originator has a past practice of selling similar loans in the same class. However, IFRS does not pre-define such loans as mortgage loans held for sale in the way that US GAAP does. US GAAP attempts to link the scope exception to existing definitions in ASC 948, *Financial Services — Mortgage Banking*. Because of this subtle difference in the definition of a derivative under the two standards, more loan commitments may be derivatives and carried at fair value under IFRS.

Under both standards, loan commitments may be recorded at fair value if the entity elects the fair value option.

### Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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**IFRS 1 implications:**

Considering the fact that under IFRS, a broader population of loan commitments are accounted for as derivatives, it is likely that loan commitments that were previously accounted for as derivatives under ASC 815 will continue to be accounted for as derivatives and measured at fair value under IAS 39. Upon adoption, these previously accounted for derivatives shall be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet and carried at fair value, resulting no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet.

Loan commitments that had not been accounted for as derivatives under US GAAP but would be required to follow derivatives accounting under IFRS should be reflected as derivatives and measured at fair value in the opening IFRS balance sheet.
Debt instruments with embedded terms that can affect some or all of the interest and/or principal payments are collectively referred to as “hybrid instruments” in the derivatives literature, because they have characteristics of both debt instruments and derivative instruments. Many hybrid instruments, including convertible debt instruments, contain put or call features that require or permit accelerated repayment of the debt prior to contractual maturity, certain of which can be triggered upon a contingent event. The redemption price is typically at par. These options must be analyzed to determine whether or not they should be bifurcated from the debt host contract and accounted for separately. (This analysis of the debt host is still required even if a hybrid instrument contains an equity element that IAS 32 requires be separated.) Under both US GAAP and IFRS, puts and calls are required to be bifurcated and separately accounted for if they are not deemed “clearly and closely related” (or “closely related” under IFRS) to the host debt instrument. ASC 815 has very specific guidance for evaluating embedded put and call options for bifurcation. IAS 39, on the other hand, does not define “closely related.” Rather, it provides a series of examples to illustrate the application of its guidance.


ASC 815-15-25-42 provides a decision tree to help one analyze any embedded call or put. The decision tree indicates that call and put options in debt that require the prepayment of principal are considered to be clearly and closely related to the debt instrument unless either:

- The payoff is indexed to an underlying other than interest rates or credit risk;
- the debt involves a substantial premium or discount (such as zero-coupon bonds) and the put or call option is only contingently exercisable.

All embedded calls and puts must also be analyzed under ASC 815-15-25-26 through 25-31 in order to conclude that they are clearly and closely related to the debt host.

ASC 815-15-25-26 questions whether the hybrid instrument could contractually be settled in such a way that the investor (holder) would not recover substantially all of its initial recorded investment. With most embedded puts and calls, this sub-paragraph is not at issue because the holder of the instrument will recover substantially all of its initial investment upon exercise of the call or put.

## IFRS — IAS 39.AG30(g), AG33(a)

Embedded puts, calls and prepayment options are not closely related to the host debt contract unless either:

- the exercise price is approximately equal on each exercise date to the amortized cost of the host debt instrument; or
- the exercise price of a prepayment option reimburses the lender for an amount up to the approximate present value of lost interest for the remaining term of the host contract.

The assessment of whether the call or put option is closely related to the host debt contract is made before separating the equity element of a convertible debt instrument in accordance with IAS 32.

An embedded derivative in which the underlying is an interest rate or interest rate index that can change the amount of interest that would otherwise be paid or received on an interest-bearing host debt contract is closely related to the host contract unless the combined instrument can be settled in such a way that the holder would not recover substantially all of its recognized investment or the embedded derivative could at least double the holder's initial rate of return on the host contract and could result in a rate of return that is at least twice what the market return would be for a
ASC 815-15-25-26, however, occasionally presents a challenging analysis. It requires bifurcation if both of the following are met:

► There is a possible future interest rate scenario under which the embedded derivative would at least double the investor’s initial rate of return on the host contract; and
► For each of the possible interest rate scenarios under which the investor’s initial rate of return on the host contract would be doubled, the embedded derivative would at the same time result in a rate of return that is at least twice what otherwise would be the then-current market return (under each of those future interest rate scenarios) for a contract that has the same terms as the host contract and that involves a debtor with a credit quality similar to the issuer’s credit quality at inception.

As a final complication, while ASC 815-15-25-26 may initially appear to require a call or put feature to be bifurcated, US GAAP requires an entity to further consider ASC 815-15-25-29 for puts that appear to violate ASC 815-15-25-26, and ASC 815-15-25-37 through 25-39 for calls that appear to violate paragraph ASC 815-15-25-26. If the investor has the ability to avoid loss of its initial net investment by refraining from exercising the put, and the debtor has the ability to avoid passing on to the investor the high rate of return described in ASC 815-15-25-26 by refraining from exercising the call, then bifurcation is not required.

**Implications:**

In concept, the two existing standards are similar because both support the presumption that bifurcating embedded calls and puts is the exception, not the rule. Both standards effectively caution however that if these prepayment options accelerate the accretion of a discount or amortization of a premium, bifurcation may be required. ASC 815 conveys this concept through a complex decision tree and illustrations whereas IAS 39 uses much fewer words.

In some respects however, IAS 39 tends to require bifurcation of put and call features more frequently than US GAAP does. “Closely related” calls and puts do not have to be bifurcated under IFRS, but IAS 39 limits “closely related” to calls and puts that have exercise prices that approximate the amortized cost of the debt or reimburse the lender for the value of lost interest. Calls and puts with exercise prices not approximating amortized cost of the debt may be subject to bifurcation under IFRS, but that characteristic alone would not necessarily result in bifurcation under US GAAP. US GAAP focuses on redemption features that are (1) exercisable upon a contingent event and (2) exercised such that amortization/accretion of substantial premium or discount is accelerated, in addition to puts and calls that simply result in a payoff that is indexed to something other than credit or interest rates.
Finally, even though US GAAP may appear to be more likely than IFRS to require bifurcation because of the additional US GAAP-only requirement to evaluate call and put features under the guidance in ASC 815-15-25-29 and 25-37 through 25-39, the reality is that the additional provisions lessen the likelihood of bifurcation. Many call and put features that might appear to be required to be bifurcated under US GAAP when evaluated in light of ASC 815-15-25-29 and 25-37 through 25-39 end up exempted from bifurcation.

### Identified difference?

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<th>Describe:</th>
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### IFRS 1 implications:

In general, more redemption features are bifurcated under IFRS. Accordingly, at transition, an entity should evaluate its outstanding debt instruments to determine whether there are other redemption features that would be required to be bifurcated and separately accounted for under IFRS. The effect of retrospective application of derivative accounting for these bifurcated features can result in adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet.

In addition, an entity shall continue to account for its bifurcated puts and calls as determined under US GAAP at the transition date. These previously accounted for bifurcated puts and calls would likely continue to be bifurcated under IFRS and should be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet as well.

### 10. Has the entity entered into any contracts that do not meet the definition of a financial asset or financial liability and that are denominated in a currency other than the functional currency or local currency of a substantial party to the contract?

Executory contracts (such as construction contracts and commodity purchase/sale agreements) and other non-financial contracts that are not denominated in the functional or local currency of either party to the contract may indicate the presence of an embedded foreign currency derivative that should be bifurcated under both standards.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An embedded foreign currency derivative should not be bifurcated from the host contract if the host contract is not a financial instrument and it requires payment denominated in one of the following currencies:</td>
<td>An embedded foreign currency derivative in a host contract that is an insurance contract or not a financial instrument (such as a contract for the purchase or sale of a non-financial item where the price is denominated in a foreign currency) is closely related to the host contract provided if it is not leveraged, does not contain an option feature, and requires payments denominated in one of the following currencies:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► The functional currency of any substantial party to that contract</td>
<td>► The functional currency of any substantial party to that contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► The currency in which the price of the related good or service that is acquired or delivered is routinely denominated in international commerce (e.g., the US dollar for crude oil transactions)</td>
<td>► The currency in which the price of the related good or service that is acquired or delivered is routinely denominated in commercial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► The local currency of any substantial party to the contract</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The currency used by a substantial party to the contract as if it were the functional currency because the primary economic environment in which the party operates is highly inflationary

transactions around the world (such as the US dollar for crude oil transactions)

A currency that is commonly used in contracts to purchase or sell non-financial items in the economic environment in which the transaction takes place (e.g., a relatively stable and liquid currency that is commonly used in local business transactions or external trade)

Implications:
The final bullet point above for IAS 39 highlights the primary difference between US GAAP and IFRS on this topic. IFRS allows more flexibility to avoid bifurcation with respect to contract currency denomination by exempting currency denominations for currencies that are commonly used in a particular economic environment. US GAAP does not permit this type of exception, requiring instead that a currency denomination outside the functional or local currencies of either party to the contract be a currency that is routinely used in international transactions, not the local economic environment. Although both standards provide exceptions from the bifurcation requirement the exceptions under IFRS are a little broader than those under US GAAP and accordingly, bifurcation is less frequent under IFRS.

Identified difference?
Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:
The exceptions under US GAAP are repeated under IFRS, so there should be no particular transition issues. Going forward, an entity would be able to take advantage of the broader exemption under IAS 39. However, it is possible that previously bifurcated contracts under US GAAP may qualify for the “commonly used in the economic environment” exception under IAS 39. In such cases, the effect of retrospective application of non-bifurcation accounting for these contracts should result in adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet.
11. Are there any derivatives embedded in hybrid instruments that were entered into in 1998 or earlier?

Yes ☐  No ☐

When FAS 133 (now codified in ASC 815) was first issued in 1998, it allowed entities to choose to grandfather hybrid instruments entered into prior to a particular date and avoid bifurcation of the embedded derivative features that would otherwise be considered to be not clearly and closely related to the host contract. IAS 39, in contrast, does not have the same explicit grandfathering provision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — FAS 133.50</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.104</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paragraph 50 explains FAS 133's original grandfathering provision when an entity first adopts FAS 133. It states that if an entity chooses to select a transition date of either 1 January 1998, or 1 January 1999, it shall recognize as separate assets or liabilities only those derivatives embedded in hybrid instruments issued, acquired, or substantively modified by the entity on or after the selected transition date. That choice is not permitted to be applied to selected hybrid instruments (i.e., it must be applied on an all-or-none basis).</td>
<td>IAS 39 shall be applied retrospectively as if it had always been in use unless restating the information would be impracticable. If restatement is impracticable, the entity shall disclose that fact and indicate the extent to which the information was restated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

On the surface, it would appear that adoption of IFRS would require any hybrid instruments still in existence that were issued or acquired (and never substantially modified) prior to 1 January 1998 or 1 January 1999 (depending on the originally chosen transition date to FAS 133) to be bifurcated. However, the impracticability exception of IAS 39.104 may be available in this situation, because bifurcation must be based on calculations performed at the origination date of the instrument (for which records may no longer be readily available). The lack of practicability associated with performing the “accounting archeology” necessary to properly identify the terms of the embedded derivative at inception was the reason the FASB permitted grandfathering in the first place. (Also see IFRS 1 implications below).

Identified difference?

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

In addition to the possible availability of the practicability exception at transition, an entity may be permitted to designate the hybrid instrument as at fair value through profit or loss under IAS 39.105B(a).
12. Does the entity have any contracts that were reassessed, and, as a result, the conclusion about whether the instrument (or embedded feature) met the definition of a derivative changed?

ASC 815 requires a potential derivative to be continuously reassessed as to whether all the characteristics of a derivative are satisfied. Accordingly, contracts can theoretically convert from derivatives to non-derivatives or from non-derivatives to derivatives. This requirement also affects the evaluation of embedded derivatives for bifurcation. IFRS does not require a continuous reassessment of a bifurcation analysis that was performed at inception.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-10-15-3 and 25-2 through 25-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRIC 9</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The evaluation of whether a market mechanism exists and whether items to be delivered under a contract are readily convertible to cash must be performed at inception and on an ongoing basis throughout a contract’s life. If events occur subsequent to the inception or acquisition of a contract that cause the contract to meet the definition of a derivative instrument, then that contract must be accounted for at that later date as a derivative under ASC 815. For example, if a market develops, if an entity effects an initial public offering (IPO), or if daily trading volume changes for a sustained period of time, then those events need to be considered in re-evaluating whether the contract meets the definition of a derivative.</td>
<td>An entity shall assess whether an embedded derivative is required to be separated from the host contract and accounted for as a derivative when the entity first becomes a party to the contract. Subsequent reassessment is prohibited unless there is a change in the terms of the contract that significantly modifies the cash flows that otherwise would be required under the contract, in which case reassessment is required. An entity determines whether a modification to cash flows is significant by considering the extent to which the expected future cash flows associated with the embedded derivative, the host contract, or both have changed and whether the change is significant relative to the previously expected cash flows on the contract.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IFRS offers a more practical accommodation than US GAAP does on this topic, since US GAAP requires an ongoing assessment of contract characteristics that may be prone to change over time, particularly the "net settlement" characteristic. However, the derivative definition under IFRS does not have the "net settlement" requirement at all, so this difference is understandable. Both standards, notably, would require reassessment whenever a contract has been substantively modified.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
13. Has the entity bifurcated an embedded derivative for income statement purposes but continued to present the derivative combined with its host on the balance sheet?

Both US GAAP and IFRS have similar guidance governing when an embedded derivative in a hybrid instrument may have to be bifurcated and accounted for separately. Typically, separate accounting for the bifurcated derivative at fair value with changes in fair value reported in earnings (under either ASC 815 or IAS 39) most directly affects the income statement. However, a question arises as to how such bifurcation should be presented on the balance sheet.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Although bifurcated for measurement purposes, embedded derivatives should be presented on a combined basis with the host contract, except in circumstances where the embedded derivative is a liability and the host contract is equity.</td>
<td>This Standard does not address whether an embedded derivative shall be presented separately on the face of the financial statements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

The silence of IFRS on this point implies that continuing to follow the presentation guidance of the SEC staff would be permissible under IFRS. On the other hand, an entity desiring to change their practice and present a bifurcated derivative separately would have an opportunity to do so, provided the SEC staff does not carry forward their guidance for IFRS purposes.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

An SEC registrant should monitor the SEC staff’s views on this issue prior to changing its existing presentation policy upon conversion to IFRS. This issue will remain relevant only for those hybrid instruments that do not follow full fair value accounting for the instrument as a whole.
Section 3: Hedge accounting

14. Does the entity assess the effectiveness of its hedges for which it applies special hedge accounting every three months, even if it prepares only annual financial statements?

Both US GAAP and IFRS require an ongoing assessment of hedge effectiveness in order to determine if a hedge relationship continues to qualify for special hedge accounting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-35-2 through 35-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.88(e), AG106 through 107</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An assessment of hedge effectiveness is required whenever financial statements or earnings are reported, and at least every three months. At least quarterly, the hedging entity must determine whether the hedging relationship has been highly effective in having achieved offsetting changes in fair value or cash flows through the date of the periodic assessment. That assessment can be based upon regression or other statistical analysis of past changes in fair values or cash flows as well as on other relevant information.</td>
<td>The hedge is assessed on an ongoing basis and determined to actually have been highly effective throughout the financial reporting periods for which the hedge was designated. Effectiveness is assessed, at a minimum, at the time an entity prepares its annual or interim financial statements. This Standard does not specify a single method for assessing hedge effectiveness.</td>
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Implications:

For tightly constructed hedges with minimum ineffectiveness, conversion to existing IFRS would mean less time devoted to what is viewed as a compliance-type activity. However, for entities with dynamic hedges and/or hedges with multiple potential sources of ineffectiveness, it may be advisable to remain on a quarterly assessment regimen, or even a more frequent one. With respect to assessment methodologies, IAS 39 does not specify any particular methodology. Accordingly, most of the methodologies used to comply with ASC 815, other than the shortcut method (discussed in Question 17), would likely be acceptable under IFRS. In application of both ASC 815 and IAS 39, however, methodologies that inappropriately rely on qualitative-only analysis (such as “critical terms match”) are not supportable when there are sources of hedge ineffectiveness that may arise over the time horizon of the hedge.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Entities that prepare quarterly financial statements under both US GAAP and IFRS will not be affected because there is no difference between the two standards. But entities that produce only semi-annual or annual financial statements may want to adjust their hedge documentation to reduce the frequency of documenting ongoing hedge effectiveness assessments.
15(a). Does the entity seek to hedge any component of held-to-maturity securities?

15(b). Does the entity seek to utilize a written option as a hedging instrument?

15(c). Does the entity seek to hedge the foreign currency risk associated with a firm commitment to acquire a business in a business combination?

Each of these three topics highlights a key difference between US GAAP and IFRS with respect to permitted hedge relationships. In limited circumstances, US GAAP permits the hedging of certain components of held-to-maturity securities and the use of written options as a hedging instrument, while IFRS appears to be more restrictive. In contrast, US GAAP expressly prohibits hedge accounting for economic hedges of the foreign currency risk inherent in a firm commitment to purchase a business at a foreign currency-denominated purchase price, but IFRS does not.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP —</th>
<th>IFRS —</th>
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<tr>
<td>(a) 815-20-25-12(d)</td>
<td>(a) IAS 39.79, AG19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) 815-20-25-94 through 25-97</td>
<td>(b) IAS 39.AG94, IAS 39.IG.F.1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) 815-20-25-43(c)(5)</td>
<td>(c) IAS 39.AG98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Either all or a portion of a held-to-maturity security can be hedged for the risk of changes in its fair value attributable to credit risk, foreign exchange risk, or both. In contrast, the designated hedged risk for a held-to-maturity security may not be the risk of changes in its fair value attributable to interest rate risk. If the hedged item is an option component of a held-to-maturity security that permits its prepayment, the designated risk being hedged is the risk of changes in the entire fair value of that option component. If the hedged item is other than an option component that permits its prepayment, the designated hedged risk also may not be the risk of changes in its overall fair value.

(b) If a written option is designated in a hedge relationship, the combination of the hedged item and the written option must provide at least as much potential for gains (or as appropriate, favorable cash flows) as exposure to losses (or unfavorable cash flows). The guidance illustrates how such a test could be performed.

(c) The hedged item cannot be a firm commitment to enter into a business combination or to acquire or dispose of a subsidiary, a minority interest or an equity method investee, or a forecasted transaction involving the same.

(b) A held-to-maturity investment cannot be a hedged item with respect to interest-rate risk or prepayment risk because designation of an investment as held-to-maturity requires an intention to hold the investment until maturity without regard to changes in the fair value or cash flows of such an investment attributable to changes in interest rates. (Note however that puttable investments cannot be classified as held-to-maturity in the first place.) However, a held-to-maturity investment can be a hedged item with respect to risks from changes in foreign currency exchange rates and credit risk.

(c) Because the potential loss on an option that an entity writes could be significantly greater than the potential gain in value of a related hedged item, a written option does not qualify as a hedging instrument unless it is designated as an offset to a purchased option (including an embedded purchased option such as that in a callable debt liability).

(c) A firm commitment to acquire a business in a business combination cannot be a hedged item, except for foreign exchange risk, because other risks being hedged cannot be specifically identified and measured. These other risks are general business risks.
Implications:

(a) The guidance for hedging fair value risks associated with held-to-maturity securities is very similar, although US GAAP would permit the prepayment risk associated with a callable bond investment to be hedged, whereas IFRS would not.

(b) The guidance for using written options as hedging instruments is written quite differently between the two standards, but in actual application, the effect under both US GAAP and IFRS should be similar. Hedges that use written options as hedging instruments are rare under both standards, and effectively can be done only when very precisely paired up with mirrored purchased options embedded in hedged items. This may be a difference without a real distinction.

(c) In contrast, the guidance regarding hedging the foreign currency risk associated with a business combination is dramatically different between US GAAP and IFRS. This difference would affect yet-to-be-consummated business combination transactions in which the price has been fixed in a non-functional currency from the viewpoint of the buyer (but likely to be the currency denomination that is desired by the seller). The buyer has a real economic risk in the period leading up to the closing of the transaction. US GAAP prohibits the application of hedge accounting to this risk, in part in deference to ASC 805’s consideration of the business combination as a discrete event and also because it would be difficult to determine when the deferred effect of the gain or loss on the hedge should be recognized in earnings. In contrast, IFRS focuses on the ability to separately identify and measure the foreign currency component of that same risk, and permits hedge accounting.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

If an entity adopts IFRS at a date that happens to be in the middle of an unconsummated business combination for which the price has been fixed in a non-functional currency, IFRS would permit a hedge executed by that entity to be eligible for hedge accounting.
16. Does the entity have derivatives in a hedge relationship that were novated from the original counterparty to another counterparty?

A novation refers to the replacement of a party to a derivative contract with a new party. Novations occur for various reasons, including financial institution mergers, a counterparty’s decision to exit a derivatives business, intercompany transactions, the desire to reduce credit exposure to a particular counterparty or legal or regulatory requirements.

The FASB recently issued ASU 2016-05\(^{10}\), *Effect of Derivative Contract Novations on Existing Hedge Accounting Relationships*, which clarified that a change in the counterparty to a derivative instrument that has been designated as the hedging instrument does not, in and of itself, require redesignation of that hedge accounting relationship provided that all other hedge accounting criteria continue to be met. Prior to ASU 2016-05, US GAAP was “not explicitly clear” about how a change in the counterparty to a derivative contract affected hedge accounting. Historically, there have been different views in practice as to whether a novation, in and of itself, should require a redesignation of a hedging relationship when no cash is exchanged between the counterparties and no other terms of the derivative have changed. While ASC 815 requires an entity to discontinue hedge accounting (redesignate) if the designated derivative instrument is terminated or if the critical terms of the hedging relationship change, there have been different views about whether the FASB intended a novation to be a termination or a change in critical terms. This is due, in part, because ASC 815 has clear guidance on how the credit risk of the counterparty impacts a hedging relationship.

In December 2014, the SEC staff stated that they understood a novation to be generally viewed as the legal termination of the original derivative and the entering into of a new derivative, which indicated that the SEC staff generally believed that a novation constituted a termination for the purposes of applying ASC 815-30-40-1. However, in the past several years, the SEC staff has communicated numerous novation scenarios for which it has not objected to continuing a hedge relationship, provided that no other critical terms of the derivative instrument have been changed.

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<tr>
<td>ASC 815 requires an entity to discontinue hedge accounting if the designated derivative instrument is terminated or if the critical terms of the hedging relationship change. However, ASC 815 is clear that a change in the counterparty to a derivative instrument that has been designated as the hedging instrument in an existing hedging relationship would not, in and of itself, be considered a change in a critical term of the hedging relationship or be considered a termination of the derivative instrument for the</td>
<td>IAS 39 indicates that an entity shall discontinue hedge accounting if the hedging instrument expires or is sold, terminated or exercised. For this purpose, the replacement or rollover of a hedging instrument into another hedging instrument is not an expiration or termination if such replacement or rollover is part of the entity’s documented hedging strategy. When that is not the case, the novation of a derivative requires a discontinuation of hedge accounting unless, as a consequence of laws or regulations, or the introduction of laws or</td>
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\(^{10}\) ASU 2016-05 is effective for public business entities beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted.
purposes of applying the guidance in paragraph 815-25-40-1.

As such, hedging relationships could continue after a novation provided that all hedge effectiveness requirements continue to be met.

regulations, the parties to the hedging instrument agree that one or more clearing counterparties replace their original counterparty to become the new counterparty to each of the parties.

However, when the parties to the hedging instrument replace their original counterparties with different counterparties this exception applies only if each of those parties effects clearing with the same central counterparty.

Other changes, if any, to the hedging instrument are limited to those that are necessary to effect such a replacement of the counterparty. Such changes are limited to those that are consistent with the terms that would be expected if the hedging instrument were originally cleared with the clearing counterparty. These changes include changes in the collateral requirements, rights to offset receivables and payables balances and charges levied.

**Implications:**

The question of whether a company is required to discontinue a hedging relationship is important because redesignating a new hedge relationship likely will result in ineffectiveness and possibly failure to achieve hedge accounting, due to the derivative not having a fair value of zero at the redesignation date.

With the amendments to ASC 815 made through the issuance of ASU 2016-05, US GAAP is now explicit that a novation would not, in and of itself, be considered a change in the critical terms of the hedge relationship or a termination of the derivative instrument for the purposes of applying the guidance in paragraph 815-25-40-1. Accordingly, companies could have novations not requiring a redesignation under US GAAP that would require redesignation under IAS 39.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon adoption, entities shall reflect in their opening IFRS balance sheets only hedging relationships of a type that would qualify for hedge accounting under IAS 39. A novation of a derivative that did not result in redesignation under US GAAP may not be considered an eligible hedge relationship for IFRS. Therefore, US GAAP hedging relationships that experienced a novation should be evaluated for eligibility under IFRS. If eligible, they should be reflected as such in the opening IFRS balance sheet.
17. Does the entity apply the “shortcut” method to hedges using interest rate swaps?

Yes ☐  No ☐

The shortcut method is a specific, rules-based exception to the general hedging guidance in ASC 815. It permits an entity to assume that certain narrowly-defined types of benchmark interest rate hedging relationships, where the critical terms of the hedging instrument and the entire hedged asset or liability are the same, will be perfectly effective (i.e., there will be no ineffectiveness to recognize in the income statement). The ability to use the shortcut method is limited because ASC 815 provides for a shortcut method only with respect to interest rate swaps that hedge the interest rate risk associated with recognized interest-bearing assets or liabilities (a cash flow hedge of forecasted transactions is not eligible for the shortcut method), and only under very specific conditions. It requires all the same formal hedge documentation at inception, and requires that the additional criteria listed in ASC 815-20-25-102 through 25-106 be met.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-25-102 through 25-117</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.81, AG105-AG113, BC135A</th>
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<tr>
<td>When the criteria for using the shortcut method are met, no ongoing assessment of hedge effectiveness is required. In a fair value hedge, the hedged item is adjusted by exactly the same amount as the derivative, with no impact on earnings (other than the swap settlement differential). In a cash flow hedge, other comprehensive income is adjusted by exactly the same amount as the derivative, with no impact on earnings (other than the swap settlement differential). In complying with the shortcut method, the reporting entity must also consider the likelihood of the swap counterparty’s compliance with the contractual terms of the hedging derivative that require the counterparty to make payments to the reporting entity pursuant to ASC 815-20-25-103.</td>
<td>There is no equivalent to the shortcut method in IAS 39. However, IAS 39 permits an entity to hedge a self-defined portion (see Question 18 which follows) of a financial instrument (e.g., interest rate risk or credit risk), and that if the critical terms of the hedging instrument and the hedged item are the same, the entity would not, in many cases, recognize any ineffectiveness.</td>
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Implications:

Current US GAAP does not require a reporting entity to periodically evaluate hedge effectiveness of a hedging relationship if that entity applies the shortcut method. In a fair value hedge under the shortcut method, an entity can assume no ineffectiveness such that the hedged item’s change in fair value is defined to be exactly the same as the derivative’s change in fair value. The accounting for such hedges is significantly simplified.

IFRS, which does not permit the shortcut method, requires reporting entities with similar hedge relationships using interest rate swaps to identify and document in the initial hedge documentation a method of periodic hedge effectiveness assessment and ineffectiveness measurement. Ongoing assessment is required with the ineffective portion of the hedge calculated and recognized in profit or loss each period. However, the ability under IFRS to designate an identifiable and separately measurable portion of the interest rate exposure of an interest-bearing asset or interest-bearing liability as the hedged risk is often viewed by preparers as an even more desirable alternative for hedgers than US GAAP’s shortcut method in that it similarly can reduce hedge ineffectiveness to a very small amount. This ability is discussed in further detail in Question 18.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

Hedge relationships for which entities had previously applied the shortcut method are deemed an “eligible” type of hedge relationship under IFRS and therefore, those hedge relationships should be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet upon transition, resulting in no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. In addition, we do not believe that any adjustments to the carrying value of the hedged item (for fair value hedges) or to the associated balances in equity (for cash flow hedges) are necessary at transition.

Although the shortcut method accounting approach is used for eligible hedge types under IAS 39, it does not require effectiveness assessment and ineffectiveness measurement methodologies that are required under IAS 39. Therefore, if an entity wishes to continue those hedges under IAS 39 without redesignating the hedge relationship, it must have documentation in place by the transition date that provides a method to assess effectiveness and measure ineffectiveness that is acceptable under IAS 39. That assessment of hedge effectiveness should be performed on the assumption that the hedge relationship started on the same date that it did under previous GAAP. On a go forward basis, hedge ineffectiveness from differences in subsequent changes in fair value of the derivative versus that of the hedged item is possible for a variety of reasons, including differences in the fixed rate of the debt compared to the fixed rate on the swap, and differences in non-performance risk (that is, credit risk).

18. If the entity applied fair value or cash flow hedge accounting to a financial asset or liability (or to their related cash flows), has the entity designated specific sub-components of risk such as risk associated with (a) changes in the designated benchmark interest rate, (b) changes in foreign currency exchange rates, or (c) changes in credit risk?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Both standards allow hedge accounting for risk sub-components of financial instruments. However US GAAP is very prescriptive as to which sub-components may be separately hedged, while IFRS allows the entity more flexibility to “self-define” the sub-components.

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<td>For risks associated with financial instruments under either the fair value hedge model (ASC 815-20) or the cash flow hedge model (ASC 815-20-25), the only sub-components that may be considered to be the “hedged risks” are changes in fair value (or cash flows) attributable to changes in(a) the designated benchmark interest rate, (b) the related foreign currency exchange rates, or (c) the obligor’s creditworthiness and spread over the benchmark interest rate with respect to the hedged item’s credit sector. The designated benchmark rate is narrowly defined as “a widely recognized and quoted rate in an active financial market that is broadly indicative of the overall level of interest</td>
<td>If the hedged item is a financial asset or financial liability, it may be a hedged item with respect to the risks associated with only a portion of its cash flows or fair value (such as one or more selected contractual cash flows or portions of them or a percentage of the fair value) provided that effectiveness can be measured. For example, an identifiable and separately measurable portion of the interest rate exposure of an interest-bearing asset or interest-bearing liability may be designated as the hedged risk (such as a risk-free interest rate or benchmark interest rate component of the total interest rate exposure of a hedged financial instrument).</td>
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rates attributable to high quality obligors in that market.” In the US, only interest rates on direct obligations of the US Treasury, the LIBOR swap rate and the Fed Funds effective swap rate (or overnight index swap rate), are considered to be benchmark interest rates.

IAS 39 does not limit the type of interest rate that could be considered to be a “benchmark” interest rate.

### Implications:

US entities converging to existing IFRS may find the guidance more flexible, particularly if they own or issue financial assets and financial liabilities that are not explicitly linked to LIBOR. For example, some variable-rate debt in the US is explicitly linked to tax-exempt interest indices, such as the SIFMA (Securities Industry and Financial Markets Association) Municipal Swap Index. ASC 815 does not permit changes in an index such as SIFMA Municipal Swap Index to be “the hedged item” in a cash flow hedge. However, IAS 39 arguably would permit such a designation.

### Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

### IFRS 1 implications:

US GAAP-compliant designations will most likely be acceptable under IFRS, so no particular transition issues present themselves. Because they are “eligible” types of hedge relationship under IFRS, these hedge relationships should be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet upon transition, resulting in no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. Furthermore, entities may note they can construct more customized hedging approaches under IFRS on a go-forward basis.

### 19. Has the entity designated a hedging instrument in a fair value hedge as hedging only a portion of the hedged debt instrument's period until maturity?

This Question addresses the subject of “partial term hedging,” meaning a portion of the total contractual term of a hedged debt instrument. Both standards technically permit partial-term hedging, but the methodologies are somewhat cumbersome either in the hedge construction (US GAAP) or in the designation wording (IFRS), and are not necessarily intuitive. For example, an entity applying IFRS might desire to use a five-year interest rate swap in the following fair value hedge strategy involving its fixed rate debt obligation maturing in ten years. To hedge itself against the fair value exposure on the debt obligation associated with the present value of the interest rate payments until year five, the entity applying IFRS designates the swap as hedging “the fair value exposure of the interest rate payments on the obligation until year five and the change in value of the principal payment due at maturity to the extent affected by changes in the yield curve relating to the five years of the swap.”

### US GAAP — 815-20-25-12(b)(ii), 815-10-25-4, and 815-20-55-5 through 55-8

US GAAP views the hedge relationship described above as trying to justify a synthetic instrument accounting result (a synthetic 5 year floating-rate and next five years fixed-rate

### IFRS — IAS 39.IG.F.2.17

IFRS permits a financial instrument to be hedged for only a portion of its cash flows or fair value, if effectiveness can be measured and the other hedge accounting criteria are met. Accordingly,
borrowing) that is prohibited under ASC 815. Accordingly, the designation described above is not permitted under US GAAP.

US GAAP does not view a five-year swap as the correct hedging instrument to execute a “partial term hedge” of a ten year debt obligation, but rather, describes the appropriate hedge design to consist of “a derivative that can hedge the changes in the fair value of a zero-coupon bond that corresponds to the timing and amount of each individual interest payment.” Said another way, the appropriate hedge design would consist of individual forward rate agreements that each focus on a particular interest flow. This type of cumbersome hedge design is rarely constructed in the US, making partial-term hedging rare.

and IFRS permits the hedge relationship and accompanying designation described above. Note that the converse arrangement is not permitted: the first five years of a ten-year interest rate swap cannot serve as a fair value hedge of five-year fixed rate debt (IAS 39.75).

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<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Generally in IFRS, hedge designations that respect the financial behavior of the hedging instrument can fit into the less prescriptive guidance of IAS 39. Accordingly, swap instruments can be used to accomplish partial-term hedging of fixed-rate debt instruments under IFRS. The same instruments would be prohibited in a partial-term hedge relationship under US GAAP, which effectively requires a hedger to construct an individual fair value hedge of each interest payment with a unique forward rate agreement in order to accomplish a hedge of a portion of a debt instrument’s period until maturity. This type of hedge structure under US GAAP is not economically the same as one using a single swap instrument for the same series of interest payments.</td>
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<th>IFRS 1 implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Those rare partial term hedges successfully executed by US entities will be equally permissible under IFRS, so there are no particular transition issues. However, once under IFRS, entities may want to take advantage of IFRS’s less prescriptive guidance and utilize swap instruments instead of individual forward rate agreements to achieve partial-term hedge designations.</td>
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</table>
20. Does the application of ASC 815’s fair value hedge methodology to financial assets or liabilities result in hedge ineffectiveness because the hedging instrument’s cash flows do not coincide with all of the cash flows related to the hedged item (e.g., the portion of an interest flow consisting of a spread related to credit risk, cash flows beyond a specific expected call date)?

Yes ☐  No ☐

As noted in Questions 18 and 19 above, ASC 815 is very specific regarding the permitted risk and time period sub-components of a hedged item that can be designated as the hedged item in a fair value hedge. The FASB was very concerned that a hedger could achieve a “self-fulfilling prophecy” of perfect effectiveness merely by excluding certain portions of the hedged item from the hedge designation, allowing the derivative to be a perfect hedge of the remaining portions. Question 18 addresses permitted risk sub-components under ASC 815 for both fair value and cash flow hedges. Question 19 addresses (for fair value hedges only) a time period issue; namely, how a hedged item’s fair value can be sliced into fair value components attributable to specific cash flows and then hedged or not hedged by such components. This Question, again for fair value hedges only, addresses whether one of these specific components can be further sub-divided (such as fair value attributable to the LIBOR component of the cash flow and fair value attributable to the credit spread component of the cash flow). US GAAP prohibits such sub-division, but IFRS does not.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-25-12(f) and 815-20-55-131(c)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.81, AG99C, AG99D</th>
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<tr>
<td>The FASB decided that in calculating the change in the hedged item’s fair value attributable to changes in the designated benchmark interest rate, the estimated cash flows used must be based on all of the contractual cash flows of the entire hedged item. That guidance, which appeared in the original Basis for Conclusions (and therefore was not codified) does not mandate the use of any one method to isolate the change in fair value that is deemed attributable to changes in the benchmark rate, but it precludes the use of a method that excludes a portion of the hedged item’s contractual cash flows (such as the portion of interest payments attributable to the obligor’s credit risk above the benchmark rate) from the calculation.</td>
<td>If the hedged item is a financial asset or financial liability, it may be a hedged item with respect to the risks associated with only a portion of its cash flows or fair value (such as one or more selected contractual cash flows or portions of them or a percentage of fair value) provided that effectiveness can be measured. For example, an identifiable and separately measureable portion of the interest rate exposure of an interest-bearing asset or interest-bearing liability may be designated as the hedged risk. (In contrast to the “portion” described in Question 19, this “portion” refers to a subdivision of an individual cash flow or series thereof, such as the 4% portion of a 5% fixed interest coupon. In Question 19, the “portion” referred to a subdivision of one group of cash flows unique to one time period from another group of cash flows unique to a separate time period, such as all of the 5% coupons in Years 1 through 5 and all of the 5% coupons in Years 6 through 10.) However, if a portion of the cash flows of a financial asset or financial liability is designated as the hedged item, that designated portion must be less than the total cash flows of the asset or liability (that is, 4% is less than a 5% coupon). In addition, if a fixed rate financial instrument is hedged some time after its origination (i.e., a “late hedge”) and interest rates...</td>
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have increased in the meantime, the entity can designate a portion equal to a benchmark rate that is higher than the contractual rate paid on the item (that is, in this scenario, it may be acceptable to designate the hedged risk as 6% even if the fixed coupon is still 5%).

Implications:

The additional flexibility of IAS 39 on this point is a meaningful and significant difference between the two standards. The thought process behind ASC 815 was extremely focused on preventing fair value hedgers from easily asserting that their hedges were perfectly effective, simply because they omitted the “portion” of the hedged item that the derivative was not designed to address. IFRS does not have that same concern as long as the portions of the hedged item included in the designation are identifiable and separately measureable. With respect to “late hedges,” IAS 39 specifically allows in AG99 for the hedger to focus on the risk associated with the then benchmark interest rate environment rather than the environment that existed when the hedged financial item was first created. While ASC 815 does not have a passage that addresses “late hedges” directly, ASC 815 as commonly interpreted is identical to AG99 on this point.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Entities following US GAAP should find their existing fair value hedge designations that are compliant with ASC 815’s restrictive approach will transition to IFRS without need of adjustment. However, in the future, such entities may desire to take advantage of IAS 39’s greater flexibility to define “portions” of risk as the hedged item, and the related ability to reduce reported hedge ineffectiveness.

21. Does the entity execute portfolio fair value hedges of the benchmark interest rate risk associated with the hedged financial instruments?

These types of hedges attempt to convert similar types of fixed-rate instruments, usually assets such as loans, mortgages, or bonds, into floating-rate instruments.

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<td>Portfolio fair value hedge accounting is one of the most cumbersome types of hedges permitted by US GAAP, which generally prohibits any type of hedge that resembles “macro hedging.” ASC 815-20-55-14 requires a rigid homogeneity screening before any fixed-rate instruments can be grouped into a common hedging pool, and every time a single instrument is added or subtracted from the pool, the hedge is</td>
<td>IAS 39 appears to be designed to overcome most of the fair value portfolio hedging difficulties presented by ASC 815. While it still does not permit macro hedging of assets mixed with liabilities, almost every other aspect of fair value portfolio hedging is easier to accomplish. The guidance for how to achieve this type of hedge, and the justification for it, is one of the largest sections in all of IAS 39 (see cites above). An</td>
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automatically de-designated and a fresh hedge must be reinstated.

Once a portfolio qualifies for fair value hedge accounting, the actual bookkeeping can be onerous. Carrying value adjustments applied to the portfolio must be allocable to the individual instruments within, so that appropriate gains and losses can be recorded when the individual instrument is retired, sold, or matured. Furthermore, assets and liabilities may never be grouped in the same hedging pool. Despite its difficulty, some financial institutions still attempt these hedges but must usually build accounting systems enhancements to comply with ASC 815.

<table>
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<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>While both standards permit portfolio hedges, current IFRS is more flexible than current US GAAP with respect to the ability to achieve fair value hedge accounting relating to interest rate risk associated with a portfolio of financial assets and financial liabilities. In addition, IFRS appears to be written in a way that acknowledges how hedgers of portfolios of fixed-rate instruments actually approach this task in a dynamic manner, anticipating prepayments and other variations from contractual cash flow schedules. Assuming IFRS continues to permit fair value portfolio hedges, financial institutions in particular will want to study the IFRS guidance on this topic thoroughly in anticipation of transition.</td>
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<th>IFRS 1 implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>US GAAP-compliant fair value portfolio hedges will also be IFRS compliant, but they will not have taken advantage of the flexibility granted by IAS 39. Entities will likely want to re-designate their fair value portfolio hedges upon transition to IFRS to take advantage of this flexibility on a go-forward basis.</td>
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22. Does the entity have a hedged forecasted transaction that is no longer “highly probable” of occurring? Does the entity have a formerly hedged transaction that is “no longer expected to occur”?

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, hedged forecasted transactions must be probable of occurring to achieve hedge accounting, but IFRS says such transactions should be “highly probable”. In addition, the time period within which the forecasted transaction is expected to occur must be documented under both standards, although the guidance differs slightly. When a transaction is no longer “highly probable” of occurring under IFRS (or no longer “probable” under US GAAP), but is still expected to occur, US GAAP and IFRS have different thresholds of determining, first, when hedge accounting should stop, and secondly, when amounts accumulated in other comprehensive income (OCI) should be reclassified into earnings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-25-3(d), 25-16(c) and 815-30-40-1 through 40-6</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.101(b)(c), IG.F.3.11</th>
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<tr>
<td>ASC 815 requires the hedged forecasted transaction to be described with sufficient specificity so that when a transaction occurs, it is clear whether that transaction is or is not the hedged transaction. This requirement includes that date on or period within which the forecasted transaction is expected to occur. The best estimate of the forecasted transaction’s timing should be documented and used in assessing hedge effectiveness. ASC 815-30-40-1 through 40-6 discusses the concepts surrounding when OCI should be released when a cash flow hedge is discontinued and the transaction will not occur by the end of the originally specified time but will occur shortly thereafter. It is not appropriate to continue to apply cash flow hedge accounting and defer a gain or loss on a derivative that arises after a hedged forecasted transaction is deemed no longer probable (ASC 815-30-40-1 and ASC 815-20-25-15(b)). However, the net derivative gain or loss related to a discontinued cash flow hedge shall continue to be reported in accumulated OCI unless it is probable that the forecasted transaction will not occur by the end of the originally specified time period (which is permitted to be a range of time under ASC 815-20-25-16(c)) or within an additional two-month period of time thereafter (except for extenuating circumstances). When the forecasted transaction is probable of not occurring, the related cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remained in OCI shall be recognized in profit or loss immediately.</td>
<td>An entity is required to identify and document the time period during which the forecast transaction is expected to occur within a reasonably specific and generally narrow range of time from a most probable date, as a basis for assessing hedge effectiveness. Paragraph 88(c) of IAS 39 requires a forecasted transaction that is the subject of the hedge to be highly probable of occurring to qualify for hedge accounting. Paragraph 101(b) states that an entity shall discontinue hedge accounting if the hedge no longer meets the criteria in paragraph 88. In this case, the cumulative gain or loss that has been recognized in OCI shall remain separately in equity until the forecasted transaction occurs in accordance with paragraphs 97, 98 or 100. In addition, paragraph 101(c) states that a forecasted transaction that is no longer highly probable may still be expected to occur, which supports the notion of continuing to defer the gain or loss in OCI as long as the transaction is expected to occur as originally documented. The guidance in paragraph 101(b) does not provide for a two-month period subsequent to the documented originally specified time or an exception for extenuating circumstances as in ASC 815-30-40-4. When the forecasted transaction is no longer expected to occur, the related cumulative gain or loss on the hedging instrument that remained in OCI shall be recognized in profit or loss.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

IAS 39.IG.F.3.11 states that an entity is required to identify and document the time period during which the forecasted transaction is expected to occur within a reasonably specific and generally narrow range of time from a most probable date. ASC 815-20-25-16(c) provides that for forecasted transactions with timing that involves uncertainty within a range, that range could be documented as the “originally specified time,” provided that the forecasted transaction is described with enough specificity for identification of when the transaction has occurred. This inherently allows more flexibility in determining whether the transaction will occur in the originally specified time period under US GAAP, which effectively allows the permissible range of time to be quantitatively defined by whatever range would still allow the derivative to serve as an effective hedge.

When the hedge accounting criteria are no longer met, hedge accounting must be discontinued under both US GAAP and IFRS. However, the no longer “highly probable” threshold under IAS 39 will be reached sooner than the no longer “probable” threshold of ASC 815, resulting in the cessation of hedge accounting earlier under IAS 39.

Similarly, the “no longer expected to occur” threshold under IAS 39 will be reached sooner than the “probable of not occurring” threshold under ASC 815, resulting in the reclassification of gains or losses from OCI to earnings earlier under IAS 39. As a result, gains or losses may be reclassified from OCI to earnings earlier under IFRS than under US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐
No ☐
Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption, entities will need to evaluate “live” OCI balances related to ongoing cash flow hedges and determine if the transaction is expected to occur within a reasonably specific and generally narrow range of time from a most probable date as documented and required under IAS 39. If the transaction is no longer highly probable of occurring within this time frame, hedge accounting should not be continued under IFRS. For “frozen” OCI balances of now discontinued cash flow hedges, entities will need to determine if the originally hedged transaction is no longer probable of occurring (rather than the ASC 815 standard of “probable of not occurring”). If no longer probable, the OCI balance should be reclassified to retained earnings at the transition date, the same as if hedge accounting had never been applied.
23. Does the entity use a purchased option as a hedging instrument in a cash flow hedge?

Both US GAAP and IFRS permit purchased options to be used as hedging instruments in cash flow hedges. Economically, purchased options used in cash flow hedges are effective at hedging the variability in expected future cash flows attributable to a particular rate or price beyond (or within) a specified level (or levels). Only US GAAP, however, provides the hedger with an election for how to assess hedge effectiveness using purchased options. The hedger can choose to: (1) designate the entire option as the hedging instrument, or (2) separate the intrinsic value and extrinsic value (also referred to as “time value”) of the option, with only the changes in intrinsic value designated as the effective portion of the hedge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-25-82(a) and 815-20-25-126 through 25-129; 815-30-35-33 through 35-37</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.74</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The first alternative under US GAAP is described in ASC 815-20-25-82(a). Under this alternative, a hedger documents that it will assess the effectiveness of a purchased option used in a cash flow hedge based only on changes in the option’s intrinsic value, with changes in the option’s “extrinsic value” reported directly in earnings. The second alternative under US GAAP is described in ASC 815-20-25-126 through 25-129, continuing in ASC 815-30-35-33 through 35-27. This alternative permits effectiveness to be assessed based on total changes in the option’s cash flows (that is, the assessment includes the option’s entire change in fair value). In the second alternative, the entire change in the option’s fair value is eligible to be reported in accumulated other comprehensive income, including the changes in time value. The vast majority of entities applying US GAAP use the second alternative, because the earnings volatility associated with reporting changes in the time value of the option as they occur directly in the income statement is avoided.</td>
<td>A hedging instrument is normally designated in its entirety in a hedge relationship, but with respect to an option contract, the intrinsic value and time value is separated, with only the changes in the intrinsic value of an option contract designated as “the hedging instrument.” The change in the option’s time value is excluded from effectiveness assessment and reported directly in profit or loss. IAS 39 is most comparable to the first alternative under US GAAP. The US GAAP alternative described by ASC 815-20-25-126 through 25-129 is not available in IFRS.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:
Most entities applying US GAAP follow ASC 815-20-25-126 through 25-129 and base the assessment of hedge effectiveness on the total changes in the option’s cash flows. The alternative that conforms with IFRS — excluding the changes in time value from the assessment of effectiveness — is deliberately avoided. US GAAP entities usually find the earnings volatility associated with changes in time value to be undesirable and unmanageable. IAS 39 does not consider hedged forecasted cash flows to have a time element, unless it is specified within variability terms of the hedged item. Therefore, it is not possible to designate the entire change in the fair value of a purchased option hedging instrument and report the full amount of such change in equity. Accordingly, some entities applying US GAAP may choose to avoid the use of purchased options altogether because IFRS does not permit this approach.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:
At transition, the opening IFRS balance sheet may reflect the application of hedge accounting as applied under US GAAP. However, entities that still seek to use purchased options in cash flow hedges after the transition date will need to completely re-do their hedge documentation and method of measuring hedge effectiveness such that future assessments under IAS 39 will focus only on changes in the intrinsic value of the option. In advance of transition, some entities applying US GAAP may desire to discontinue use of purchased options and rethink their hedging strategies altogether.

24. Does the entity apply the “change in variable cash flows” method (see 815-30-35-16 through 35-24) when measuring ineffectiveness of a swap designated in a cash flow hedge under US GAAP?

The change in variable cash flows method under ASC 815 permits the measurement of hedge ineffectiveness to be based on a comparison of the floating-rate leg of the swap and the hedged floating-rate cash flows on the asset or liability. The method is based on the premise that only the floating-rate component of the swap provides the hedging effect, and any change in the swap’s fair value attributable to the fixed-rate leg is not relevant to the variability of the hedged cash inflows or outflows. This method is one of three permitted in US GAAP. The other two methods are the hypothetical derivative method (Method 2) and the change in fair value method (Method 3). IAS 39 does not specify any specific methods; however, IAS 39 does not allow assuming perfect hedge effectiveness and credit risk is given as an example of a source of hedge ineffectiveness.

In US GAAP, the change in variable cash flows method can be used only if at the inception of the hedge, the fair value of the swap is zero or “somewhat near zero,” because if it were permitted, the ineffectiveness associated with the financing element of the a swap whose fair value is not zero would fail to be appropriately recognized.
The change in variable cash flows method is unique in that the change in fair value of the fixed leg of the swap is not considered in the calculation of hedge ineffectiveness. Instead, the calculation of ineffectiveness in the change in variable cash flows method involves a comparison of the present value of the cumulative change in the expected future cash flows on the variable leg of the swap and the present value of the cumulative change in the expected future hedged cash flows (such as those from a floating-rate asset or liability), with both present value calculations using the discount rates applicable to determining the fair value of the swap. The change in fair value of the swap attributable to its fixed leg is of course measured as well in order to properly reflect the swap on the balance sheet at its fair value, but it is not an element relevant to the measurement of hedge ineffectiveness.

"It should also be noted that it would be inappropriate to compare only the variable cash flows on the interest rate swap with the interest cash flows in the debt that would be generated by the forward interest rates. That methodology has the effect of measuring ineffectiveness only on a portion of the derivative, and IAS 39 does not permit the bifurcation of a derivative for the purposes of assessing effectiveness in this situation (IAS 39.74). It is recognized, however, that if the fixed interest rate on the interest rate swap is equal to the fixed rate that would have been obtained on the debt at inception, there will be no ineffectiveness assuming that there are no differences in terms and no change in credit risk or it is not designated in the hedging relationship."

Implications:

The fact that IFRS does not permit the use of the change in variable cash flows method may be a distinction without a material difference. US GAAP permits this method only when the fair value of the swap at hedge inception is zero (or "somewhat near zero"), meaning that the change in variable cash flows method can be used only when it would produce the same (or nearly the same) ineffectiveness computation as the hypothetical derivative method.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
25. **Has the entity executed cash flow hedges of forecasted transactions that subsequently resulted in the recognition of a non-financial asset (e.g., inventory or property, plant and equipment) or non-financial liability?**

Both US GAAP and IFRS account for the effective portion of the gain or loss associated with such hedge in other comprehensive income (OCI), and the amounts in OCI are reclassified into earnings as the non-financial assets or liabilities affect earnings (e.g., as the inventory is sold or is impaired, as the property, plant and equipment depreciates). However, IFRS permits the hedger to elect a basis adjustment approach rather than maintain an amortizing balance in OCI for what might be several years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-30-35-38 through 35-41</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.98, BC162 through164</th>
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<tr>
<td>The FASB prohibited a basis adjustment approach for the effect of cash flow hedging, because such an approach would have resulted in the acquired asset or incurred liability recorded at an amount other than fair value at the date of initial recognition. That is, the adjustment for the effect of the hedge would have moved the initial carrying amount of the acquired asset or incurred liability away from its fair value.</td>
<td>IFRS permits the same methodology as US GAAP described above, but also permits an entity to elect to remove the associated gains and losses that were recognized in OCI and include them in the initial cost or other carrying amount of the asset or liability. The IASB believed that, on balance, providing entities with a choice in this case was appropriate because the basis adjustment approach reduces complexity of this accounting.</td>
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**Implications:**

The election in current IFRS addresses what has long been an unpopular aspect of ASC 815. Entities following ASC 815 often apply a basis adjustment technique in their subsidiary ledgers, just to make sure they can properly track the amortization/release of the hedging gain or loss, only to reverse such basis adjustment back to OCI for periodic financial reporting purposes. Opponents of this aspect of ASC 815 have complained that maintaining appropriate histories and release schedules for different types of cash flow hedge OCI balances is costly and prone to possible error.

**Identified difference?**

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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
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<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

At transition, a first-time adopter may adopt as its accounting policy the basis adjustment method for hedges of non-financial hedged items, and remove the hedging gain or loss accumulated in OCI as required by US GAAP and recognize it as part of the carrying amount of the non-financial hedged item to which this OCI amount relates. This accounting policy must be applied consistently to all similar hedges going forward. Of course, the first-time adopter may also elect to continue the same policy as it applied under US GAAP, in which case there would be no transition impact.
26. A reporting entity characterized by a multinational ownership structure often includes parent, subsidiaries, and intervening subsidiaries with different functional currencies. Does the reporting entity desire that its operating units' foreign currency risk associated with forecasted transactions be hedged?

The ability of a parent entity to directly hedge a foreign currency cash flow risk present in its operating unit differs between US GAAP and IFRS. Similarly, the ability of a parent entity to cause the foreign currency risk associated with one of its subsidiary’s net investment in a foreign operation to be hedged differs. In the discussion that follows, the “operating unit” is considered to be the entity that has the foreign currency exposure for which hedge accounting is desired. “The hedging unit,” which may or may not be the same as the “operating unit,” is the entity that holds the hedging instrument.

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<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires that the operating unit that has the foreign currency exposure, or another entity in the consolidated group that has the same functional currency as the operating unit, be a party to the hedging instrument. However, for another member of the consolidated group to function as the “hedging unit,” there may be no intervening subsidiary with a different functional currency. This principle applies to both net investment hedges (discussed in more detail in Question 29) and cash flow hedges of forecasted transactions.</td>
<td>IFRS does not require that the operating unit that is exposed to the risk being hedged be a party to the hedging instrument. When hedging foreign currency exposure on behalf of a subsidiary, the hedging instrument can be transacted by any entity within the consolidated group. IFRS allows any member of the consolidated group, even with a functional currency different from that of a subsidiary, to hedge the subsidiary’s foreign currency exposure.</td>
</tr>
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Implications:

US GAAP is more restrictive in terms of hedging the foreign currency exposure by a member entity when a group of entities are involved. IFRS allows more flexibility and provides additional hedging opportunities for members of the consolidated group to hedge on behalf of the subsidiary with foreign currency exposures. See the following examples that illustrates the difference between the two standards:

- **Parent**  
  (US Dollar or USD functional)

- **Intermediate subsidiary**  
  (Canadian Dollar or CAD functional)

- **Lowest level subsidiary**  
  (Japanese Yen or JPY functional, some transactions denominated in EUR)
Under US GAAP, the USD Parent cannot directly hedge the foreign currency exposure (i.e., CAD vs. JPY) associated with the CAD Subsidiary’s net investment in its JPY-Denominated Foreign Operation on behalf of the CAD Subsidiary, nor could the USD Parent directly hedge its foreign currency exposure (i.e., USD vs. JPY) associated with the Parent’s ultimate net investment in its JPY-Denominated Foreign Operation. Such hedges however would qualify under IFRS in consolidated financial statement presentation. (Other differences related to net investment hedging are discussed in the next Question.)

Similarly, under US GAAP, neither the USD Parent nor the CAD Intermediate Subsidiary can hedge the JPY vs. EUR risk that the JPY Lowest Level Subsidiary is exposed to with respect to its forecast transactions. In contrast, under IAS 39, any of the three companies above (the USD Parent, the CAD Intermediate Subsidiary, or the JPY Lowest Level Subsidiary) can function as the “hedging unit” and enter into the derivative that hedges the JPY vs. EUR risk. This flexibility under IFRS is not dependent upon whether the method of consolidation is “step by step” (lowest level subsidiary first consolidated into intermediate level subsidiary, etc.) or “direct.” (See the “Foreign currency translation” section of this publication.)

If the Intermediate Subsidiary were JPY functional, the same as the Lowest Level Subsidiary, then US GAAP would permit the Intermediate Subsidiary to function as the “hedging unit” on behalf of the Lowest Level Subsidiary and enter into the JPY vs. EUR derivative to hedge EUR-denominated transactions, because there is no intervening subsidiary that has a different functional currency than the JPY.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon adoption, entities that have followed the US GAAP approach will be able to transition to IFRS without adjustment, because the US GAAP approach is also acceptable under IFRS. However, on a prospective basis, entities may want to take advantage of the increased flexibility that IFRS offers to structure both net investment hedges and cash flow hedges of forecast transactions.
27. Does the entity hedge its net investment in a foreign entity?

Both US GAAP and IFRS permit derivatives and certain non-derivatives (e.g., foreign-currency-denominated debt) to serve as hedges of a net investment in a foreign entity. Investments in foreign operations include investments in incorporated and unincorporated foreign operations with a functional currency other than the reporting currency. This includes subsidiaries, divisions, branches, joint ventures, and investments accounted for under the equity method. The change in the carrying amount of these investments, measured at the spot exchange rate, is recorded in the cumulative translation adjustment account within other comprehensive income. When the hedging criteria for the hedge of a net investment in a foreign operation are met, the gain or loss on the effective part of the hedging instrument is taken directly to equity (the cumulative translation adjustment account). ASC 815 has fairly extensive guidance on constructing net investment hedges, but in contrast, IAS 39 provides very little guidance on what may or may not be considered a valid net investment hedge relationship.

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<tr>
<td>ASC 815 provides robust guidance for what is acceptable and what is not acceptable in constructing net investment hedges. ASC 815-20-25-66 through 25-71 permits non-derivative financial instruments such as foreign-denominated debt, and derivatives such as forwards, fixed-for-fixed cross currency swaps, and floating-for-floating cross currency swaps to be the hedging instrument. Fixed-for-floating and floating-for-fixed cross currency swaps are specifically not permitted to be used. ASC 815-35-35-4 allows an entity to use either a method of measuring ineffectiveness based on changes in spot exchange rates or a method based on changes in forward exchange rates, as long as a single method is used consistently. As covered in the preceding Question, a parent cannot directly hedge a subsidiary held by another subsidiary if the intervening subsidiary has a different functional currency from the parent or the ultimate subsidiary.</td>
<td>IAS 39 allows an entity to designate either a derivative or non-derivative financial instrument (or a combination thereof) as hedging instruments for net investment hedging, but does not specifically comment on the ability to use fixed-for-floating or floating-for-fixed cross currency swaps. IAS 39 does not have specific guidance on how ineffectiveness of a net investment hedge should be measured. IFRIC 16 addresses, in part, the absence of detailed guidance in IFRS for where, within a consolidated group, hedging instruments that are hedges of a net investment can be held. IFRIC 16 clarifies that the hedged risk may be designated as the foreign currency exposure arising between the functional currency of the foreign operation and the functional currency of any parent entity (the immediate, intermediate or ultimate parent entity) of that foreign operation. IFRIC 16 says that any entity within the group, irrespective of the ownership structure, is permitted to hold the hedging instrument, as long as the hedging instrument is effective in offsetting the risk arising from the exposure to the functional currency of the foreign operation and the functional currency of the specified parent entity. (IFRIC 16 even allows the foreign operation that itself is being hedged to hold the hedging instrument.) The functional currency of the entity holding the hedging instrument is irrelevant. The specified parent entity, the hedged risk, and the hedging instrument should all be designated and documented at inception.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

US GAAP guidance for net investment hedging is voluminous, even though the permissible hedge structures are fewer. IFRC 16 clarifies the broad flexibility in IFRS to place the hedging instrument within the consolidated entity, but the specific guidance on permitted hedging instruments and the methods of measuring hedge ineffectiveness is much less detailed. There are two specific differences: (1) IFRS has no specific prohibition of the use of a cross currency swap with multiple underlyings (a fixed-for-floating cross currency swap or a floating-for-fixed cross currency swap), but notes that such a derivative would be unlikely to be effective; (2) under IFRIC 16, a parent entity can directly execute a net investment hedge of a “third-tier” subsidiary even if there is an intervening subsidiary in the “second-tier” that does not have the same functional currency. Furthermore, this flexibility is available under IFRS whether the step-by-step method or the direct method of consolidation is used under IAS 21. (See the “Foreign currency translation” section of this publication for more details on the two methods.) Under ASC 815, the ownership structure of the entire entity, and the functional currency of each entity, must be respected.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption, entities that have followed the US GAAP approach will be able to transition to IFRS without significant adjustments, because it is likely that net investment hedge designations under US GAAP are also acceptable under IFRS. However, on a prospective basis, entities may want to take advantage of the increased flexibility that IFRS offers to structure net investment hedges.

28. Would the reporting entity like to designate a non-derivative (that is, a debt instrument) or a combination of a derivative and a non-derivative instrument as the hedging instrument of a foreign currency risk?

Yes ☐  No ☐

While both standards permit non-derivative instruments to be used as hedging instruments in certain hedges that present foreign currency exchange risk, the US GAAP guidance is more detailed and prescriptive. US GAAP also explicitly prohibits combining derivatives and non-derivatives together and using them in a joint fashion as a hedging instrument.

US GAAP — 815-20-25-51A through 25-71

A non-derivative instrument (e.g., a debt instrument), can be designated as a hedging instrument as long as it results in a foreign currency transaction gain or loss and is designated as a hedge of:

► the changes in the fair value of an unrecognized firm commitment attributable to foreign currency exchange risk, or
► the foreign currency exposure on a net investment in a foreign operation.

IFRS — IAS 39.72, 77, 87, IG.F.1.2

IAS 39 defines a hedging instrument as a designated derivative or non-derivative financial asset or financial liability whose fair value or cash flows are expected to offset changes in the fair value or cash flow of the item being hedged. It provides that a non-derivative financial asset or non-derivative financial liability may be designated as a hedging instrument as long as the hedged risk is foreign currency risk.

IAS 39 also permits, in the case of a hedge of currency risk, two or more non-derivatives or proportions of them, or a combination of
It is never appropriate in US GAAP to use a non-derivative as a hedging instrument outside of the specific foreign currency contexts listed above. In addition, ASC 815-20-25-71(d)(2) prohibits considering a separate derivative and a cash instrument as a single synthetic instrument for accounting purposes. For example, a debt instrument denominated in the investor’s functional currency and a cross-currency interest rate swap cannot be accounted for as synthetically created foreign-currency-denominated debt to be designated as a hedge of the entity’s net investment in a foreign operation.

derivatives and non-derivatives or proportions of them, to be jointly designated as the hedging instrument. For example, an USD functional currency entity may combine its GBP denominated fixed rate debt with a receive-fixed-GBP, pay-floating-EURO currency swap as a synthetic floating-rate EURO debt as a hedge of its net investment in a EURO subsidiary.

Implications:

Compared to US GAAP, current IFRS offers more flexibility as it permits designation of a non-derivative financial asset or financial liability as a hedging instrument in a hedge of any foreign currency risk. In addition, IFRS permits entities to combine a derivative and non-derivative together and designate the resultant synthetic instrument as a hedging instrument. This flexibility would allow entities additional hedge accounting opportunities and enable them to adopt new strategies to manage risks while achieving hedge accounting under IFRS. This may be a difference without a distinction however. When IAS 39 illustrates the use of non-derivatives as hedges of foreign currency risk, all of the illustrations are hedges of net investments or hedges of firm commitments, the same as US GAAP. The ability to combine a derivative and a non-derivative, however, is unique to IAS 39.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.

Yes No Depends on policy election

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption, entities should reflect in their opening IFRS balance sheet only a hedging relationship of a type that would be able to qualify for hedge accounting under IAS 39. Hedging relationships using the derivatives and/or non-derivative financial instruments discussed above that are permissible under US GAAP would most likely also be deemed an “eligible” type of hedge relationship under IFRS and therefore, they should be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet upon transition, resulting in no adjustments to the opening IFRS balance sheet. After transition to IFRS, a reporting entity may be able to designate a non-derivative financial instrument as a hedging instrument in eligible foreign currency cash flow hedges or other types of foreign currency fair value hedges, and use synthetically created hedging instruments in such designations.
29. Does the entity employ a central treasury-type function, utilizing internal foreign currency derivative contracts to achieve hedging accounting for stand-alone subsidiaries, while offsetting such exposures with a third party on a net basis?

An internal foreign currency derivative contract is one that has been entered into with another member of a consolidated group (such as a treasury center) rather than with an external third party, such as a bank. Under US GAAP these derivatives may be designated as hedges if certain criteria for achieving offset with a third party are met; however, under IFRS only instruments that directly involve a third party on a one-for-one basis can be designated as hedging instruments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 815-20-25-61 through 25-64</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 39.73, BC165 through 172</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An internal foreign currency derivative can be a hedging instrument in a foreign currency cash flow hedge of a forecasted borrowing, purchase, or sale or an unrecognized firm commitment in the consolidated financial statements only if: (1) the criteria for foreign currency cash flow hedge accounting in ASC 815 are satisfied from the perspective of the member of the consolidated group using the derivative, and (2) the member of the consolidated group not using the derivative as a hedging instrument either: (1) enters into a derivative contract with an unrelated third party to offset the exposure that results from that internal derivative or (2) if the conditions in ASC 815-20-25-62 through 25-64 (offsetting net exposures) are met, enter into derivative contracts with unrelated third parties that would offset, on a net basis for each foreign currency, the foreign exchange risk arising from multiple internal derivative contracts. The conditions in ASC 815-20-25-62 include a requirement that the offsetting net third-party derivative must mature within the same 31-day period that the internal derivatives mature and must be entered into within three business days after the designation of the internal derivatives as hedging instruments.</td>
<td>For hedge accounting purposes, only instruments that involve a party external to the reporting entity (i.e., external to the group, or individual entity that is being reported on) can be designated as hedging instruments. Although individual entities within a consolidated group may enter into hedging transactions with other entities within the group, any such intragroup transactions are eliminated on consolidation. Therefore, such hedging transactions do not qualify for hedge accounting in the consolidated financial statements of the group. However, they may qualify for hedge accounting in the separate financial statements of individual entities within the group.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Under US GAAP, ASC 815 provides an exception to the general principle that an intercompany derivative would be eliminated when preparing the consolidated financial statements by indicating that a foreign currency derivative instrument that has been entered into with another member of a consolidated group could be a hedging instrument in the consolidated financial statements. This exception applies only to situations in which the other member of the consolidated group has entered into a one-to-one offsetting contract with an unrelated third party. It also applies to some situations in which those internal derivatives are offset by unrelated third-party contracts on a net basis and the member of the consolidated group using the intercompany derivative as a hedging instrument satisfies the criteria for foreign currency cash flow hedge accounting. The
accommodation described in the preceding sentence allowed entities applying US GAAP to preserve much of the pre-existing central treasury functions in place prior to the effective date of FAS 133 (codified into ASC 815) which allowed external derivatives to be more efficiently used by only focusing on the net exposure to the consolidated group. This accommodation was the direct result of FAS 138, *Accounting for Certain Derivative Instruments and Certain Hedging Activities an amendment of FASB Statement No. 133* that was issued prior to FAS 133’s effective date in order to provide practical remedies to some of the most unforgiving aspects of the original FAS 133. This accommodation, which was codified in ASC 815, was not provided in IAS 39.

**Identified difference?**

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**Identified difference?**

| Yes | No | Depends on policy election |

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon initial adoption, multinational entities utilizing central treasury functions will need to identify all hedges accomplished using the netting accommodations of ASC 815-20-25-61 through 25-64 and prepare new hedge structures that are compliant with IAS 39’s requirements that each hedge be supported with a derivative with an external third party. The opening IFRS balance sheet can reflect the application of hedge accounting up until the transition date as long as the hedge relationships are of the type that would qualify for hedge accounting under IFRS; however, use of central treasury functions should be discontinued upon transition.

**30. Does the reporting entity hedge its foreign currency risks associated with a forecasted intercompany transaction (e.g., royalty revenue)?**

Large multinational firms transact regularly with their foreign subsidiaries or operations and thus expose themselves to the foreign currency risks associated with these transactions. For example, a US parent entity sells inventory to its Japanese subsidiary in Japanese Yen, or a distributor of copyrighted music compact discs with a USD functional currency receives Canadian dollar royalty revenue for every compact disc that its Canadian subsidiary sells. To manage the foreign currency risks, entities often hedge the foreign currency exposure to variability in the functional-currency-equivalent cash flows associated with these intercompany transactions.

One example of a hedgeable transaction in consolidated financial statements under both standards is a forecast sale or purchase of inventories between members of the same consolidated group if there is an onward sale of the inventory to an external party, when such sale or purchase is denominated in a currency other than the functional currency of the entity entering into that transaction. In this example, the hedged transaction is the foreign currency risk associated with an intercompany transaction, but ultimately there is a related external transaction (the sale to an external party) that affects consolidated profit or loss.

The two standards however appear to differ with respect to permitted hedge accounting for intercompany royalties.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A forecasted transaction is a transaction with a party external to the reporting entity (except as permitted by ASC 815-20-25-38 through 25-40)</td>
<td>In consolidated financial statements the foreign currency risk of a highly probable forecast intragroup transaction may qualify as a hedged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and presents an exposure to variations in cash flows for the hedged risk that could affect reported earnings.

Under ASC 815-20-25-38, a reporting entity is permitted to hedge the foreign currency exposure to variability in the functional-currency-equivalent cash flows associated with a forecasted intercompany transaction (e.g., a forecasted royalty from a foreign subsidiary), provided that the forecasted transaction is denominated in a currency other than the hedging unit’s functional currency and that the operating unit that has the foreign currency exposure is a party to the hedging instrument (or another member of the consolidated group with the same functional currency and no intervening subsidiary with a different functional currency is a party to the hedging instrument). The forecasted transaction does not need to be with a party external to the reporting entity.

item in a cash flow hedge, provided the transaction is denominated in a currency other than the functional currency of the entity entering into that transaction and the foreign currency risk will affect consolidated profit or loss. For this purpose an entity can be a parent, subsidiary, associate, joint venture or branch. If the foreign currency risk of a forecast intragroup transaction does not affect consolidated profit or loss, the intragroup transaction cannot qualify as a hedged item. This is usually the case for royalty payments, interest payments or management charges between members of the same group unless there is a related external transaction. However, when the foreign currency risk of a forecast intragroup transaction will affect consolidated profit or loss, the intragroup transaction can qualify as a hedged item. An example is forecast sales or purchases of inventories between members of the same group if there is an onward sale of the inventory to a party external to the group.

### Implications:

ASC 815 and IAS 39 appear to be largely similar on the concept of how the hedging guidance interacts with ASC 830, and IAS 21, respectively, with respect to many intercompany transactions. However, the key difference appears to affect intercompany royalties.

ASC 815 has been said to convey a mixed message with respect to royalty payments, in that it specifically lists intercompany royalties as an example of an eligible hedged item in ASC 815-20-25-38 and then illustrates (in ASC 815-30-55-67 through 55-76) the hedging of intercompany royalties as a permitted cash flow hedging activity, yet simultaneously implies that cash flow hedge accounting is supportable only if a transaction could affect consolidated reported earnings. The above citation from IFRS cites intercompany royalties as an illustration of an unlikely-to-qualify hedged item, presumably because intercompany royalties would cleanly eliminate in consolidated earnings. Conceivably US GAAP lists intercompany royalties as permitted hedged transactions because they relate to external transactions that precede such royalties and affect consolidated earnings, just as intercompany sales of inventory relate to external transactions with third parties that follow such intercompany sales.

This difference could affect many entities applying US GAAP that use derivatives to manage their foreign currency risks associated with forecasted foreign currency denominated intercompany royalty revenue. But there is likely to be further debate and reconsideration over whether royalty payments can be said to be “unrelated” to external transactions and therefore not affecting consolidated profit or loss.

(Note that the excerpt from IAS 39, AG99A also lists “interest payments or management charges between members of the same group” as unlikely-to-qualify hedged items. The application of the concepts in ASC 815-20-25-15(c) would likely reach the same conclusion for internal interest and internal management charges under US GAAP.)
Identified difference?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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Describe:

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IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption, entities shall reflect in their opening IFRS balance sheets only a hedging relationship of a type that would be able to qualify for hedge accounting under IAS 39. Accordingly, assuming no further clarifications occur in the meantime, intercompany forecasted transactions (e.g., forecasted royalty revenue from a foreign subsidiary) that do not involve a third party transaction are not an “eligible” type of hedge relationships under IFRS. Therefore, such hedge relationships shall not be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet.
**Fair value measurements**

This section of the publication discusses the similarities and differences between the fair value accounting guidance under IFRS and US GAAP. The following is a list of the pronouncements with fair value measurement guidance in US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 820, <em>Fair Value Measurement</em></td>
<td>► IFRS 13, <em>Fair Value Measurement</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 718, <em>Compensation — Stock Compensation</em></td>
<td>► IFRS 2, <em>Share-Based Payment</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 840, <em>Leases</em></td>
<td>► IAS 17, <em>Leases</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Share-based payment transactions addressed under ASC 505-50 and ASC 718 (excluding ASC 718-40) and fair value measurements used for the purpose of lease classification or measurement under ASC 840 have been specifically excluded from the scope of ASC 820. As such, the determination of “fair value” under these topics is based on the specific guidance provided in each of the respective standards.

**Similarities:**

ASC 820 and IFRS 13 both provide a framework for measuring fair value that is applicable under the various accounting topics that require (or permit) fair value measurements in US GAAP and IFRS respectively. The measurement of fair value across US GAAP and IFRS is based on a single definition of fair value, and a generally consistent framework for the application of that definition.

Like ASC 820, IFRS 13 defines fair value as an exit price. That is, the price to sell an asset or transfer a liability. Both ASC 820 and IFRS 13 acknowledge that the fair value of an asset or liability at initial recognition may not always be its transaction price, as exit and entry prices can differ. In addition, both US GAAP and IFRS indicate that when the transaction price differs from fair value, the reporting entity shall recognize the resulting gain or loss in earnings unless the standard that requires or permits the fair value measurement specifies otherwise.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

Although the principles of measuring fair value are generally consistent between US GAAP and IFRS, certain differences could result in adjustments to fair value measurements for first-time IFRS adopters. One difference discussed below relates to the use of net asset value (NAV) as a practical expedient for fair value measurements.

Another difference relates to the recognition of day-one gains and losses for financial instruments initially measured at fair value. In December 2010, the IASB issued an amendment to IFRS 1 giving first-time adopters the option to apply IAS 39 prospectively to day one gain or loss transactions occurring on or after the date of transition to IFRS. As such, unless a first-time adopter elects to apply IAS 39 retrospectively, day one gain or loss transactions that occurred prior to the date of transition to IFRS would not need to be retrospectively restated. Prior to the amendment, first-time adopters were required to retrospectively restate day one gain or loss transactions to the fixed dates included in IFRS 1 for such transactions.

This section of this publication does not address differences in measurement objectives between IFRS and US GAAP (e.g., where fair value is required or permitted under IFRS but not US GAAP, or vice versa). These differences are separately addressed in other sections of this publication.
1. Has the reporting entity recognized “day 1” gains or losses on the initial recognition of financial instruments?

A “day 1” gain or loss represents the unrealized gain or loss resulting from a difference between an asset’s or liability’s transaction price and its fair value at initial recognition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 820-10-30</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 13.57-60, IAS 39.AG76</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The exit price notion in ASC 820 allows for differences between transaction price (an entry price) and fair value (an exit price). Paragraph 820-10-30-3A discusses situations in which transaction prices may not represent the fair value of an asset or liability at initial recognition. For example, transaction price may not represent fair value in a situation in which the unit of account represented by the transaction price is different than the unit of account for the asset or liability measured at fair value. This could occur when the transaction price for a complex financial instrument includes a fee for structuring the transaction. Alternatively, transaction price could differ from fair value if the market in which the reporting entity acquired the asset (or assumed the liability) is different from the principal (or most advantageous) market in which the entity will dispose of the asset (or transfer the liability). While helpful in identifying the types of factors an entity should consider in assessing whether fair value would differ from transaction price, the list provided in paragraph 820-10-30-3A is not intended to be all inclusive.</td>
<td>The exit price notion in IFRS 13 also allows for differences between transaction price (an entry price) and fair value (an exit price). The situations in which transaction prices may not represent the fair value of an asset or liability at initial recognition are discussed in paragraph 13.B4 and are identical to those in paragraph 820-10-30-3A. However, for financial instruments, IAS 39.AG76 states that the best evidence of the fair value of a financial instrument at initial recognition is normally the transaction price (i.e., the fair value of the consideration given or received). If an entity determines that the fair value of a financial instrument at initial recognition differs from the transaction price, it should only recognize this difference as a gain or loss if fair value is evidenced by a quoted price in an active market for an identical asset or liability (i.e., a Level 1 input) or based on a valuation technique that uses only data from observable markets. In all other cases, the difference is deferred and subsequently recognized “as a gain or loss only to the extent that it arises from a change in a factor (including time) that market participants would take into account when pricing the asset or liability.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IAS 39 indicates that the best evidence of fair value of a financial instrument at initial recognition is normally the transaction price unless the fair value of the instrument is evidenced by observable market data. The IASB concluded that those conditions were necessary and sufficient to provide reasonable assurance that fair value was other than the transaction price for the purpose of recognizing up-front gains or losses.

US GAAP contains no specific requirements regarding the observability of inputs, thereby potentially allowing for the recognition of gains or losses at initial recognition for financial instruments even when the fair value measurement is based on a valuation model with significant unobservable inputs (i.e., Level 3 measurements).

Accordingly, the ability to recognize “day 1” gains and losses for financial instruments under current IFRS is more restrictive than under US GAAP.
2. Does the reporting entity measure the fair value of its alternative investments based on net asset value (NAV), as a practical expedient?

Certain types of investments, often referred to as alternative investments, permit an investor to redeem its investment directly with, or receive distributions from, the investee at times specified in the investee’s governing documents. Examples of these alternative investments, which are commonly in the form of limited partnership interests, include ownership interests in hedge funds, private equity funds, real estate funds, venture capital funds, commodity funds, offshore fund vehicles, and funds of funds. It is common practice for the investees to provide investors in these funds with information regarding the pro rata share of the fair value of the underlying investments in the fund (i.e., the fund’s net asset value or NAV).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 820-10-35-59 through 35-62</th>
<th>IFRS — None</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 820 provides a practical expedient to estimate the fair value of certain alternative investments using net asset value per share (NAV) or its equivalent. The scope of this practical expedient is limited to investments without readily determinable fair values in investment companies (including investments in a real estate fund for which it is industry practice to measure investment assets at fair value on a recurring basis and to issue financial statements that are consistent with the measurement principles in ASC 946). However, the practical expedient cannot be used for in-scope investments if it is probable as of the measurement date that the entity will sell the investment (or a portion of the investment) for an amount other than NAV. When calculated in a manner consistent with the measurement principles of ASC 946, and as of the reporting entity’s measurement date, unadjusted NAV may be used, as a practical expedient, to estimate the fair value of alternative investments. In those situations in which the NAV of the investment obtained from the investee is not as of the reporting entity’s measurement date or is not calculated in a manner consistent with the measurement principles of ASC 946, the reporting entity considers whether an adjustment to the most recent NAV per share is necessary. The guidance in ASC 820 notes that “the objective of any adjustment is to estimate a NAV per share for the investment that is calculated in a manner consistent with the measurement principles of ASC 946 as of the reporting entity’s measurement date.”</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide a practical expedient to assume that NAV reflects the fair value of these alternative investments. As such, when these investments are measured at fair value, (e.g., an investment in a venture capital organization accounted for at fair value under IAS 39), the measurement should consider all the attributes that market participants would consider when transacting for the investment (i.e., the price that would be received in a sale of the investment to an independent party).</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

In some instances, an alternative investment’s NAV may represent its fair value. For example, if a hedge fund is open to new investors, presumably the fair value of an investment in the fund would not be expected to be higher than the amount that a new investor would be required to directly invest with the fund in order to obtain a similar interest. Similarly, the fair value of the investment would not be expected to be an amount lower than the current holder could receive by directly redeeming its investment with the hedge fund (if possible).

However, in other instances the NAV of a fund may not necessarily represent the fair value of an equity interest in the fund because NAV may not capture all the attributes of the equity interest in the fund that market participants would consider in pricing the interest. This could be the case when, for example, a hedge fund does not stand ready to provide liquidity to investors and therefore the reporting entity cannot redeem its investment with the fund at the measurement date. Likewise, the fair value of an interest in a private equity fund will often differ from its NAV because the fair value of the underlying assets within the PE fund ignores any restrictions associated with a client’s equity interest in the fund, as well as the effect of any required additional capital contributions.

An entity that has utilized the practical expedient under ASC 820 to measure its alternative investments at NAV may be required to make an adjustment upon its initial adoption of current IFRS, if it is determined that NAV does not represent the instrument’s fair value.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
Foreign currency matters

Similarities:
Guidance under ASC 830, Foreign Currency Matters, and IAS 21, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates, are similar in their approach to foreign currency translation. Although US GAAP and IFRS contain different criteria in determining an entity’s functional currency, both ASC 830 and IAS 21 generally result in the same conclusion. Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the functional currency is defined as the currency of the primary economic environment in which the entity operates, and this is normally the currency of the environment in which the entity generates and expends cash.

Also, although there are significant differences in accounting for foreign currency translation in hyperinflationary economies under ASC 830 and IAS 29, Financial Reporting in Hyperinflationary Economies, both standards require the identification of hyperinflationary economies.

Both standards use the terms “remeasurement” and “translation” identically. Both standards require foreign currency transactions of an entity to be remeasured into its functional currency with amounts resulting from changes in exchange rates being reported in income. Similarly, both standards allow financial statements to be presented in a currency other than the entity’s functional currency (i.e., the reporting currency) but this requires translation of an entity’s financial statements from the functional currency to the reporting currency. With the exception of the translation of financial statements in hyperinflationary economies, the method used by both US GAAP and IFRS to translate financial statements from one currency to the reporting currency is the same, and both US GAAP and IFRS require remeasurement into the functional currency before translation into the reporting currency.

Both standards require certain foreign exchange effects related to net investments in foreign operations to be reported in shareholders’ equity (i.e., the cumulative translation adjustment portion of other comprehensive income (OCI), or “CTA”) rather than through net income when the entities related to the transactions are consolidated, combined or accounted for by the equity method in the reporting entity’s financial statements. In general, the cumulative translation adjustment amounts reported in OCI are reclassified from equity into income when there is a sale (including the loss of a controlling financial interest) or complete liquidation of the foreign operation.

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<tbody>
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<td>► ASC 830, Foreign Currency Matters</td>
<td>► IAS 21, The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 480, Distinguishing Liabilities from Equity</td>
<td>► IAS 29, Financial Reporting in Hyperinflationary Economies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, Consolidation</td>
<td>► IFRIC 16, Hedges of a Net Investment in a Foreign Operation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any current convergence plans in this area.

Discussion of IFRS 1:
Different cumulative translation adjustment amounts could exist under US GAAP and IFRS, and these differences could accumulate over a period of several years because neither IFRS nor US GAAP allows the cumulative translation differences to be entirely reclassified from OCI to profit and loss until the foreign operation is disposed. The IASB was concerned about the costs of restatements for reporting entities because full retrospective application of IAS 21 would require a first-time adopter to restate all financial statements of its foreign operations to IFRS from its date of inception or later acquisition onwards, and then determine the cumulative translation differences.
Foreign currency matters

arising in relation to each of these foreign operations. For this reason, IFRS 1 provides a reporting entity with the option to restate to zero all of the cumulative translation differences existing as of the transition date, including any gains or losses on related hedges residing in the cumulative translation adjustment account. We interpret this IFRS 1 exemption to apply to all cumulative translation differences arising from the translation into the reporting (presentation) currency of the parent entity, including both: (1) the translation differences arising between the parent’s and its subsidiaries’ functional currencies and (2) the translation differences arising between the parent’s functional currency and reporting currency, if any. Accordingly, the gain or loss on a subsequent disposal of any foreign operation excludes translation differences that arose before the date of transition to IFRS and includes only the subsequent translation differences.

The IASB decided not to exempt first-time adopters from retrospective application of IAS 29. Although the cost of restating financial statements for the effects of hyperinflation in periods before the date of transition to IFRS might exceed the benefits, particularly if the currency is no longer hyperinflationary, the IASB concluded that a full retrospective “restatement should be required because hyperinflation can make unadjusted financial statements meaningless or misleading.”

As a result, in preparing its opening IFRS balance sheet, a first-time adopter should apply the requirements of IAS 29 on hyperinflation to any periods during which the economy of the functional currency or reporting currency was hyperinflationary. Also, because the determination of a hyperinflationary economy is slightly different under IFRS and US GAAP, reporting enterprises need to first re-perform the analysis for hyperinflationary economy under IFRS in order to appropriately apply IAS 29.

To make the restatement process less onerous, a first-time adopter may want to consider using fair value as deemed cost for long-lived assets such as property, plant and equipment, investment properties and certain intangible assets. If a first-time adopter applies the exemption to use fair value or a revaluation as deemed cost, it would apply IAS 29 to subsequent periods from the date the revalued amount or fair value was determined.

1. **Is the share capital of a reporting entity denominated in a currency other than its functional currency?**

   While this is not a common occurrence, it is possible that a reporting entity’s share capital is not denominated in its functional currency or reporting currency. For example, the British Virgin Islands is a tax haven for the incorporation of “international business companies,” with share capital commonly stated in US dollars (although there may be other share capital denominations). That international business company, however, might have operations in other nations such as China, and management may determine that the Renminbi (or RMB, issued by the People’s Bank of China, the monetary authority of the People’s Republic of China) is the functional currency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 830-10-45-17 and 45-18</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 21.23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equity balances, which are nonmonetary items, are remeasured using historical exchange rates.</td>
<td>IFRS does not indicate the exchange rate that should be used for the translation of equity balances. Therefore, equity balances (other than retained earnings) may be translated at either the historical exchange rate or the closing exchange rate (i.e., the spot exchange rate at the balance sheet date).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

If a reporting entity chooses to translate its share capital denominated in a currency other than its functional currency using the closing exchange rate instead of the historical exchange rate, the translated amount of share capital may differ between US GAAP and IFRS. However, even if the closing rate instead of the historical exchange rate is used in applying IFRS, the resulting exchange difference is also recognized in equity. Accordingly, the amount of total equity will be the same under either approach.

Identified difference?

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<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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2. Does the reporting entity have a corporate structure comprised of multiple levels of subsidiaries and parent companies, with different functional currencies, that are ultimately consolidated into the reporting entity?

US GAAP respects the ownership structure of a complex entity with differing functional currencies for purposes of performing the translation accounting to prepare the consolidated financial statements in the reporting currency. The consolidation is said to occur “step by step” (i.e., bottoms-up). In contrast, IFRS allows an entity to choose to effectively perform “direct” translation of each subsidiary into the reporting currency, ignoring any intervening subsidiaries (even if their functional currency is different).

Consider the following example: Reporting entity A (US Dollar functional currency) controls 100% of Intermediate subsidiary B (Euro functional currency). Intermediate subsidiary B in turn controls 100% of Lowest level subsidiary C (UK Pound Sterling functional currency).

```
Reporting entity A  
(US Dollar or USD functional currency)

Intermediate subsidiary B  
(Euro or EUR functional currency)

Lowest level subsidiary C  
(UK Pound Sterling functional currency)
```
**US GAAP — 830 and 810**

A “bottoms-up” approach is required in order to reflect the appropriate foreign currency effects and hedges in place. As such, the entity should be consolidated by an enterprise that controls the entity.

Therefore, the “step-by-step” method of consolidation is used whereby each entity is consolidated into its immediate parent until the ultimate parent (i.e., the reporting entity) has consolidated the financial statements of all the entities below it.

In the example above, Lowest level subsidiary C’s financial statements are first translated from UK pound sterling into euros and consolidated into Intermediate subsidiary B. Then, the consolidated financial statements of Intermediate subsidiary B (which now include Lowest level subsidiary C) are translated from euros to US dollars and consolidated into Reporting Entity A.

**IFRS — IFRIC 16.17**

The method of consolidation is not specified and, as a result, either the “direct” or the “step-by-step” method of consolidation is used.

Under the “direct” method, each entity within the consolidated group is directly translated into the functional currency of the ultimate parent and then consolidated into the ultimate parent (i.e., the reporting entity) without regard to any legal structure that may include intermediate subsidiaries. The “step-by-step” method is also permitted and will be the same as under US GAAP.

In the example above, under the direct method, Lowest level subsidiary C’s financial statements would be translated from UK pound sterling directly to US dollars and then consolidated into Reporting Entity A. Likewise, Intermediate subsidiary B’s financial statements would be translated from euros to US dollars and consolidated into Reporting Entity A.

**Implications:**

The choice of consolidation method employed could affect the cumulative translation adjustments deferred within equity at intermediate levels and can therefore also affect the recycling of such exchange rate differences upon disposal of an intermediate foreign operation. However, if the intermediate subsidiary has the same functional currency as either the parent or the lower level subsidiary, the two consolidation methods normally should produce the same results.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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**IFRS 1 implications:**

As noted in the Introduction, IFRS 1 provides a reporting entity with the option to restate to zero all of the cumulative translation differences existing as of the transition date, including any gains or losses on related hedges residing in the cumulative translation adjustment account. Even though an entity might want to approach IFRS 1 under the assumption that under IFRS they would have used the same step-by-step translation methodology as under US GAAP, there might be other reasons that an IFRS-based CTA account would differ from US GAAP, and we expect most entities will want to elect the option to restate the CTA account to zero at transition. If elected, this exemption must be used for all foreign operations.
3. Does the reporting entity have a consolidated or equity method investee that is a foreign entity that is held for disposal?

This Question addresses whether a reporting enterprise should include the cumulative translation adjustment (CTA) in the carrying amount of the investment in assessing impairment of an investment in a foreign entity that is held for disposal if the planned disposal will cause some or all of the CTA to be reclassified to net income. The scope of this Question includes an investment in a foreign entity that is either consolidated by the reporting enterprise or accounted for by the reporting enterprise using the equity method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 830-30-45-13 through 45-15</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 21.25, IFRS 5.BC37 and 38</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>According to 830-30-45-13 through 45-15, a reporting entity that has committed to a plan that will cause the CTA for an equity method investment or a consolidated investment in a foreign entity to be reclassified into earnings should include the CTA as part of the carrying amount of the investment when evaluating that investment for impairment. An entity should include the portion of the CTA that represents a gain or loss from an effective hedge of the net investment in a foreign operation as part of the carrying amount of the investment when evaluating that investment for impairment. Pursuant to 830-30-45-13, no basis exists to include the CTA in an impairment assessment if that assessment does not contemplate a planned sale or liquidation that will cause reclassification of some amount of the CTA.</td>
<td>IFRS does not allow CTA to be considered as part of the carrying amount of the investment when evaluating that investment for impairment. Furthermore, IFRS does not permit any exchange differences to be recycled on the classification of an asset or a disposal group as held for sale. The recycling will take place when the asset or disposal group is sold.</td>
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</table>

Implications:

As a result of the difference between US GAAP and IFRS on how the carrying amount of the investment is evaluated when the investment is held for disposal, the determination of whether impairment actually exists and how it is measured may differ under the two standards. Consequently, impairment charges to be reported in the income statement under US GAAP may differ from that recorded under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

If a foreign entity is held for disposal at the time a company transitions to IFRS, a company would cease to consider as part of the carrying amount the effect of any associated cumulative translation adjustment existing as of the transition date. The effect could be to increase, decrease or reverse any impairment reported under US GAAP, depending on the amount of the associated cumulative translation adjustment and whether it is a debit or credit in other comprehensive income.
4. Does the reporting entity have subsidiaries, associates or joint ventures located in countries that are considered hyperinflationary?

Both GAAPs require the identification of hyperinflationary economies. The accounting for foreign exchange depends on whether or not a particular economy is considered hyperinflationary under both US GAAP and IFRS.

Under US GAAP, hyperinflation is deemed to exist when the cumulative rate of inflation over a three-year period is equal to or exceeds 100%. Under US GAAP, once an economy reaches a three-year period cumulative inflation of 100%, it is automatically considered hyperinflationary.

IFRS does not establish an absolute rate of inflation at which hyperinflation is deemed to arise. Instead, it considers certain economic characteristics of a country (e.g., whether the general population prefers to keep its wealth in non-monetary assets or in a relatively stable foreign currency, whether sales account receivables are indexed to inflation until collection, whether interest rates, wages and prices are linked to a price index) to be strong indicators of the existence of hyperinflation. Also, once the cumulative inflation rate over three years approaches or exceeds 100%, hyperinflation may be deemed to exist. Despite the potential differences in the assessment of hyperinflationary economies, both standards generally consider the same economies to be hyperinflationary.

Once the determination is made that a foreign entity is in a highly inflationary economy, US GAAP requires the financial statements of that foreign entity to be remeasured as if the functional currency were the parent's reporting currency. In contrast, IFRS maintains the original functional currency (the local currency) but requires that it be "indexed" for inflation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 830-10-45-11 and 45-15</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 29.8, 11-26, 38; IAS 21.42 through 43</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local functional currency financial statements are remeasured as if the functional currency was the reporting currency (US dollar in the case of a US parent) with resulting exchange differences recognized in income. Monetary items are remeasured into the reporting currency using the exchange rate at the balance sheet date. Non-monetary assets and liabilities are remeasured into the reporting currency at the historical foreign exchange rate, which for this purpose is the exchange rate on the date of the change to highly inflationary accounting. For profit and loss items, it is acceptable to use appropriately weighted average exchange rates. All remeasurement gains and losses are recognized in earnings. Translation is usually not required since the financial statements of a foreign entity in a highly inflationary economy are already remeasured directly into the reporting currency. When an economy ceases to be considered highly inflationary, the reporting currency amounts at the date of change would be translated back into the local currency at current</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFRS requires that the functional currency be maintained. However, local functional currency financial statements (current and prior period) need to be restated in terms of the measuring unit current at the balance sheet date with the resultant effects recognized in income. For many balance sheet amounts, this may be accomplished by applying a general price index. For monetary items, no adjustment is required since they are already at current values. Non-monetary items that are carried at cost are restated by the changes in the index since they were acquired. All items in the income statement are also expressed in terms of the measuring unit current at the balance sheet date, and therefore, all amounts are restated by applying the change in the general price index from the dates when the items of income and expense were initially recorded in the financial statements. Once the financial statements are adjusted by applying a general price index, the financial statements are translated to the reporting currency at the current rate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Foreign currency matters

Exchange rates and those amounts would become the new functional currency accounting bases for the nonmonetary assets and liabilities. Highly inflationary accounting is applied as of the beginning of the reporting period after an economy becomes highly inflationary.

When an economy ceases to be hyperinflationary, the amounts expressed in the measuring unit current at the end of the previous reporting period would be the basis for the carrying amounts in its subsequent financial statements.

Hyperinflationary accounting is applied for the period ending on or after the date in which an economy is determined to be hyperinflationary.

Implications:

Because US GAAP and IFRS differ significantly in their approaches for hyperinflationary accounting, the carrying amounts and the operating results relating to foreign entities in hyperinflationary economies will be different between IFRS and US GAAP both at the stand-alone and consolidated financial statements levels.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

In preparing its opening IFRS balance sheet, a first-time adopter should apply the requirements of IAS 29 on hyperinflation to any periods during which the economy of the functional currency or presentation currency was hyperinflationary.

5. Has the reporting entity changed its functional currency from the reporting currency to a foreign currency?

Once a determination of the functional currency is made, that decision shall be consistently used for each foreign entity unless significant changes in economic facts and circumstances indicate clearly that the functional currency has changed. This Question addresses those changes in facts and circumstances in which, for example, the functional currency of a foreign subsidiary of a US parent (which reports in US dollars) must change from the US dollar to that subsidiary’s local currency due to changes in the factors considered in determining the functional currency.

Note: This Question does not relate to circumstances where a subsidiary changes its functional currency because it no longer is considered to operate in a hyperinflationary economy (i.e., change of status from hyperinflationary economy to non-hyperinflationary economy).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 830-10-45-9</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 21.37</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The change in functional currency from the reporting currency to a foreign currency is accomplished by restating the carrying amount of a non-monetary asset (e.g., inventory, plant and equipment) to the amount that is reflective of an inception is not relevant.</td>
<td>The effect of a change in functional currency is accounted for prospectively. Accordingly, the amount that would have been recorded had the new functional currency been in effect at inception is not relevant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
assumption that the foreign currency had been the functional currency all along.

For purposes of translation back to the reporting currency (which has not changed), such non-monetary assets are translated to the reporting currency using current exchange rates.

This two-step process of restating to a new functional currency and then translating back to the same reporting currency as used in the prior financial statements (before the change in functional currency) produces a difference that is recorded in CTA rather than earnings.

A reporting entity restates or translates all items into the new functional currency using the foreign exchange rate at the date of the change in functional currency. The resulting translated amounts for non-monetary items are treated as their historical cost.

For purposes of translation back to the reporting currency (which has not changed), the non-monetary assets are translated to the reporting currency using current exchange rates.

**Implications:**

The difference in carrying values of non-monetary assets will result in differences in depreciation/amortization/impairment in the future.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

As noted in the Introduction, IFRS 1 provides a reporting entity with the option to restate to zero all of the cumulative translation adjustment existing as of the transition date. This Question highlights just one of many reasons why the cumulative translation adjustment may have accumulated to a different amount under IFRS than US GAAP.
Leases

Similarities:
The overall approach to accounting for leases under US GAAP and IFRS is very similar. Both standards provide nearly identical guidance for the determination of whether an arrangement is, or contains, a lease. The accounting for leases under both ASC 840 and IAS 17 is based on the view that a lease that transfers substantially all of the benefits and risks of ownership of the leased asset should be accounted for as the acquisition of an asset and the incurrence of an obligation by the lessee and as a sale or financing by the lessor and that all other leases should be accounted for as operating leases. Under both US GAAP and IFRS, leases are classified by lessors and lessees based upon an assessment of the characteristics of the lease arrangement as of the inception of the lease (and upon modification of the lease) and the classification of the lease determines the initial and subsequent accounting for the lease arrangement. Although different terminology is used under US GAAP and IFRS (for instance, US GAAP uses the terms capital lease, direct financing lease and sales-type lease to identify specific types of lease arrangements that transfer substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership of leased assets to a lessee, whereas IFRS uses the term finance lease to broadly refer to all such leases), the accounting for arrangements by both lessors and lessees of these arrangements is fairly consistent.

Lessee accounting

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, a lessee would record a capital (finance) lease by recognizing a lease asset and a lease obligation, measured at the lower of the present value of the minimum lease payments or fair value of the asset. A lessee accounts for an operating lease by recognizing expense generally on a straight-line basis over the lease term. Any incentives under an operating lease are amortized on a straight-line basis over the term of the lease.

Lessor accounting

Both US GAAP and IFRS permit profit to be recognized, subject to certain limitations or restrictions, if a lease is classified as a sales-type lease (US GAAP) or finance lease (IFRS). Also under both US GAAP and IFRS, if a lease is a finance lease (i.e., a sales-type, direct finance or leveraged lease under US GAAP), the leased asset is replaced with a lease receivable. If a lease is classified as operating, rental income is recognized generally on a straight-line basis over the lease term and the leased asset is depreciated by the lessor over its useful life.

Primary US GAAP

- ASC 840, Leases

Primary IFRS

- IAS 17, Leases
- IFRIC 4, Determining Whether an Arrangement Contains a Lease

Convergence:

In early 2016, the IASB and FASB each issued a new lease accounting standard, IFRS 16, Leases, and ASC 842, Leases. Both standards require lessees to recognize most leases on their balance sheets as lease liabilities with corresponding right-of-use assets. However, there are significant differences between the standards (e.g., lessees do not classify leases under IFRS and can elect to account for leases of low-value assets under a model similar to today’s operating leases). This publication does not address the differences between the standards.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

IFRS 1 requires a first-time adopter to classify leases either as operating or finance leases based on the circumstances existing at the inception of the lease and not those existing at the date of transition to IFRS. However, that determination is based on the lease terms that are in force at the first-time adopter’s date of transition to IFRS. That is, lease classification should not be based on lease terms that are no longer in force. For example, if between the lease inception date and the date of transition to
IFRS the fair value of a leased asset decreased (i.e., a change in circumstances), the classification of the lease should be based upon the higher fair value of the leased asset that existed at inception (not the lower fair value as of the transition date). However, if a lease agreement has been modified between the lease inception date and the date of transition to IFRS to remove an option for the lessee to purchase the leased asset at the end of the lease term (i.e., a change in the terms of the lease), the purchase option that existed at inception should not be considered in the classification of the lease upon transition to IFRS. IFRS 1 contains no exception to this general rule with respect to lease accounting.

However, when assessing whether an arrangement contains a lease, first-time adopters are allowed to apply the same transition provisions as in IFRIC 4 and make an assessment based on facts and circumstances existing at the date of transition to IFRS. It is not necessary to go back to the inception of the arrangement to determine if the arrangement contains a lease.

Although the guidance for determining whether an arrangement contains a lease under IFRS is virtually identical to the guidance in US GAAP, first-time adopters that previously reported under US GAAP may reach a different conclusion using the transition provisions in IFRIC 4 than the conclusion previously reached if facts and circumstances have changed between the inception or modification date and the date of transition to IFRS. First-time adopters are not required to reassess the initial determination of whether an arrangement contains a lease at the date of transition to IFRS for those arrangements that were evaluated under ASC 840. However, first-time adopters who reported under US GAAP could have arrangements in place that have not been previously evaluated due to different effective dates and transition provisions between US GAAP and IFRS. First-time adopters would need to assess, under IFRIC 4, arrangements existing as of the date of transition that were not previously evaluated under ASC 840, and could perform that assessment based upon facts and circumstances as of the date of transition (rather than at the inception of the lease).

**Leases — General**

1. **Has the reporting entity entered into any arrangements that convey the right to use an asset or assets other than property, plant or equipment?**

   A lease arrangement is an arrangement that conveys the right to use an asset or assets. An arrangement that meets the definition of a lease (described further below), although not nominally identified as a lease, is considered to be a lease.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only arrangements that convey the right to use property, plant or equipment (i.e., land and/or depreciable assets) should be accounted for as leases. Arrangements conveying the right to use intangible assets or non-depreciable assets, other than land, are not accounted for as leases.</td>
<td>Lease accounting is broadly applicable to all arrangements that convey the right to use an asset with certain limited exceptions, such as leases to explore for or use natural resources and licensing agreements. Arrangements that convey the right to use assets other than land or depreciable assets, for example arrangements that provide the exclusive right to use an intangible asset for a finite period of time, may be considered leases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Arrangements outside of the scope of lease accounting under US GAAP may be within the scope of lease accounting under IFRS. If an entity is a party to such arrangements, on transition to IFRS, these arrangements will need to be assessed for classification as of the inception of the arrangement and accounted for as leases. Accounting for an arrangement as a lease may be significantly different than the accounting previously applied.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

2. Has the reporting entity entered into any leases involving land and building?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-10-25-38, 60 through 68</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.15A through 17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The land and building elements of a lease are generally considered as a single unit for purposes of lease classification, unless the fair value of the land represents 25% or more of the total fair value of the leased property or the arrangement meets either the transfer of ownership or bargain purchase option classification criterion.</td>
<td>The land and building elements of a lease are considered separately for purposes of lease classification, unless the land element is immaterial.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IFRS may require land and building elements of a lease to be separated for purposes of lease classification in circumstances in which those elements are considered as a single unit under US GAAP. For example, in lease arrangements in which the land element is less than 25% of the total fair value of the leased property, US GAAP would treat the arrangement as one unit while IFRS would treat it as one unit only if the land element’s fair value were deemed immaterial. It is likely that many leases accounted for as a single unit under US GAAP will require separation of the land and building elements under IFRS. Bifurcating leases involving land and buildings into separate components may result in different lease classification, particularly in lease arrangements that do not transfer ownership to the lessee or provide for a bargain purchase. Different lease classification can have a significant effect on how a lease is reflected within the financial statements.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
Leases — Lessee Accounting

3. Has the reporting entity entered into any lease arrangements as a lessee?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-10-25-1, 29 through 31, 37</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.7 through 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A lessee classifies a lease as either a capital or operating lease based on the application of four specific criteria. A lessee classifies a lease as a capital lease if any one of four specified criteria is met; otherwise, it is an operating lease. Certain of the criteria contain specific quantitative thresholds. For example, a lease is considered a capital lease if:  
  ► The lease term is at least 75% of the property's estimated remaining economic life  
  ► The present value of the minimum lease payments at the beginning of the lease term is 90% or more of the fair value of the leased property  
Note that additional criteria apply when the leased asset is real estate, which may also impact lease classification. | A lessee classifies a lease based on an overall assessment of the substance of the transaction. A lease is classified as a finance lease if it transfers substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership; otherwise, it is classified as an operating lease. IAS 17 provides examples and indicators of situations in which substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership are transferred in a lease. For example, IAS 17 provides the following examples of situations that would normally lead to a lessee classifying a lease as a finance lease:  
  ► The lease term is for the major part of the economic life of the asset  
  ► The present value of the minimum lease payments at the beginning of the lease term is substantially all of the fair value of the leased property  
The guidance for lease classification does not include quantitative bright-line criteria and IAS 17 specifically indicates that the examples and indicators are not always conclusive. As such, a lease may contain one of the indicators of a finance lease; however, if an assessment of other features of the lease results in an overall determination that the lease does not transfer substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership, the lease would be classified as an operating lease. |

Implications:

While the underlying principles for classifying leases under US GAAP and IFRS are similar, there are some differences that may result in an entity classifying a lease differently under these standards. For example, both standards consider the lease term in relation to the economic life of the asset and the present value of minimum lease payments in relation to the fair value of the leased asset in classifying a lease; however, IFRS does not include the specific quantitative thresholds found in US GAAP. ASC 840 includes bright-line tests that, if met, would require a lessee to classify a lease as a capital lease. In addition, ASC 840 includes specific rules on applying the classification tests to leases of real estate and leases that start in the last 25% of the total economic
life of the leased asset that are not included in IAS 17. IAS 17 also includes indicators that a lease should be classified as a finance lease that are not specified in ASC 840.

These differences could result in a different classification of a lease under IFRS and US GAAP. For example, a review of the overall substance of an arrangement may indicate that a lease classified as an operating lease in accordance with US GAAP should be classified as a finance lease under IFRS (e.g., a lease classified as an operating lease under US GAAP because the present value of the minimum lease payments equal 89% of the fair value of the asset could be considered a finance lease under IFRS).

Differences in lease classification could result from the differences between US GAAP and IFRS, having a significant effect on how a lease is reflected within the financial statements.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

---

4. **Has the reporting entity used its incremental borrowing rate to determine the present value of the minimum lease payments for purposes of lease classification and accounting?**

Lease arrangements commonly include payments over a period of time. The present value of the minimum lease payments under a lease is computed for purposes of lease classification and accounting. The discount rate used to determine the present value of the minimum lease payments has a significant effect on the present value calculation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-10-25-31</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lessee calculates the present value of minimum lease payments using the lower of its incremental borrowing rate or the interest rate implicit in the lease. If it is impractical for a lessee to learn the interest rate implicit in the lease, the lessee uses its incremental borrowing rate.</td>
<td>A lessee calculates the present value of minimum lease payments using the interest rate implicit in the lease. Only if it is impractical for a lessee to determine the interest rate implicit in the lease can the lessee use its incremental borrowing rate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

IFRS requires lessees to use the rate implicit in the lease, if known or practicable to determine, to calculate the present value of the minimum lease payments, while US GAAP requires lessees to use their incremental borrowing rate if it is lower than the rate implicit in the lease (if it is practical for the lessee to learn the implicit rate used by the lessor). As such, differences may exist between US GAAP and IFRS regarding the rate used to calculate the present value of minimum lease payments.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
5. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements involving real estate that are classified as operating leases for which the entity considers the real estate to be investment property?

Under IFRS, certain real estate interests may be considered investment property and special accounting treatment may be elected. Investment property includes land and/or a building or part of a building that is held for purposes of generating income from rentals and/or property appreciation. Property that is used to produce or supply goods or services, for administrative purposes or is held for sale as part of an entity's normal course of business is not considered investment property. Any entity, whatever the underlying nature of its business, can hold investment property assets. Investment property is discussed further at Question 4 in the “Property, plant and equipment” section within this questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.19, IAS 40.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP does not contain similar guidance.</td>
<td>A property interest held under an operating lease that otherwise satisfies the definition of an investment property may be classified as an investment property (carried under the fair value model) and accounted for as if it were a finance lease.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Specialized accounting for investment property does not exist under US GAAP. As such, an entity that has the right to use real estate under an operating lease will have the option to account for these arrangements differently under IFRS if these interests qualify as investment property. Implications related to investment property accounting are discussed further at Question 4 in the “Property, plant and equipment” section within this publication.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
6. **Has the reporting entity entered into any sale-leaseback transactions involving assets other than real estate?**

A sale-leaseback transaction involves the sale of an asset and leaseback of the same asset by the seller. The original seller of an asset is commonly referred to as the seller-lessee and the purchaser is commonly referred to as the buyer-lesser. Additional considerations apply to sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate (see Question 7).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-40-25-2 through 4</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.58 through 64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The recognition of a gain or loss associated with a sale-leaseback transaction is based on a measure of the right to use the asset that has been relinquished by the seller. When a seller-lessee leases back more than a minor portion of the asset sold, a portion or all of the gain or loss on the sale is deferred and amortized over the lease term. Only in situations in which a seller-lessee leases back only a minor portion (typically less than 10%) of the asset sold would the entire gain or loss on the sale be recognized immediately.</td>
<td>The recognition of a gain or loss associated with a sale-leaseback transaction is based on the classification of the leaseback (operating versus finance). When a seller-lessee leases back an asset sold and the lease is classified as an operating lease, the gain or loss on sale is recognized immediately (subject to adjustment if the sales price differs from fair value). When a seller-lessee leases back an asset sold and the lease is classified as a finance lease, the gain or loss is deferred and amortized over the lease term.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

US GAAP and IFRS differ in the recognition of gains or losses associated with sale-leaseback transactions. Importantly, IFRS provides that gains or losses on sale-leaseback transactions involving operating leasebacks are recognized immediately and may result in immediate recognition of gains or losses that would be deferred and amortized over the lease term under US GAAP. Because there are significant differences in accounting for sale-leaseback transactions under IFRS compared to US GAAP, an entity will need to reassess the accounting for all sale-leaseback transactions under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
7. **Has the reporting entity entered into any sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate?**

A sale-leaseback transaction involves the sale of an asset and leaseback of the same asset by the seller. The original seller of an asset is commonly referred to as the seller-lessee and the purchaser is commonly referred to as the buyer-lessee. Sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate include those involving only real estate, as well as those involving real estate with equipment, such as an office building with furniture and fixtures or a manufacturing facility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-40-25-9</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.58 through 64</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP has specific requirements related to the recognition of profit on sales of real estate. A sale-leaseback transaction involving real estate must qualify as a sale under these restrictive requirements before it is appropriate for the seller-lessee to account for the transaction as a sale. ASC 840-40 provides that if the seller-lessee has any continuing involvement with the property, other than a normal leaseback, the seller-lessee would be precluded from accounting for the transaction as a sale. Instead, the transaction should be accounted for either as a financing transaction or by using the deposit method. If the sale qualifies as a sale of real estate, the gain or loss on the sale is accounted for similar to other sale-leaseback transactions (see Question 6).</td>
<td>No distinction is made between the accounting for sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate and non-real estate assets and no specific rules related to sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate are provided.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

While US GAAP has very detailed and specific guidance on assessing and determining the appropriate accounting for sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate, IFRS does not include specific guidance on accounting for sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate. That is, IFRS does not distinguish between the accounting for a sale-leaseback transaction involving real estate and non-real estate assets. This difference in the specificity and rigor of the guidance could result in a sale-leaseback transaction involving real estate being accounted for differently under IFRS than under US GAAP. As such, an entity will need to reassess the accounting for sale-leaseback transactions involving real estate under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
8. Does the reporting entity have any arrangements for which it is the lessee and it is involved in the construction of the asset to be leased?

A lessee may be involved with the construction of an asset that will be leased to the lessee when the construction of the asset is completed. Various forms of the lessee’s involvement during the construction period may raise questions about whether the lessee is acting as an agent for the owner-lessee or is, in substance, the owner of the asset during the construction period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific rules govern the assessment of a lessee’s involvement in asset construction to determine if the lessee has substantially all of the construction period risk and therefore should be considered the owner of the asset during the construction period. If the lessee is considered the owner of the asset during the construction period, then a deemed sale-leaseback of the asset would occur when construction of the asset is complete and the lease term begins (see Questions 6 and 7 above for further discussion).</td>
<td>IFRS does not have specific guidance on accounting for arrangements in which the lessee is involved in the construction of the asset to be leased.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Lease arrangements with lessee involvement in the construction of the asset to be leased can be very complex. Because IFRS does not have specific guidance similar to that found in US GAAP, the determination of the appropriate accounting for such arrangements under IFRS will require significant judgment and will be based on the facts and circumstances of each arrangement.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
Leases — Lessor Accounting

9. Has the reporting entity entered into any lease arrangements as a lessor?

In a lease arrangement, a lessor conveys to a lessee the right to use an asset. The initial and subsequent accounting for a lease arrangement by a lessor is based on the classification of the lease arrangement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-10-25-1, 41 through 45</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.7 through 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lessor classifies a lease based upon the application of four specific criteria, which also apply to lessees, and application of two additional criteria that are only applicable to lessors. Certain of the criteria contain specific quantitative thresholds. If a lease meets one of the four specific criteria and both of the following criteria, a lease, excluding leases of real estate, is classified as a sales-type, direct financing or leveraged leases; otherwise the lease is classified as an operating lease:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectability of the minimum lease payments is reasonably predictable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No important uncertainties surround the amount of unreimbursable costs yet to be incurred by the lessor under the lease</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note that additional criteria apply when the leased asset is real estate which may also impact lease classification.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A lessor classifies a lease based upon an overall assessment of the substance of the transaction. A lease is classified as a finance lease if it transfers substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership; otherwise, it is classified as an operating lease. IAS 17 provides examples and indicators of situations where substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership are transferred in a lease. The guidance for lease classification does not include quantitative bright-line criteria nor does it include additional criteria specific to lessors. IAS 17 also specifically indicates that the examples and indicators are not always conclusive. As such, a lease may contain one of the indicators of a finance lease; however, if an assessment of other features of the lease results in an overall determination that the lease does not transfer substantially all of the risks and rewards of ownership, the lease would be classified as an operating lease.

Implications:

While the underlying principles for classifying leases under US GAAP and IFRS are similar, there are some differences that may result in an entity classifying a lease differently under these standards. For example, both standards consider the lease term in relation to the economic life of the asset and the present value of minimum lease payments in relation to fair value of the leased asset in classifying a lease; however, IFRS does not include the specific quantitative thresholds (i.e., bright-lines) or real estate specific guidance (see question 10 for further discussion) found in US GAAP. In addition, ASC 840 includes additional classification criteria applicable to lessors that are not included in IAS 17, and IAS 17 includes indicators that a lease should be classified as a finance lease that are not specified in ASC 840.

Differences in lease classification could result from the above differences between US GAAP and IFRS, having a significant effect on how a lease is reflected within the financial statements.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
10. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements involving real estate as the lessor?

Yes ☐ No ☐

A lessor may convey the right to use real estate, such as land, buildings or integral equipment, to a lessee under a lease arrangement. A lease classified as a sales-type lease under US GAAP or a finance lease under IFRS may result in the immediate recognition of dealer or manufacturer profit (or loss) by a lessor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-10-25-55 through 69</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17.7-17, BC8A through BC8F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lease arrangement involving real estate must transfer title to the property by the end of the lease term (among other criteria) to be classified as a sales-type lease. Otherwise, additional guidance is provided to determine if the lease should be classified as an operating, direct financing or leveraged lease. If a lease qualifies as a sales-type lease, the lessor accounts for the lease in the same manner as a seller of the same property under the restrictive requirements for real estate sales under US GAAP.</td>
<td>Title is not required to transfer by the end of the lease term for a lease involving real estate to be classified as a finance lease. If a lease qualifies as a finance lease, the lessor recognizes selling profit or loss in a manner consistent with an outright sale.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Because US GAAP contains specific criteria required to be met for a lessor to treat a lease of real estate as a sale and IFRS only contains general guidance, differences in accounting may arise. An entity will need to reassess the accounting for lease arrangements involving real estate under IFRS to determine if sale accounting is appropriate. Implications related to accounting for sales of real estate are discussed further at Question 17 in the “Revenue recognition” section within this publication.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
11. Does the reporting entity have any lease arrangements classified as a leveraged lease?

Yes ☐  No ☐

A leveraged lease is a special type of structured lease involving non-recourse financing. A leveraged lease involves at least three parties (a lessor, a lessee and a third-party financier), has sufficient non-recourse financing to result in substantial leverage, and results in the lessor’s net investment declining in early years and rising in later years. The combination of non-recourse financing and a cash flow pattern that typically enables the lessor to recover its investment in the early years of the lease (which comes in large part as a result of tax benefits) and thereafter affords the lessor the temporary use of funds from which additional income can be derived produces a unique economic effect. Due to this unique economic effect, special accounting rules exist for lessors in leveraged leases under US GAAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 840-30</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP provides for a separate lessor classification of leases as leveraged leases. Because of the unique combination of characteristics of leveraged leases, special accounting rules are provided for the lessor’s recognition of lease income, the net presentation of the investment in lease and the non-recourse debt and the accounting for deferred taxes in a leveraged lease.</td>
<td>IFRS does not include special classification or accounting for leveraged leases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Fundamental differences exist in accounting for leveraged leases between US GAAP and IFRS. No special rules exist under IFRS to account for leveraged leases; therefore, all leveraged leases will need to be classified as either operating or finance leases in accordance with IAS 17. In addition, no special presentation or accounting is provided for non-recourse debt and deferred taxes in a leveraged lease under IFRS and these amounts are presented and accounted for separately under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐  No ☐  Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
Income taxes

Similarities:

ASC 740, *Income Taxes*, and IAS 12, *Income Taxes*, provide the guidance for income tax accounting under US GAAP and IFRS, respectively. Both standards require an entity to account for both current tax effects and expected future tax consequences of events that have been recognized either for financial or tax reporting (i.e., deferred taxes) using an asset and liability approach. Further, under both standards, deferred tax liabilities for temporary differences arising at the acquisition date from non-deductible goodwill or the excess of financial reporting goodwill over tax goodwill for tax deductible goodwill are not recorded. Also, tax effects of items accounted for directly to equity during the current year are allocated directly to equity. Finally, neither GAAP permits the discounting of deferred taxes.

While the approaches to accounting for income taxes are similar, several differences do exist between US GAAP and IFRS, which are addressed in the following section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 810, <em>Consolidation</em></td>
<td>► IAS 37, <em>Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:

After abandoning joint convergence project amendments to IAS 12, the IASB subsequently decided to pursue improvements to IAS 12 related to the accounting for uncertain tax positions and deferred taxes on remeasurement of investment property at fair value. IAS 12 was amended for the income tax accounting associated with remeasurement of investment property at fair value. This amendment is effective for annual periods beginning on or after 1 January 2012 with earlier application permitted.

In November 2010, the IFRS Interpretations Committee recommended that the Board amend IAS 12 such that the reversal of temporary differences without creating or increasing taxable profit in a particular period does not qualify as a tax planning opportunity. In September 2011, the IASB decided to include the proposed amendments in its Exposure Draft (ED) related to annual improvements to the IFRSs 2010-2012 cycle. The comment period for this ED closed in September 2012. Additional research is ongoing.

In October 2015, the IFRS Interpretations Committee issued a proposed interpretation that would provide guidance on accounting for current and deferred tax liabilities and assets in circumstances in which there is uncertainty over income tax treatments. Developments on this proposal should be monitored.

In November 2015, the FASB issued ASU 2015-17, *Balance Sheet Classification of Deferred Taxes*. ASU 2015-17 requires entities to classify all deferred tax assets and liabilities as noncurrent on the balance sheet instead of separating deferred taxes into current and noncurrent amounts. For PBEs, ASU 2015-17 is effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those annual periods. For non-PBEs, it is effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within annual periods beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted.
In an exposure draft released in January 2015, the FASB proposed requiring companies to immediately recognize the income tax effects on intercompany transactions in their income statements, eliminating the current exception that requires companies to defer the income tax effects of certain intercompany transactions. In June 2016, the FASB decided it was determined that the current exception would be retained only for transfers of inventory within a consolidated group. A final standard is expected in 2016.

The Boards issued new standards on leases in early 2016. In US GAAP, leveraged lease accounting will be eliminated by ASU 2016-02, Leases (Topic 842), for new leases on the ASU’s effective date.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

IFRS 1 requires full retrospective application of IAS 12. A first-time adopter needs to apply IAS 12 to temporary differences between the carrying amount of the assets and liabilities in its opening IFRS balance sheet and their tax bases. Full retrospective application of IAS 12 requires a first-time adopter to establish the history of the items that give rise to temporary differences because, depending on the initial transaction, it may not be necessary to account for deferred tax, or changes in the deferred tax may need to be accounted for in other comprehensive income.

1. **Do the tax bases of an entity’s assets and liabilities differ depending on the manner in which the assets are recovered or the liabilities are settled?**

   Tax basis is currently referred to as “tax base” under IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.5, 7-8, 51-52</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tax basis is not defined. However, tax basis generally is a question of fact under the tax law. The tax basis of an asset or liability is determined by the tax consequences that would arise if the asset were recovered or the liability settled for its carrying amount at the reporting date. Management’s intent is not a factor in determining the tax basis of an asset or liability.</td>
<td>Tax base is generally the amount deductible or taxable for tax purposes, being defined as the amount attributed to assets and liabilities for tax purposes. Management's expectation at the end of the reporting period as to the manner in which it will recover the carrying amount of an asset or settle the carrying amount of a liability can affect the tax base. For example, if an entity would pay a different amount of tax depending on whether an asset is consumed in the business or sold, the entity measures deferred tax according to the expected method of realization. This effectively makes deferred tax a function of management’s intent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

IFRS presently permits an entity’s expectation as to the manner in which it will recover an asset or settle a liability to be factored in when determining the tax basis of an asset or liability. As such, the tax bases of an entity’s assets or liabilities may be different under IFRS. If the tax bases of an entity’s assets and liabilities change upon conversion to IFRS, the related deferred tax assets or liabilities will have to be adjusted.
### Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2. Does the entity have any uncertain income tax positions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-6, 740-10-30-7</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12, IAS 37</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The accounting for uncertain tax positions in ASC 740 requires a two-step process, separating recognition from measurement. A benefit is recognized when it is “more likely than not” to be sustained based on the technical merits of the position. The amount of benefit to be recognized is based on the largest amount of tax benefit that is greater than 50% likely of being realized upon ultimate settlement. Detection risk is not considered in the analysis.</td>
<td>No specific guidance. However, IAS 12 indicates tax assets and liabilities should be measured at the amount expected to be paid, based on enacted or substantively enacted tax legislation. Some entities apply the recognition principles in IAS 37 on provisions and contingencies with the IAS 12 measurement principles, while others have adopted an expected value approach (which may be similar to the approach included in the March 2009 Income Tax ED). Practice varies regarding consideration of detection risk in the analysis based on jurisdictional law.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

Unlike US GAAP, IFRS does not presently contain specific guidance on the accounting for uncertain tax positions. As such, diversity in practice exists regarding the recognition, derecognition and measurement of uncertain tax positions. An entity will need to adopt a policy on accounting for uncertain tax positions upon conversion to IFRS that is not inconsistent with the requirement in IAS 12 that tax assets and liabilities should be measured at the amount expected to be paid.
3. Has the entity recognized any deferred tax assets or liabilities associated with temporary differences initially arising from transactions that were not business combinations and that at the time of the transaction did not affect accounting or taxable profit or loss (e.g., acquisitions of assets)?

In most cases when an entity acquires an asset, the amount paid or received represents the basis of reporting for financial statement and tax purposes and no temporary difference is initially generated. In certain instances an entity may purchase a used asset from someone else, an asset that is not deductible for tax purposes, or an asset that is eligible for tax deductions in future periods greater or less than its cost, which could result in a difference between the book and tax bases of the asset acquired.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-51</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.15, 22 and 24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deferred taxes are recognized for temporary differences arising on the initial recognition of an acquired asset or liability. If the amount paid when acquiring a single-asset differs from its tax basis, the consideration paid is allocated between the asset and deferred tax effect. In this case, a simultaneous equation is used to determine the amount of the deferred tax and the value of the asset acquired.</td>
<td>Recognition of deferred taxes is prohibited for temporary differences arising from the initial recognition of an asset or liability in a transaction that is not a business combination and, at the time of the transaction, affects neither accounting nor taxable profit (e.g., acquisitions of nondeductible assets). This is referred to as the initial recognition exception. IAS 12 also prohibits an entity from subsequently recognizing changes in these unrecognized deferred tax assets or liabilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

For transactions in the scope of the initial recognition exception in IAS 12, an entity will be required to derecognize the deferred tax effects recorded and adjust the recorded amount of any assets acquired and, if applicable, any related liabilities.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

4. Has the entity recorded a valuation allowance related to some or all of the entity’s recognized deferred tax assets?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-30-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.24, 34 and 56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deferred tax assets are recognized in full and a valuation allowance is separately recognized to the extent it is more likely than not that the deferred tax asset will not be realized.</td>
<td>Deferred tax assets are recognized only to the extent it is probable (more likely than not) that they will be realized. A separate valuation allowance is not recognized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

IFRS requires a deferred tax asset to be recognized at the amount that is probable to be realized. Probable, as used under IAS 12, is equivalent to "more likely than not" used under ASC 740. Therefore, the deferred tax asset recognized under IFRS often should be equivalent to the deferred tax asset, net of valuation allowance, reported under US GAAP. As such, this difference often should result in differences only in disclosure in the notes to the financial statements.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

5. Has the enacted or “substantively enacted” tax law changed during the year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-30-8, 740-10-35-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.46 through 47</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current and deferred tax assets and liabilities are generally measured using the enacted tax rates or laws that apply to current taxable income or are expected to apply to taxable income in the periods in which the deductible or taxable temporary difference is expected to be realized or settled.</td>
<td>Current and deferred tax assets and liabilities are measured using the enacted or substantively enacted tax rates or laws that apply to current taxable income or are expected to apply in the periods in which the deductible or taxable temporary difference is expected to be realized or settled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IFRS requires tax laws enacted or "substantively enacted" as of the balance sheet date to be used, which may be different from the requirement under US GAAP to use only the enacted tax rates or laws. We do not believe that under existing IAS 12 there should be differences in practice between IFRS and US GAAP in the tax rates and laws applied for US tax jurisdictions. However, differences may exist regarding tax jurisdictions outside of the US. As such, an entity should carefully evaluate whether they should have applied a tax law or rate that has been substantively enacted in a tax jurisdiction outside of the US upon conversion to IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
6. Does the entity have both current and noncurrent deferred tax assets and liabilities reflected in its balance sheet?

US GAAP — 740-10-45-4, 45-5 and 45-9
Prior to the adoption of ASU 2015-17:
Classification of deferred taxes as current or noncurrent is based on the nature of the related asset or liability giving rise to the temporary difference, except for tax losses and credit carryforwards, which are based on the expected timing of realization.
Following the adoption of ASU 2015-17:
Deferred tax liabilities and assets must be classified as noncurrent on the balance sheet.

IFRS — IAS 1.56
All deferred taxes are classified as noncurrent in the balance sheet.

Implications:
An entity adopting IFRS that has not yet adopted ASU 2015-17 is required to change its existing balance sheet presentation of deferred taxes.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

7. Does the entity have investments in foreign subsidiaries or foreign corporate joint ventures?

Deferred tax liabilities
Recognition of a deferred tax liability is not required for taxable temporary differences between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment in a foreign subsidiary or foreign corporate joint venture (i.e., the outside-basis difference) that is essentially permanent in duration, unless it becomes apparent that the difference will reverse in the foreseeable future.
A different exception is available for such difference in the investment if the net investment

IFRS — IAS 12.15, 39 and 44
Deferred tax liabilities
Recognition of a deferred tax liability is required for all taxable temporary differences associated with investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, except to the extent that both of the following conditions are satisfied: (1) the parent, investor, joint venture or joint operator is able to control the timing of the reversal of the temporary difference, and (2) it is probable (i.e., more likely
(including earnings) may be remitted on a tax-free basis that is within the parent’s control and presently available.

than not) that the temporary difference will not reverse in the foreseeable future.

### Deferred tax assets

A deferred tax asset is recognized for a deductible temporary difference between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment in a foreign subsidiary or foreign corporate joint venture that is essentially permanent in duration, only if it is apparent that the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future. Recognized deferred tax assets must be assessed for realizability.

Deferred tax assets

Recognition of a deferred tax asset is required for all deductible temporary differences arising from investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, to the extent that, and only to the extent that, it is probable (i.e., more likely than not) that (1) the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future, and (2) taxable profit will be available against which the temporary difference can be utilized.

### Implications:

Both US GAAP and IFRS provide certain exceptions from recognizing deferred tax liabilities and assets for temporary differences between the carrying amount and tax basis of investments in foreign subsidiaries and foreign corporate joint ventures. However, because these exceptions are different, an entity must carefully evaluate whether its deferred taxes related to such investments will change upon conversion to IFRS.

### Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

### 8. Does the entity have investments in domestic subsidiaries or domestic corporate joint ventures?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>


**Deferred tax liabilities — Investments in domestic subsidiaries**

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is required for a taxable temporary difference between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment (i.e., the outside-basis difference) in a domestic subsidiary that arose after 1992, unless the tax law provides a means by which the recorded amount of an investment in the stock of a domestic subsidiary's outside-basis difference could be recovered in a tax-free transaction.

### IFRS — IAS 12.15, 39 and 44

**Deferred tax liabilities**

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is required for all taxable temporary differences associated with investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, except to the extent that both of the following conditions are satisfied: (1) the parent, investor, joint venturer or joint operator is able to control the timing of the reversal of the temporary difference, and (2) it is probable (i.e., more likely
(e.g., a tax-free liquidation or a statutory merger) and the company expects that it ultimately will use that means.

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is not required for a taxable temporary difference related to the undistributed earnings of a domestic subsidiary that is essentially permanent in duration and that arose prior to 1992, unless it becomes apparent that the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future.

Deferred tax liabilities — Investments in domestic corporate joint ventures

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is required for a taxable temporary difference between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment (outside-basis difference) in a domestic corporate joint venture that arose after 1992.

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is not required for a taxable temporary difference related to the undistributed earnings of a domestic corporate joint venture that is essentially permanent in duration and that arose prior to 1992, unless it becomes apparent that the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future.

Deferred tax assets

A deferred tax asset is recognized for a deductible temporary difference between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment in a domestic subsidiary or domestic corporate joint venture that is essentially permanent in duration, only if it is apparent that the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future. Deferred tax assets recognized must be assessed for realizability.

Deferred tax assets

Recognition of a deferred tax asset is required for all deductible temporary differences arising from investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, to the extent that, and only to the extent that, it is probable (i.e., more likely than not) that (1) the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future, and (2) taxable profit will be available against which the temporary difference can be utilized.

Implications:

Both US GAAP and IFRS provide certain exceptions from recognizing deferred tax liabilities and assets for temporary differences between the carrying amount and tax basis of investments in domestic subsidiaries and domestic joint ventures. However, as these exceptions are different, an entity must carefully evaluate whether its deferred taxes related to such investments will change upon conversion to IFRS.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election

9. Does the entity have either domestic or foreign investments accounted for under the equity method other than foreign or domestic subsidiaries or corporate joint ventures?

Yes ☐ No ☐


Recognition of deferred taxes is required for temporary differences between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment (i.e., the outside-basis difference) accounted for under the equity method (other than foreign or domestic subsidiaries or corporate joint ventures). Recognized deferred tax assets must be assessed for realizability.

IFRS — IAS 12.15, 39 and 44

Recognition of a deferred tax liability is required for all taxable temporary differences associated with investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, except to the extent that both of the following conditions are satisfied: (1) the parent, investor, joint venturer or joint operator is able to control the timing of the reversal of the temporary difference, and (2) it is probable (i.e., more likely than not) that the temporary difference will not reverse in the foreseeable future.

Recognition of a deferred tax asset is required for deductible temporary differences arising from investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, to the extent that, and only to the extent that, it is probable (i.e., more likely than not) that (1) the temporary difference will reverse in the foreseeable future, and (2) taxable profit will be available against which the temporary difference can be utilized.

Implications:

While US GAAP requires deferred taxes to be recognized for temporary differences between the carrying amount and tax basis of an investment (i.e., the outside basis difference) accounted for under the equity method (other than qualifying corporate joint ventures as noted previously), IFRS provides certain, limited exceptions to their recognition. Because it may be difficult to assert that management has control over the timing of reversal of any temporary differences, we would not expect many differences related to how deferred taxes are recognized on temporary differences related to investments accounted for under the equity method upon conversion to IFRS. As such, any difference identified should be scrutinized.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election
10. Did the entity increase its interest in a foreign equity method investee such that it was required to consolidate the entity as a foreign subsidiary?

Yes ☐ No ☐

US GAAP — 740-30-25-16  
A deferred tax liability related to a foreign equity method investment in an entity shall continue to be recognized after that entity becomes a consolidated foreign subsidiary to the extent that dividends from the foreign subsidiary do not exceed the parent company’s share of the foreign subsidiary’s earnings subsequent to the date the entity became a foreign subsidiary.

IFRS — IAS 12.15, 39 through 40  
Recognition of a deferred tax liability for all taxable temporary differences associated with investments in subsidiaries, branches and associates, and interests in joint arrangements, is required, except to the extent that both of the following conditions are satisfied: (1) the parent, investor, joint venturer or joint operator is able to control the timing of the reversal of the temporary difference, and (2) it is probable (i.e., more likely than not) that the temporary difference will not reverse in the foreseeable future.

Implications:
Under IFRS, if a parent can control the timing of the reversal of a temporary difference arising from an outside basis difference in a foreign subsidiary or foreign joint venture and it is probable that the temporary difference will not reverse in the foreseeable future, a deferred tax liability is not required to be recognized. As such, a deferred tax liability related to an entity’s equity method investment could be reversed if that entity becomes a consolidated subsidiary and the requirements in IAS 12 are met. An entity will need to assess whether they have any such deferred tax liabilities that could be reversed provided the requirements in IAS 12 are met.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

11. Does the entity have nonmonetary assets and liabilities that are measured in the entity’s functional currency but have a tax basis that is determined in a different currency?

Yes ☐ No ☐

When an entity’s functional currency is not the same as its local currency (and the local currency is generally used to measure the amounts reported in its tax return), differences will arise due to the use of a historical exchange rate for the book basis and the current exchange rate for the tax basis of nonmonetary assets or liabilities.

US GAAP — 740-10-25-3(f)  
Deferred tax assets or liabilities are not recognized for temporary differences related to nonmonetary assets or liabilities that are remeasured from the local currency into the functional currency for book purposes using historical exchange rates but that are reported in

IFRS — IAS 12.41  
Deferred tax assets or liabilities are recognized for temporary differences related to nonmonetary assets or liabilities that are remeasured from the local currency into the functional currency for book purposes using historical exchange rates,
the entity's local currency for tax purposes using current exchange rates, when those temporary differences arise either from changes in exchange rates or indexing for tax purposes. but that are reported in the entity's local currency for tax purposes using current exchange rates.

Implications:

An entity will be required to record additional deferred tax assets or liabilities because IAS 12 does not include the same recognition exception as US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

12. Is the entity or any of its subsidiaries subject to a different tax rate depending on whether its taxable profits are distributed or undistributed (e.g., a lower rate applies if dividends are paid)?

Certain foreign jurisdictions tax corporate income at different rates depending on whether income is distributed to the company’s shareholders or retained.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-39 and 25-40, 740-10-30-14</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.52A through 52B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 740 does not specifically address this issue. However, general practice under US GAAP is to measure deferred taxes using the higher of the distributed or undistributed tax rate.</td>
<td>Deferred taxes are measured using the tax rate applicable to undistributed profits. Companies should not anticipate that they would pay dividends when the temporary difference reverses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IFRS presently requires deferred tax assets and liabilities to be measured using the tax rate applicable to the undistributed profits, which may differ from an entity’s current practice under US GAAP. In addition, the timing of recognition of the tax benefits of future tax credits could differ between US GAAP and IFRS. Under US GAAP, tax benefits of future tax credits that will be realized when previously taxed income is distributed should be recognized in the period that the tax credits are included in the entity’s tax return (i.e., when the dividend giving rise to the tax credit is paid). Under IFRS, the tax consequences of the dividend should be recognized when a liability to pay a dividend is recognized. An entity will need to determine whether its practice under US GAAP for measuring deferred tax assets and liabilities is different from the approach in IAS 12. If it does differ, adjustments will be required to its deferred tax assets and liabilities.
Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

13. Did the entity have any changes to deferred taxes that were originally charged or credited to equity (i.e., "backwards tracing") or a category different from the origination of deferred tax?

Yes ☐ No ☐

For example, deferred taxes on unrealized gains or losses on available-for-sale securities, currency translation adjustments and adjustments from recognizing certain additional pension liabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-45-20, 740-20-45-2 through 45-4, 45-8, 45-11, 45-12, 45-14</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.58, 61A through 62A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The tax effects of items credited or charged directly to equity during the current year are required to be allocated directly to equity. However, ASC 740 generally (subject to the intraperiod allocation guidance in ASC 740) requires subsequent changes in a valuation allowance related to a change in judgment about the realizability of deferred tax assets in future periods to be recognized in the current year's income statement even if the valuation allowance was initially recorded in equity. ASC 740 also requires subsequent changes in deferred tax balances that existed as of the beginning of the year because of a change in an enacted tax law or rate or an entity’s tax status to be recognized in the current year's income statement even if the deferred tax was initially recorded in equity. Backwards tracing to equity is generally prohibited under ASC 740.</td>
<td>The tax effects of items credited or charged directly to equity during the current year are required to be allocated directly to equity. IAS 12 also requires subsequent changes in deferred tax items that were recognized in equity to continue to be recognized in equity (i.e., backwards tracing is required).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

IFRS presently requires that the movement in deferred taxes for items that have been directly recognized in equity be recognized in equity, without regard to the period in which the item itself was initially recognized in equity. This approach is generally prohibited under US GAAP. As such, this difference may be significant for an entity that has recently recognized a valuation allowance or has significant activity in other comprehensive income or other equity accounts.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
14. Does the entity have any intercompany transfers of assets that resulted in the payment of tax and such assets remain within the group?

It is not unusual for companies within the same consolidated group to transfer products between themselves and between tax jurisdictions. For example, a company in a lower tax rate jurisdiction might sell its inventory to a company in a higher tax rate jurisdiction. If the inventory, which now has a higher tax basis, is not sold outside the group at the balance sheet date, the intercompany profit is eliminated in consolidation. An intercompany transfer of assets between tax jurisdictions generally is a taxable event to the transferor and also generally establishes new tax bases for those assets in the buyer’s tax jurisdiction. The new tax bases of those assets generally are deductible on the buyer’s tax return as those assets are consumed or sold to an unrelated party.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-3(e)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.15, 24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taxes paid by the transferor on intercompany profits from the transfer of assets within a consolidated group are deferred in consolidation resulting in recognition of a prepaid asset for the taxes paid. This prepaid tax asset is presented separately from an entity’s deferred taxes and is recognized as tax expense as the underlying asset is consumed or is sold to an unrelated party. ASC 740 prohibits the recognition of deferred taxes on temporary differences between the tax bases of assets transferred between entities/tax jurisdictions that remain within the consolidated group.</td>
<td>Taxes paid by the transferor on intercompany profits from the transfer of assets within a consolidated group are recognized as tax expense as incurred. IAS 12 requires the recognition of deferred taxes on temporary differences between the tax bases of assets transferred between entities/tax jurisdictions that remain within the consolidated group. IAS 12 also generally requires an entity, in measuring deferred tax, to consider the expected manner of recovery or settlement of the tax. It would generally be consistent with this requirement to measure the deferred taxes on temporary differences arising from intercompany transfers at the tax rates and laws applicable to the transferee, rather than those applicable to the transferor, since the transferee will be taxed when the asset or liability subject to the transfer is realized or sold. However, in some jurisdictions, the tax history of an asset or liability transferred within the group remains with the transferor. In such cases, the general principles of IAS 12 should be used to determine whether any deferred tax should be measured at the tax rate of the transferor or the transferee.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:
The accounting for the tax effects of intercompany transfers of assets that remain within the consolidated group either permanently or temporarily is fundamentally different between US GAAP and IFRS. For these transactions, an entity will need to derecognize the prepaid asset recorded in consolidation and account for the taxes paid in the period incurred. In addition, an entity will have to establish deferred taxes for the temporary differences between the new tax bases and the financial reporting bases of the assets transferred.
### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

### 15. Has the entity entered into any leveraged lease transactions?

A leveraged lease is a specific type of direct financing lease that involves at least three parties, has sufficient nonrecourse financing to result in substantial leverage, and results in the lessor’s net investment declining in the early years and rising in later years. The combination of nonrecourse financing and a cash flow pattern that typically enables the lessor to recover its investment in the early years of the lease (which arises in large part as a result of tax benefits) and thereafter affords the lessor the temporary use of funds from which additional income can be derived produces a unique economic effect. Due to this unique economic effect, special accounting rules are provided for leveraged leases under US GAAP that affect the accounting for income taxes related to leveraged leases. Income tax rates are an important assumption in determining the rate of return on a leveraged lease. See Question 11 in the “Leasing” section of this publication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-3(c)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 740 specifically scopes out the accounting for deferred taxes in a leveraged lease and provides that such deferred taxes are accounted for under ASC 840. The accounting for income taxes related to leveraged leases in ASC 840 is not consistent with the general accounting requirements for deferred income taxes in ASC 740.</td>
<td>IAS 12 provides no special exception for leveraged leases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

Fundamental differences in accounting for leveraged leases exist between US GAAP and IFRS. No special rules exist under IFRS to account for leveraged leases; therefore, deferred taxes related to transactions accounted for under US GAAP as leveraged leases should be reported in the same manner as other deferred taxes under IFRS.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
16. Is the entity engaged in activities that entitles it to special deductions for tax purposes?

Examples of special deductions include:

- Statutory depletions for oil and gas companies
- Deductions for qualifying domestic production activities provided by the American Jobs Creation Act of 2004
- Deductions for manufacturing activities provided by Canadian tax law

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-37 and 740-10-30-13</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tax benefits of special deductions are recognized in the period in which they are deductible on the tax return. However, their effects may be considered when determining (1) average graduated tax rate to be used for measuring deferred taxes, if graduated rates are a significant factor, and (2) the need for a valuation allowance.</td>
<td>No specific guidance is provided. However, IAS 12.49 requires that “when different rates apply to different levels of taxable income, deferred tax assets and liabilities are measured using the average rates that are expected to apply to taxable profit (tax loss) of the period in which the temporary difference are expected to reverse.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

As IFRS is silent on the accounting treatment for special deductions, diversity in practice exists regarding whether a special deduction is recognized in the period in which it is deductible in an entity’s tax return or it is factored into the effective tax rate. As such, an entity will have to adopt a policy on accounting for the tax effects of special deductions upon conversion to IFRS. Because the accounting for special deductions under US GAAP is not inconsistent with IFRS, an entity will be able to continue to apply their existing US GAAP accounting policy upon conversion to IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
17. **Is the entity subject to an alternative or parallel income tax that imposes a different tax or tax rate? Is the entity subject to a modified taxable income calculation or a system that requires tax payments by an entity that would otherwise not be taxpaying under the normal income tax regime?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-30-10 and 30-12</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The effects of any alternative tax must be considered when measuring the tax effects of temporary differences. For the US federal tax jurisdiction, deferred taxes should be measured using the regular tax rate. The regular tax rate must be used in computing deferred taxes even if the company anticipates remaining subject to the alternative minimum tax (or AMT) system for the foreseeable future. A deferred tax asset should be recognized for AMT credit carryforwards to the extent such alternative tax provides a credit against regular taxes in future periods. A valuation allowance is recognized against such AMT credit carryforwards if necessary, to reduce the deferred tax asset to the amount that is more likely than not to be realized.</td>
<td>Does not include guidance on alternative tax or tax rates.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, an entity is required to consider the interaction of regular and alternative tax systems in determining the appropriate rate to apply to deferred tax items. Because there is presently no similar guidance under IFRS, differences may exist between US GAAP and IFRS in the application of alternative tax systems.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
18. Did the entity change its tax status (i.e., to or from taxable to nontaxable) during the year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-25-32, 740-10-40-6 and 740-10-45-19</th>
<th>IFRS — SIC-25</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deferred tax effects of a change in tax status (i.e., from taxable to nontaxable or vice versa) are included in income from continuing operations at the date the change in tax status occurs. When an entity changes its tax status and becomes subject to income taxes, deferred tax assets and liabilities should be recognized for existing temporary differences. When a taxable entity ceases to be taxable, deferred tax assets and liabilities generally should be eliminated. The resulting adjustment is included in income tax expense for the period in which the change in status is effective.</td>
<td>Current and deferred tax consequences of a change in tax status should be recognized in the profit or loss for the period except to the extent that the tax consequences involve remeasurement of tax originally accounted for in other comprehensive income or in equity in which case those consequences also should be included in other comprehensive income or equity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

SIC-25 considers both current and deferred tax consequences and changes in tax status of the entity as well as its shareholders, which is broader in scope than ASC 740. ASC 740 addresses only the deferred tax consequences of changes in tax status and limits the change in tax status to changes to the reporting entity. Additionally, SIC-25 provides for recognition of changes resulting from a change in tax status to be recognized in other comprehensive income or equity if the tax was originally accounted for in other comprehensive income or equity instead of only in profit from continuing operations as required by US GAAP. An entity that has experienced a change in tax status may need to make adjustments to conform to the requirements of SIC-25.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
19. Does an entity in the group prepare separate financial statements and is it either part of a consolidated tax return group or otherwise engaged in tax sharing with other members of the group or outside the group?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-10-30-27 and 30-28</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The amount of current and deferred tax expense for an income tax return group that files a consolidated income tax return is allocated among the members of that group when those members issue separate financial statements. ASC 740 does not establish a mandatory method of allocation, but does require the allocation method to be systematic, rational, and consistent with the broad principles of ASC 740.</td>
<td>No specific guidance is provided.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**
Because IAS 12 is silent, practice is diverse regarding whether the income taxes of a consolidated tax group are allocated to an entity within that group that prepares separate financial statements. As such, an entity that is part of a consolidated or group income tax return and prepares separate financial statements will need to make a policy election regarding whether income taxes will be allocated and, if so, the method for determining the income tax allocation.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

20. Does the entity qualify as a regulated enterprise in the scope of ASC 980?

ASC 980-10-15-2 addresses which entities are considered regulated enterprises and subject to specific accounting guidance under US GAAP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 980-740-25-1 and 25-2</th>
<th>IFRS — None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 980 provides specific guidance on accounting for regulated enterprises. ASC 980-740-25-1 and 25-2 provide guidance specific to temporary differences that arise for regulated enterprises.</td>
<td>IFRS does not provide specific guidance for regulated enterprises.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Convergence considerations:**
In July 2009 the IASB issued an ED on rate regulated entities. As a result of the views received from its 2011 Agenda Consultation, the IASB initiated in September 2012 a revised rate-regulated activities research project.
Implications:

Because IAS 12 does not provide specific guidance on accounting for regulated enterprises, differences may exist.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

21. Does the entity operate in multiple taxing jurisdictions with varying tax rates which affects the estimated effective income tax rate used for interim reporting?

US GAAP — 740-270-30-19 and 30-36
When a company is subject to tax in one or more jurisdictions, ASC 740-270 indicates that one overall estimated annual effective tax rate should be used to determine the interim period tax (benefit) related to the registrant’s consolidated ordinary income (loss) for the year-to-date period, except in certain situations.

IFRS — IAS 34.B14
When an entity operates in a number of tax jurisdictions, IAS 34 requires that an entity determine, to the extent practicable, a separate estimated average annual effective income tax rate for each taxing jurisdiction and apply it individually to the interim period pre-tax income of each jurisdiction. Similarly, if different income tax rates apply to different categories of income (i.e., capital gain versus ordinary income), to the extent practicable, a separate tax rate is applied to each individual category of interim period pre-tax income.

If is not practicable to apply either an average rate for each jurisdiction or a separate rate for each category of income, IAS 34 allows an entity to use a weighted average of rates across jurisdictions or across categories of income if this rate represents a reasonable approximation of the effect of using more specific rates.

Implications:

As the requirements for computing the estimated annual effective tax rate for an entity that has operations in multiple taxing jurisdictions are different under IAS 34 than under US GAAP, an entity will need to assess the effect this difference will have on its determination of income taxes for interim reporting periods.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
22. Did the entity adjust its expectation of the realizability of deferred tax assets during an interim period?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-270-25-7 and 740-270-30-7</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 34.B19 through 22</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires that the tax effect of a valuation allowance expected to be necessary at the end of the year for deferred tax assets related to deductible temporary differences and carryforwards originating during the year be included in the estimated annual effective tax rate. The treatment for interim financial reporting purposes of current-year changes in a valuation allowance related to deferred tax assets existing as of the beginning of the fiscal year, is dependent on whether the benefit is expected to be realized because of current-year ordinary income or other income, or alternatively, because of expectations about income in future years. The effect of a current-year change in a valuation allowance related to deferred tax assets existing as of the beginning of the year that are expected to be realized as a result of ordinary income in the current year generally should be included in the estimated annual effective tax rate computation. However, if the change in the valuation allowance results from other than ordinary income in the current year, the tax benefit should be recognized in the interim period that includes the other income. The effect of a current-year change in a valuation allowance related to deferred tax assets existing as of the beginning of the year that results from a change in judgment about the realizability of the related deferred tax asset in future years should be recognized as a discrete event in the interim period that the change in judgment is made and not apportioned to other interim periods. If the benefit is expected to be realized because of both current-year ordinary income and future years’ income (of any type), the benefit would be allocated between the interim period that includes the date of the change in judgment (for the future-year effect) and inclusion in the estimated annual effective rate (for the current-year effect).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFRS does not distinguish between the accounting for changes in the realizability of deferred tax assets related to prior or current periods. However, under IAS 12, a deferred tax asset is recognized to the extent that it is probable (more likely than not) that future taxable profit will be available against which the unused tax losses and unused tax credits can be utilized. In assessing whether future taxable profit is available, the criteria described in IAS 12 should be applied at the interim date. In accordance with IAS 34, when these criteria are met as of the end of the interim period, the effect of a tax loss carryforward can be either entirely reflected in the computation of the estimated average annual effective income tax rate, or partially reflected in the determination of the tax rate and as a discrete item (see IAS 34.B21-22 for further discussion). While the guidance in IAS 34 mentions only tax loss carryforwards, in practice, this guidance is applied to changes in the realizability of other deferred tax assets. However, IAS 34 does require benefits of tax loss carrybacks and tax benefits related to a one-time event to be reflected as a discrete event in the interim period in which the related tax loss or one-time event occurs, and are not included in the assessment of the estimated annual effective tax rate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yes ☐ No ☐
### Implications:

While US GAAP includes detailed guidance on how to account for changes in valuation allowances for deferred tax assets in interim periods, IFRS does not contain specific guidance. As a result, diversity in practice exists under IFRS regarding whether such changes are recorded as discrete period events or as adjustments to the estimated annual effective tax rate. As such, an entity will need to develop a policy on how they will account for changes to valuation allowance in interim periods.

### Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 23. Did the entity change its judgment about uncertain tax positions during an interim reporting period?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP —740-270</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 34</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changes in judgment about tax positions taken in previous annual periods should be treated as discrete items in the period in which a change in judgment occurs. Changes in judgment about tax positions reflected in a prior interim period within the same fiscal year should be included in the estimated annual effective tax rate computation.</td>
<td>There is no specific guidance on the accounting for changes to uncertain tax positions in an interim period.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

While US GAAP includes detailed guidance on how to account for changes in uncertain tax positions in interim periods, IFRS does not contain specific guidance. As a result, diversity in practice exists under IFRS regarding whether such changes are recorded as discrete period events or as adjustments to the estimated annual effective tax rate. As such, an entity will need to develop a policy on how they will account for changes to uncertain tax positions in interim periods.

### Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. Were there any effects on the entity related to intraperiod tax allocation during an interim reporting period?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 740-270</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 12.61A through 63</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The intraperiod tax allocation rules should be considered for interim reporting. Backwards tracing to equity generally is prohibited under ASC 740.</td>
<td>IAS 12 requires subsequent changes in deferred tax items that were initially recognized in equity to continue to be recognized in equity (i.e., backwards tracing).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Differences in interim reporting may arise because current IFRS requires backwards tracing. These differences could affect the computation of the estimated annual effective tax rate used to determine tax expense in interim periods.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.
Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations

Similarities:
IFRS provides one overarching standard that contains the general recognition and measurement criteria for contingencies and other liabilities — IAS 37. While there is no singular equivalent under US GAAP, ASC 450 addresses the recognition and measurement criteria for contingencies and other liabilities and a number of other ASC Topics and Subtopics address the accounting for specific types of provisions and contingencies (for example, ASC 410-20 for asset retirement obligations (AROs) and ASC 420 for exit and disposal activities). Further, the guidance provided in two Concept Statements in US GAAP (CON 5 and CON 6; non-authoritative guidance) is similar to the specific recognition criteria provided in IAS 37.

Both IFRS and US GAAP require an entity to recognize a loss if:
► A present obligation exists as a result of a past event.
► It is probable that a loss will occur, although the definition of probable is different under US GAAP (where probable is interpreted as “likely”) and IFRS (where probable is interpreted in IAS 37 as “more likely than not”).
► A reliable estimate of the obligation can be made.

With respect to terminology, IFRS defines a “provision” as a liability of uncertain timing or amount. A provision under IFRS is similar to a recognized contingent liability under US GAAP. A contingent liability under IFRS is one that is only a possible obligation as a result of a past event, or is a present obligation that is not considered probable or for which a reliable estimate of the obligation cannot be made. Therefore contingent liabilities under IFRS are not recognized.

Other similarities are:
► A provision (liability) represents the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the present obligation at the balance sheet date.
► Recognizing provisions for costs associated with future operating activities is prohibited.
► Disclosure about a contingent liability, whose likelihood of occurrence is more than remote but does not meet the recognition criteria, is required.
► Gain contingencies are not recognized until they are realized under US GAAP or “virtually certain” under IFRS.
► Provisions are recognized for asset retirement costs (decommissioning liabilities) when the obligating event occurs (generally when the asset is installed).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 450, Contingencies</td>
<td>► IAS 37, Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 410, Asset Retirement and Environmental Obligations</td>
<td>► IFRIC 1, Changes in Existing Decommissioning Restoration and Similar Liabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 420, Exit or Disposal Cost Obligations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
No further convergence planned at this time.
Discussion of IFRS 1:

General

IFRS 1 requires a first-time adopter to use estimates under IFRS that are consistent with the estimates made for the same date under previous GAAP, after adjusting for any difference in accounting policy, unless there is objective evidence that errors existed in those previous estimates, as defined in IAS 8. This requirement applies to estimates made in respect of the date of transition to IFRS.

Under IFRS 1, a first-time adopter cannot apply hindsight and make “better” estimates when it prepares its first IFRS financial statements. This also means that a first-time adopter is not allowed to take into account any subsequent events that provide evidence of conditions that existed at a balance sheet date that came to light after the date its previous GAAP financial statements were issued.

Thus, if a first-time adopter’s previous GAAP accounting policy was not consistent with IFRS, the entity may adjust the estimate only for the difference in accounting policy; it may not also adjust the estimate to reflect the more current information available. In other words, the first-time adopter uses information available at the time of the original previous GAAP accounting to apply its new accounting policy. If an entity later adjusts those estimates, it accounts for the revisions to those estimates as events in the period in which it makes the revisions.
1. Does the reporting entity have potential obligations resulting from past events that have not been recorded because it is not “probable” under ASC 450 that an outflow of resources will be required to settle the obligation?

The term “probable” is defined differently under US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 450-10-20, 450-20-25-2</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.10, 13 and 14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| A contingency is an existing condition, situation, or set of circumstances involving uncertainty as to possible gain or loss that will ultimately be resolved when one or more future events occur or fail to occur. A loss contingency is recognized if both of the following conditions are met:  
  ▶ it is probable (likely to occur) that an asset had been impaired or a liability has been incurred  
  ▶ the amount of loss can be reasonably estimated  

The meaning of “probable” under ASC 450 is “the future event or events are likely to occur” (generally interpreted as between 70%-80%). | A contingency is a possible obligation that arises from past events, the existence of which will be confirmed by the occurrence or non-occurrence of one or more uncertain future events. A provision is a present obligation in which it is probable that an outflow of resources will be required to settle the obligations. Contingent liabilities are items that are not yet recognized as liabilities (provisions). A provision is recognized when:  
  ▶ an entity has a present obligation (legal or constructive) as a result of a past event;  
  ▶ it is probable (more likely than not) that an outflow of resources will be required to settle the obligation; and  
  ▶ a reliable estimate of the obligation can be made.  

If these conditions are not met, a provision is not recognized.  

For the purposes of IAS 37, “probable” is defined as more likely than not and refers to a probability of greater than 50%. |

Implications:

Under US GAAP, the term probable is defined as “likely.” However, while IFRS also requires that an outflow of resources be “probable” prior to recognizing a provision, IFRS defines the term probable as “more likely than not,” which is a lower threshold than under US GAAP. As a result, a provision may be recognized earlier under IFRS than US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
2. Does the company have provisions that are or could be materially different if recorded at their present value?

Yes ☐ No ☐

IFRS requires that liabilities, in general, be discounted if the effect is material. Under US GAAP, long-term liabilities also are discounted, if material. Because the requirement to discount financial statement elements is in the Concepts Statements (non-authoritative guidance), the only specific guidance on discounting liabilities relates to environmental liabilities, which permits discounting only in certain situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP —410-30-35-12 and 450-20-S99-1; SEC SAB Topic 5.Y.Q1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.45 through 47 and 60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discounting is not addressed in ASC 450 for contingent liabilities. ASC 410-30 specifically provides that the measurement of an environmental liability may be discounted to reflect the time value of money only if the aggregate amount of the liability and the amount and timing of cash flows related to that liability are fixed or reliably determinable. The SEC staff believes that, for registrants, the rate used to discount cash payments should be the rate that will produce an amount at which an environmental or product liability could be settled in an arm’s-length transaction with a third party, and that rate should not exceed the interest rate on monetary assets that are essentially risk free and have maturities comparable to that of the environmental or product liability.</td>
<td>Provisions should be discounted if the effect of the time value of money is material, using a pre-tax discount rate that reflects current market assessments of the time value of money and risks specific to the liability that have not been reflected in the best estimate of the expenditure. The increase in the provision due to the passage of time is recognized as an interest expense.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Although ASC 450 does not address discounting contingent liabilities, we believe the guidance in ASC 410-30 should be considered when an entity determines whether a liability should be discounted. Since IAS 37 requires discounting when the time value of money is material, the effect of discounting could create differences in the carrying amounts of liabilities and future income statement effects. Because upon adoption of IFRS an entity must reflect its liabilities as if IAS 37 always had been applied, an entity that previously reported under US GAAP and did not discount its liabilities will need to evaluate the effects of discounting its liabilities, both in terms of whether the liability was discounted and, if so, the rate used to discount the liability.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
3. Has the entity recognized a provision in which all possible outcomes in an estimated range were equally likely?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 450-20-30-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.36 through 41</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The most likely outcome within a range should be accrued. When no one outcome within the range is more likely than the others, the minimum amount in the range of outcomes should be accrued.</td>
<td>The best estimate of the amount to settle or transfer an obligation should be accrued. For a large population of items being measured, such as warranty costs, the best estimate typically is its expected value (i.e., weighting all possible outcomes by their associated probabilities). The mid-point in the range may be used when any point in a continuous range is as likely as any other. The best estimate for a single obligation may be the most likely outcome, although other possible outcomes also should be considered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

If the estimate of the loss is based on a range of possible outcomes, a difference in the amount of the provision between IFRS and US GAAP likely will exist. Under US GAAP a liability should be recorded at the most likely outcome within a range, and if no one outcome is more likely than the others, the minimum amount should be recorded. Conversely, IFRS requires the best estimate of the amount to settle or transfer an obligation to be accrued. The best estimate may represent an amount based on the weighting of the various probabilities of different outcomes if there is a large population of items or it may be the mid-point in a range when any point in a range is as likely as another. The best estimate for a single obligation may be the most likely outcome, but other possible outcomes also should be considered. This best estimate will generally represent a larger amount than that recognized under US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
4. Does the reporting entity expect that a third party will reimburse (or pay directly) part or all of the costs required to settle a provision, including insurance recoveries?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 450-30-25-1 and 50-1, 410-30-35-8 through 35-11</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.53 through 58</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Third-party reimbursements of costs related to a recognized loss, including insurance recoveries, generally are recognized only when realization of the claim for recovery of a loss recognized in the financial statements is deemed probable (as that term is used in ASC 450). However, insurance recoveries should not be recognized before the related loss is recognized. Amounts recovered in excess of a loss recognized in the financial statements (i.e., gain contingencies) should not be recognized until all contingencies relating to the insurance claim have been resolved. Specific guidance exists with regard to determining when to record a potential recovery relating to an environmental liability. The amount of an environmental remediation liability should be determined independently from any potential claim for recovery. An asset relating to the recovery should be recognized only when realization of the claim for recovery is deemed probable. If the claim is the subject of litigation, a rebuttable presumption exists that realization of the claim is not probable.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reimbursement of the expenditure required to settle a provision (for example, through insurance contracts, indemnity clauses or suppliers’ warranties) is recognized when it is virtually certain that the reimbursement will be received. The asset recorded for the reimbursement should not exceed the amount of the provision.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, a careful analysis of the fact and circumstances is required to determine whether realization of a reimbursement from third parties is probable. Under IFRS, a reimbursement is recognized when it is virtually certain to be received. Although as a practical matter we do not anticipate differences to occur in the accounting for gain contingencies, reimbursements up to the amount of loss recognized might be, in certain circumstances, recognized earlier under US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
5. Does the reporting entity have any potential liability for environmental remediation costs?

Environmental remediation involves a sequence of events occurring over a long period of time that are designed to clean-up past contamination. Because of the nature of the clean-up process, determining when to recognize an environmental liability can be difficult. While both IFRS and US GAAP provide general guidance for recording liabilities, US GAAP provides specific guidance on how to estimate liabilities for environmental remediation.

**US GAAP — 410-30-25-1, 25-2, 25-4 through 25-6, 25-12 and 35-1**

The general principles for recording a contingency (ASC 450) should be followed. That is, a liability should be recorded if information is available prior to the issuance of the financial statements (or prior to the date that the financial statements are available to be issued) indicating that it is probable a liability has been incurred and the amount of the loss can be reasonably estimated.

Because an entity’s environmental remediation obligation generally becomes determinable and estimable over a continuum of events, ASC 410-30 provides that the following two criteria must be met to conclude that an environmental liability is probable of occurrence:

- Litigation has commenced or a claim or an assessment has been asserted, or commencement of litigation or assertion of a claim or an assessment is probable.
- It is probable that the outcome of such litigation, claim, or assessment will be unfavorable.

A presumption exists in ASC 410-30 that the outcome of an environmental claim or assessment will be unfavorable if:

- Litigation has commenced or is probable of commencement or a claim or an assessment has been asserted or is probable of assertion and
- The reporting entity is associated with the site (e.g., arranged for the disposal of or transported hazardous substances found at a site or is a previous owner or operator of the site).

When estimating an environmental liability, the general provisions of ASC 450-20 (i.e., estimating the liability when a range of loss

**IFRS — IAS 37.14, 19 and 21**

A provision should be recognized when a present obligation (legal or constructive) as a result of a past event exists and it is probable of occurrence and reliably estimable.

An event that does not give rise to an obligation immediately may do so at a later date, because of changes in the law or because an act (for example, a sufficiently specific public statement) by the entity gives rise to a constructive obligation such as clean-up costs for unlawful environmental damage.

See Questions 1 and 3 above for additional information.
exists) should be followed. ASC 410-30 provides some additional guidance for making these estimates, such as:

► Uncertainties relating to the entity’s share of an environmental remediation liability should not preclude the entity from recognizing its best estimate of its share of the liability or, if no best estimate can be made, the minimum estimate of its share of the liability.

► Changes in estimates of the entity’s remediation liability, including revisions to the entity’s estimate of its share of the liability due to negotiation or identification of other potentially responsible parties (PRPs), should be accounted for as changes in estimates under ASC 250.

**Implications:**

US GAAP has specific guidance (ASC 410-30) on the accounting for environmental remediation liabilities which provides additional guidance for applying ASC 450 to environmental liabilities. IFRS does not have a specific standard that addresses the accounting for environmental liabilities — the accounting for such is addressed in IAS 37. Accordingly, differences could exist in the amount and timing of when environmental liabilities are recorded. Generally, environmental liabilities would be recognized earlier under IFRS than under US GAAP, and consistent with the implications discussed under Question 3 above, the best estimate under IFRS may be larger than the amount recognized under US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

6. **Does the reporting entity have any potential liability for AROs?**

Although similarities exist in the principles regarding the accounting for AROs as referred to under US GAAP or decommissioning liabilities as they are referred to under IFRS, differences in the application of such principles exist. For example, the way in which changes to the ARO are recognized as adjustments to the liability will create differences.

**US GAAP — 410-20-05-1, 25-4 and 25-5, 35-2, 35-5, 35-8 and 55-1**

AROs are liabilities associated with the retirement of a tangible long-lived asset whereas *asset retirement costs* are amounts capitalized that increase the carrying amount of the long-

**IFRS — IAS 37.19, 45 through 47, IAS 16.16, 18 and IFRIC 1**

The initial estimate of the costs of dismantling and removing an item of property, plant and
lived asset when a liability for an ARO is recognized.

An ARO is recognized at the time a legal obligation is incurred and is measured at fair value if its fair value is reasonably estimable.

When an ARO is initially recognized, the related asset retirement costs increase the carrying value of the long-lived assets by the same amount as the liability. The asset retirement costs are allocated to expense using a systematic and rational method over the assets’ useful life.

Changes to an ARO due to the passage of time are measured by applying an interest method of accretion to the amount of the liability at the beginning of the period. The interest rate used to measure that change is the credit-adjusted risk-free rate that existed when the liability, or portion thereof, was initially measured. That change is recognized as an increase in the carrying amount of the ARO and as accretion expense (not interest).

Changes due to revisions in the timing or the amount of the original estimated undiscounted cash flows are recognized as an increase or decrease in the ARO and the related long-lived asset. Upward revisions are discounted using the current credit-adjusted risk-free rate. Downward revisions are discounted using the credit-adjusted risk-free rate that existed when the original liability was recognized.

When asset retirement costs change as a result of a revision to estimated cash flows, the amount allocated to expense is adjusted in the period of change if the change affects that period only or in the period of change and future periods if the change affects more than one period, as required by ASC 250.

The adjusted carrying amount of the asset is depreciated over its useful life. Once the related asset has reached the end of its useful life, all subsequent changes in the liability are recognized in profit or loss as they occur.

equipment and restoring its site are included in the cost of the asset.

A provision for a decommissioning liability is recognized when the general recognition criteria for a liability are met. That is, when a present obligation that is probable of occurrence and reasonably estimable exists.

Obligations arising from past events existing independently of an entity’s future actions are recognized as provisions. Examples of such obligations are decommissioning costs of an oil installation or a nuclear power station to the extent that the entity is obliged to rectify damage already caused.

Provisions are adjusted at each balance sheet date to reflect the current best estimate. If the provision was discounted, the provision should increase in each period to reflect the passage of time. This increase is recognized as borrowing (interest) cost.

IFRIC 1 applies to changes in the measurement of any existing decommissioning liability that is both:

- recognized as part of the cost of an item of property, plant and equipment in accordance with IAS 16
- recognized as a liability in accordance with IAS 37

The measurement of changes in the estimated timing or amount of the obligation, or a change in the discount rate, depends whether the underlying asset is measured using the cost or revaluation model.

If the related asset is measured using the cost model:

- changes in the liability are added to or deducted from the cost of the related asset in the current period. If a decrease in the liability exceeds the carrying amount of the asset, the excess is recognized immediately in profit or loss.
- changes resulting in an addition to the cost of an asset should be evaluated to determine whether the new carrying amount of the asset is fully recoverable. If not fully
recoverable the asset should be tested for impairment under IAS 36.

If the related asset is measured using the revaluation model, changes in the liability alter the revaluation surplus or deficit previously recognized on that asset.

► a decrease in the liability is credited directly to revaluation surplus in equity, unless it reverses a revaluation deficit on the asset that was previously recognized in profit or loss. If a decrease in the liability exceeds the carrying amount that would have been recognized had the asset been carried under the cost model, the excess is recognized immediately in profit or loss.

► an increase in the liability is recognized in profit or loss to the extent it exceeds any credit balance existing in the revaluation surplus in respect of that asset.

► a change in the liability is an indication that the asset may have to be revalued in order to ensure that the carrying amount does not differ materially from that which would be determined using fair value at the end of the reporting period. If a revaluation is necessary, all assets of that class shall be revalued.

The adjusted depreciable amount of the asset is depreciated over its remaining useful life. Once the related asset has reached the end of its useful life, all subsequent changes in the liability are recognized in profit or loss as they occur. This applies under both the cost model and the revaluation model.

### Implications:

Differences between IFRS and US GAAP will arise because of differences in the treatment of changes in cost estimates or discount rates associated with asset retirement obligations. Under US GAAP, a liability is not remeasured for changes in the risk-free rate because the credit-adjusted risk-free rate used to initially measure the obligation is used for all subsequent reductions in the estimated gross future cash flows. Only if the estimated gross future cash flows are increased is the discount rate changed to reflect the current risk-free rate (i.e., only for the incremental expenditures or the new layer). IFRS requires the discount rate used to estimate the liability to be based on current discount rates at each balance sheet date. The use of different discount rates to measure changes in an ARO under US GAAP creates a layering of ARO liabilities (i.e., each new layer is treated as a new ARO) that does not exist for decommissioning liabilities under IFRS because the
Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations

The entire liability is discounted at current rates. Accordingly, differences in the timing and amount recognized for changes in AROs likely will occur.

Under IAS 37, provisions, including AROs, are measured at the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the obligation at the balance sheet date whereas under US GAAP, AROs are initially measured at fair value. IAS 37.37 notes that “the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the present obligation is the amount that an entity would rationally pay to settle the obligation at the balance sheet date or to transfer it to a third party at that time.” IAS 37 also discusses several measurement concepts that are consistent with fair value that should be considered in determining a best estimate, such as consideration of risk and uncertainty and present value. Differences in the initial measurement of AROs could occur due to the settlement value concept in IFRS compared to the fair value concept in US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

When an entity purchases or constructs certain assets, such as oil wells, it may be liable for certain contractual, constructive or statutory costs to decommission and/or restore the asset site to certain minimum standards at the end of the asset’s life. Under IFRS, these costs should be capitalized (generally as part of the asset’s carrying value) when the entity becomes obligated to incur such costs as discussed in IAS 16. IFRIC 1 provides guidance on accounting for changes in a decommissioning, restoration or similar liability that have been previously recognized as part of the cost of an item of property, plant and equipment and as a liability. IFRIC 1 requires that changes in such liabilities due to the estimated timing or amount of the outflow of resources required to settle the obligation, or a change in the discount rate, are accounted for based on whether the underlying asset is carried at cost or a revaluation amount. See Question 1 in the “Property, plant and equipment” section for further information regarding assets carried at a revaluation amount (i.e., fair value).

The requirements under IFRIC 1 to account for changes in decommissioning liabilities differ significantly from US GAAP. This difference results from the US GAAP requirement to use different discount rates to adjust for changes in the liability based on the reason for the change (e.g., the passage of time and/or changes in estimates of cash flows). Under IFRS all changes in the liability are discounted using current discount rates (see Question 6 for further information). If an asset is carried at cost, the changes to the decommissioning liability generally are added to or deducted from the asset cost. If an asset is carried at a revaluation amount the change in the liability alters the revaluation surplus or deficit previously recognized on that asset.

As noted above, IFRIC 1 requires specified changes in a decommissioning, restoration or similar liability to be added to or deducted from the cost of the asset to which it relates; the adjusted depreciable amount of the asset is then depreciated prospectively over its remaining useful life. Because of an exemption provided in IFRS, a first-time adopter need not comply with these requirements for changes in such liabilities that occurred before the date of transition to IFRS. If a first-time adopter uses this exemption, it should:

- measure the liability as at the date of transition to IFRS in accordance with IAS 37;
- estimate the amount that would have been included in the cost of the related asset when the liability first arose (to the extent that the liability is within the scope of IFRIC 1) by discounting the liability back to the date the liability first arose using its best estimate of the historical risk-adjusted discount rate(s) that would have applied for that liability over the intervening period;
Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations

- add the discounted liability to the corresponding asset to which the decommissioning liability relates; and
- calculate the accumulated depreciation on that amount, as at the date of transition to IFRSs, based on the current estimate of the useful life of the asset, using the depreciation policy adopted by the entity in accordance with IFRS.

Note that the exemption is applied differently for certain oil and gas assets (see IFRS 1.D21A).

This exemption is likely to provide a practical way for a first-time adopter that previously reported under US GAAP to determine the amount at which to record such assets and liabilities in its opening IFRS balance sheet. Retrospective application of IFRIC 1 and IAS 37 would have required an entity to reconstruct historical records. For example, as a result of differences between US GAAP and IFRS in the manner in which changes in market-based discount rates should be treated for purposes of these provisions, an entity would be required to identify all of the revisions to the discount rate and/or changes in the estimated cash flows that would have been recognized since the inception of the decommissioning liability and recalculate depreciation from that date to the date of transition.

7. **Has the entity recorded an ARO that was incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used a long-lived asset to produce inventory during that period?**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upon initial recognition of an ARO an entity shall capitalize an asset retirement cost by increasing the carrying amount of the related long-lived asset by the same amount as the liability.</td>
<td>An entity applies IAS 2, <em>Inventories</em>, to the costs of obligations for dismantling, removing or restoring the site on which an item (property, plant or equipment) is located that are incurred during a particular period as a consequence of having used the item to produce inventories during that period; therefore, an ARO that is created during the production of inventory is accounted for as a cost of the inventory and it is added to the carrying amount of the inventory.</td>
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</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, all ARO costs are capitalized as part of property, plant and equipment and depreciation of an asset used to produce inventory is allocated to inventory through the allocation of overhead. Under IFRS, the ARO costs should be considered an inventoriable cost in the period in which they are incurred if the costs relate to an asset that is used to produce inventory during the period. Accounting for these costs in accordance with IAS 2 should generally achieve a similar result as accounting for them under US GAAP. However, differences may arise in the timing and amount recognized in inventory as a result of the depreciation and allocation method applied under US GAAP. Additionally, there will be a difference in the gross property, plant and equipment balance as no amount is recorded in property, plant and equipment under IAS 2.
8. Has the reporting entity committed to a restructuring plan or another exit activity?

A restructuring is defined under both IFRS and US GAAP as a program planned and controlled by management, and that materially changes either: (1) the scope of a business or (2) the manner in which that business is conducted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 420</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.70 through 83</th>
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</table>
| Once management has committed to a detailed exit plan, each type of cost is examined to determine when it should be recognized. A liability for costs associated with an exit or disposal activity is incurred when the definition of a liability in CON 6 is met. That is, when a present obligation exists as a result of a past event and that obligation is probable of occurring. Costs covered by ASC 420 include, but are not limited to: (1) involuntary termination benefits provided to employees under the terms of a one-time benefit arrangement that, in substance, is not an ongoing benefit arrangement or a deferred compensation contract, (2) certain contract termination costs, including operating lease termination costs and (3) other costs associated with an exit or disposal activity. A one-time benefit arrangement is deemed to exist at the date the plan of termination meets certain criteria and has been communicated to employees. Further, the timing and amount of liability recognition is dependent on whether employees are required to render future service in order to receive the termination benefits. If employees are required to render service until they are terminated and that service period extends beyond a “minimum retention period,” the liability (expense) should be recognized ratably over the future service period, even if the benefit formula used to calculate the termination benefit is based on past service. Liabilities for costs to terminate a contract before the end of its term and that will continue to be incurred under the contract for its remaining term without economic benefit to the entity are recognized and measured at fair value in the
| A provision for a restructuring is recognized when the general recognition criteria for a liability are met (that is, when a present obligation that is probable of occurrence and reasonably estimable exists). Once management has “demonstrably committed” (that is, created a legal or constructive obligation) to a detailed exit plan, the general provisions of IAS 37 apply. A constructive obligation to restructure arises only when an entity has a detailed formal plan for the restructuring identifying at least: 
  ▶ the business affected
  ▶ the principal locations affected
  ▶ the location, function, and approximate number of employees who will be compensated for terminating their services
  ▶ the expenditures to be incurred
  ▶ when the plan will be implemented
Furthermore, a constructive obligation for a restructuring obligation exists when the appropriate level of management has created a valid expectation in those affected by the plan that the actions specified in the plan will be implemented by:
  ▶ starting to implement that plan, or
  ▶ announcing its main features to those affected
A restructuring provision includes only expenditures directly related to the restructuring and that are necessary for the restructuring and are detailed in the plan, and not associated with the ongoing activities of the entity. |
period in which the liability is incurred (generally when the entity terminates the contract pursuant to the contractual terms or ceases to use the rights conveyed under the contract).

Liabilities for other costs associated with exit or disposal activities, such as costs to consolidate or close a facility, should be recognized and measured at fair value in the period in which the liability is incurred (generally upon receipt of the goods or services (e.g., security services incurred during the closing of the facility), not at a commitment date.

Identifiable future operating losses up to the date of a restructuring are not included in a provision, unless they relate to an onerous contract. Refer to Question 9 below, regarding the accounting for onerous contracts.

**Implications:**

Although the types of costs included in a restructuring are similar under both IFRS and US GAAP, the guidance in US GAAP is more restrictive than IFRS as to the timing of when such provisions should be recorded. Restructuring costs may be recognized earlier under IFRS than under US GAAP, because IFRS focuses on the exit plan as a whole, while US GAAP indicates when specific components of the plan should be recognized (e.g., the criteria to recognize termination costs are more stringent under US GAAP).

In addition, the guidance in US GAAP applies to all exit activities, which includes, but is not limited to, a restructuring as defined by IAS 37. Certain exit activities subject to the guidance in ASC 420 may not be considered restructurings and would not be subject to the restructuring guidance in IAS 37. For example, the decision to relocate a corporate headquarters that is leased under an operating lease may not materially affect the scope of an entity’s business or the manner in which it is conducted. However, the onerous contract guidance discussed in Questions 9 and 10 below may apply in those situations.

**Identified difference?**

| Yes ☐ | No ☐ | Depends on policy election ☐ |

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**9. Does the entity have any onerous contracts?**

IAS 37 requires that provisions be recorded when a contract is considered onerous. An onerous contract is a contract in which the unavoidable costs of meeting its obligations exceed the economic benefits expected to be received under the contract. However, an overarching principle to record a provision for an onerous contract does not exist under US GAAP, and only in limited circumstances is such a provision recorded.

**US GAAP — 420-10-25-11 through 25-13, 30-7 through 30-9 and 35-1**

No single standard exists to permit a provision to be recorded for an onerous contract. The circumstances in which such a provision can be

**IFRS — IAS 37.45-46, and 66 through68, Appendix C, Example 8**

IAS 37 provides a standard for recording provisions for onerous contracts. If a contract establishes both rights and obligations between
Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations

The liability relating to onerous contracts should be recorded at fair value when the entity terminates the contract in accordance with the contract terms or ceases to use the rights under the contract. Subsequent changes to the liability are measured using the credit-adjusted risk-free rate that was used to measure the liability initially. The subsequent measurement is not a fair value measurement and the rate used is not adjusted based on current market conditions.

In connection with a business combination, assets and liabilities are required to be recorded at their fair values. Accordingly, if a contract is onerous, a liability for that contract will be recorded such that the contract will be reflected at its fair value at the date of the business combination.

The contracting parties and events make such a contract onerous, the present value of the obligation should be recognized as a provision. The best estimate of the present obligation should be recognized as a provision. If material, the liability is discounted to its present value. The provision for an onerous contract is based either on the unavoidable costs (e.g., contractual penalties), or the cost of fulfilling it if lower.

Where discounting is used, the carrying amount of a provision increases in each period to reflect the passage of time. This increase is recognized as borrowing cost. The discount rate should be adjusted to reflect current market assessments of the time value of money. In other words, when interest rates change, the provision should be recalculated on the basis of the revised rates.

Implications:
US GAAP requires that provisions be recorded for onerous contracts in limited circumstances, while IFRS provides for a more broadly-applicable principle to be applied to any contract that is determined to be onerous. As a result, onerous contracts would likely be recognized more often under IFRS.

Differences in the initial measurement of the liability could occur due to the settlement value concept in IFRS compared to the fair value concept in US GAAP. Additionally, under US GAAP, the liability is not subsequently adjusted to reflect changes in the discount rate, unlike under IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
10. Does the entity have an onerous contract related to an operating lease?

Both IFRS and US GAAP require that provisions be recorded relating to operating leases. The guidance in US GAAP is provided in the context of a restructuring or exit or disposal activities. The IFRS guidance for operating leases is addressed within the general guidance on onerous contracts discussed in Question 9 above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 420-10-25-11 through 25-13, 30-7 through 30-9 and 35-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 37.66-68; Appendix C, Example 8</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lessee can record a provision relating to an onerous operating lease only if the lease has been terminated pursuant to a contractual provision or the lessee has ceased using (vacated) the premises. ASC 420 also permits provisions relating to other onerous contracts to be recorded when: (1) costs to terminate the contract before the end of its term will be incurred or (2) costs will continue to be incurred under the contract for its remaining term without economic benefit to the entity. The liability is recognized at fair value at the cease-use date. If the fair value of the liability is not based upon a contractual provision or a final negotiated settlement, the fair value of the liability is determined based on the remaining contractual lease rentals, reduced by estimated sublease rentals that could be reasonably obtained for the property, even if the entity does not intend to enter into a sublease. However, the remaining lease rentals should not be reduced to an amount less than zero. Subsequent changes to the liability are measured using the credit-adjusted risk-free rate that was used to measure the liability initially (not a fair value measurement).</td>
<td>If a contract establishes both rights and obligations between the contracting parties such as in an operating lease and events make such a contract onerous, the best estimate of the present obligation should be recognized as a provision. If material, the liability is discounted to its present value. An onerous contract is a contract in which the unavoidable costs of meeting its obligations exceed the economic benefits expected to be received under the contract. The provision is based either on the unavoidable costs (e.g., contractual penalties), or the cost of fulfilling it, if lower. Provisions are reviewed at each balance sheet date and adjusted to reflect the current best estimate. Where discounting is used, the carrying amount of a provision increases in each period to reflect the passage of time. The discount rate should be adjusted to reflect current market assessments of the time value of money. In other words, when interest rates change, the provision should be recalculated on the basis of the revised rates.</td>
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**Implications:**

US GAAP requires that a contract for an operating lease not only be onerous, but that the lessee cease using the space before a liability for an existing operating lease can be recorded. As such, provisions for operating leases could be recorded earlier under IFRS than under US GAAP. Differences in the initial measurement of the liability could occur due to the settlement value concept in IFRS compared to the fair value concept in US GAAP. Furthermore, under US GAAP, subsequent changes in the liability are based on the credit-adjusted risk-free rate that was used to measure the liability initially. In contrast, discount rates are updated throughout the life of the liability under IFRS.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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Revenue recognition

Similarities and differences:

Revenue recognition under both US GAAP and IFRS is tied to the completion of the earnings process and the realization of assets from such completion. Under both sets of standards, revenue is not recognized until it is both realized (or realizable) and earned. Ultimately, both sets of standards base revenue recognition on the transfer of risks and rewards, attempt to determine when the earnings process is complete, and contain revenue recognition criteria that, while not identical, are conceptually similar. For example, one IFRS recognition criterion is that the amount of revenue can be measured reliably. US GAAP similarly requires that the seller’s price to the buyer be fixed or determinable.

While the US and international standards contain differences, the general revenue recognition principles and the underlying conceptual framework of the standards are similar, such that accounting results between them may be the same or similar. The two sets of standards are generally more alike than different for most commonly encountered transactions, with IFRS being largely, but not entirely, grounded in the same basic principles as US GAAP.

Despite the similarities, differences in revenue recognition may exist, in part, as a result of differing levels of specificity between the two sets of standards. US GAAP comprises a number of revenue recognition standards, which contain far more application and interpretive guidance than IFRS. This guidance can be prescriptive and is sometimes limited to specific industry transactions. Conversely, two primary standards (IAS 11 Construction Contracts and IAS 18 Revenue with their related Interpretations) exist under IFRS, which contain general principles and illustrative examples of specific transactions.

As a general rule, IFRS standards have broader principles than their US counterparts, with limited interpretive guidance. The IASB has generally avoided issuing interpretations of its own standards, preferring to instead leave implementation of the principles embodied in its standards to preparers and auditors, and its official interpretive body, the IFRS Interpretations Committee, a body whose role in international standard setting is comparable to the EITF’s role in US GAAP. While US standards certainly contain underlying principles, the strong regulatory and legal environment in US markets has resulted in a more prescriptive approach — with far more “bright-lines,” comprehensive implementation guidance and industry interpretations. Therefore, while some might read the broader IFRS standards to require an approach similar to that contained in a more detailed US counterpart, others might not. This basic difference in the level of specificity contained in IFRS versus US GAAP standards is perhaps no more pronounced than in the area of revenue recognition.

IAS 8 Accounting Policies, Changes in Accounting Estimates and Errors states that when IFRS lacks guidance that specifically applies to a transaction, management shall use its judgment in developing and applying an accounting policy that results in information that, among other things, reflects “the economic substance of transactions, other events and conditions, and not merely the legal form.” In developing such policies, “management may also consider the most recent pronouncements of other standard-setting bodies that use a similar conceptual framework to develop accounting standards to the extent that these do not conflict” with the requirements of IFRS standards or its conceptual framework.

We have observed that many entities reporting under IFRS look to US GAAP for interpretative guidance around revenue recognition, based on the provisions of IAS 8. For example, although ASC 985-605, Software — Revenue Recognition, has no direct bearing on companies reporting under IFRS, many software companies use the hierarchy in IAS 8 to develop their accounting policies considering the US requirements in the absence of an IFRS pronouncement of comparable detail (particularly if they are a US SEC registrant). This is driven by the lack of implementation guidance under IFRS, as well as the desire for consistency within the industry, particularly if a significant
number of industry leaders and peer companies are based in the US and report using US GAAP. However, while the US GAAP revenue recognition pronouncements can provide useful guidance to entities reporting under IFRS, the IAS 8 hierarchy does not require entities to refer to US GAAP. The IAS 8 hierarchy also does not require that entities reporting under IFRS only look to US GAAP for interpretative guidance or that the accounting for all revenue transactions under IFRS should be the same as under US GAAP.

While the overall revenue recognition principles contained in IAS 11, IAS 18 and the related Interpretations are generally similar to US GAAP, entities with revenue streams subject to specific US GAAP guidance should carefully reassess their current revenue recognition policies to ensure they comply with IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► SAB Topic 13, <em>Revenue Recognition</em></td>
<td>► IAS 11 <em>Construction Contracts</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 605, <em>Revenue Recognition</em></td>
<td>► IAS 18 <em>Revenue</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 853, <em>Service Concession Arrangements</em></td>
<td>► IFRIC 12 <em>Service Concession Arrangements</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 985-605, <em>Software — Revenue Recognition</em></td>
<td>► IFRIC 13 <em>Customer Loyalty Programmes</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► FASB Concepts Statement No. 5, <em>Recognition and Measurement in Financial Statements of Business Enterprises</em></td>
<td>► IFRIC 15 <em>Agreements for the Construction of Real Estate</em></td>
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<tr>
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<td>► IFRIC 18 <em>Transfers of Assets from Customers</em></td>
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<td>► SIC-31 <em>Revenue — Barter Transactions Involving Advertising Services</em></td>
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**Convergence:**

The FASB and the IASB issued converged revenue recognition standards in May 2014 that will supersede virtually all revenue guidance under US GAAP and IFRS. The core principle is that an entity would recognize revenue to depict the transfer of promised goods or services to customers at an amount that reflects the consideration the entity expects to be entitled in exchange for those goods or services.

The FASB’s standard is effective for public entities for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and for interim periods therein. Nonpublic entities are required to adopt the standard for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2019. Public and nonpublic entities will be permitted to adopt the standard as early as annual reporting periods beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods therein.

The IASB’s standard is effective for annual reporting periods beginning on or after 1 January 2018, and early adoption is permitted.

The converged standards will be broadly applicable to all revenue transactions with customers (with some limited scope exceptions, for example, for insurance contracts, financial instruments and leases). From a US GAAP perspective, the standard will supersede virtually all of the industry- and transaction-specific guidance that exists currently. From an IFRS perspective, the standard will increase the limited application guidance that exists today, particularly as it relates to the accounting for multiple-element arrangements.
Recently, the Boards amended their respective standards to address several implementation issues raised by constituents. The Boards did not agree on the nature and breadth of all of the changes to their revenue standards; however, the Boards expect the amendments to result in similar outcomes in many circumstances.

Note that this section has not been updated for these standards. Refer to the paragraphs above for the effective dates.

**Discussion of IFRS 1 First-time Adoption of International Financial Reporting Standards:**

Except for transactions under the scope of IFRIC 12 (see Question 19), IFRS 1 currently provides no special guidance related to revenue recognition; therefore, entities must comply with IFRS requirements related to revenue recognition retroactively for all periods presented.

| 1. Is the entity engaged in specialized industry areas or specific transactions for which specific US GAAP guidance exists? | Yes | No |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP</th>
<th>IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP provides specific guidance for revenue recognition for certain industry and transaction types, including but not limited to:</td>
<td>IFRS provides no specific guidance for specialized industry areas. Instead, IFRS provides general principles that are broadly applicable to most industries and transactions types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 310, Receivables</td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 470, Debt</td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 605, Revenue Recognition</td>
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<td>► ASC 730, Research and Development</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 912, Contractors — Federal Government</td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 920, Entertainment — Broadcasters</td>
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<td>► ASC 922, Entertainment — Cable Television</td>
<td></td>
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<td>► ASC 926, Entertainment — Films</td>
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<td>► ASC 928, Entertainment — Music</td>
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<td>► ASC 944, Financial Services — Insurance</td>
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<td>► ASC 952, Franchisors</td>
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<td>► ASC 958, Not-for-Profit Entities</td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 976, Real Estate — Retail Land</td>
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<tr>
<td>► ASC 985, Software</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Entities will need to ensure that none of their current revenue recognition accounting policies conflicts with the principles of IFRS. In addition, because IFRS revenue-related pronouncements are generally principles-based (e.g., revenue is recognized when the earnings process is complete and the risks and rewards have been transferred, among others) and there is often less specific guidance compared with US GAAP, the reporting entity may have to expand its current revenue recognition policies to ensure that those policies contain enough specificity on how they comply with
IFRS. Those policies also must address the transactions and specific industries that are covered under US GAAP (as referenced above) but that are not specifically addressed in IFRS. Because of the detailed rules pertaining to revenue recognition contained within US GAAP, certain reporting entities may decide they wish to reference the more specific US GAAP requirements to develop their accounting policies based on the provisions of IAS 8.

### Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

### 2. Does the reporting entity have revenue transactions associated with the sale of goods?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### US GAAP — SAB Topic 13, 605-15, 605-25 and 450

Public companies must follow SAB Topic 13, *Revenue Recognition*, which requires that delivery has occurred (the risks and rewards of ownership have been transferred); there is persuasive evidence of an arrangement; the fee is fixed or determinable and collectibility is reasonably assured.

#### IFRS — IAS 18.14; IAS 37

Revenue is recognized only when risks and rewards of ownership have been transferred; revenues and costs can be measured reliably; the entity retains neither continuing managerial involvement to the degree usually associated with ownership nor effective control over the goods sold; and it is probable that the economic benefits will flow to the entity.

### Implications:

Both US GAAP and IFRS have specified criteria that must be met prior to the recognition of revenue associated with the sale of goods. However, the criteria under the two frameworks, while conceptually similar, are not exactly the same.

For example, under US GAAP, one of the four criteria for revenue recognition is that delivery has occurred (except for certain bill-and-hold arrangements). This requires both the title and the risks and rewards of ownership to be transferred to the customer. While IAS 18 doesn’t specifically require delivery to have occurred, it similarly requires an entity to demonstrate that the significant risks and rewards of ownership have transferred to the customer (see also Question 4 regarding bill-and-hold sales). Further, under US GAAP, persuasive evidence of an arrangement must also exist in order to recognize revenue (e.g., if an entity’s standard business practice requires a written contract, revenue recognition is precluded until an executed contract exists). No specific requirement exists within IFRS, although if it is normal practice to obtain a written agreement and no agreement had been obtained, it would be prudent to inquire whether a binding sale has taken place before recognizing revenue under IAS 18. It should be noted that in order to fulfill at least certain of the IFRS criteria, having a contract may be necessary. This is probably the main reason why differences in accounting under IFRS and US GAAP generally do not arise despite the fact that IAS 18 does not “require” a written contract. Additionally, IFRS permits revenue to be recognized if it is probable (more likely than not) that the economic benefits will flow to the company, while US GAAP requires that collectability be reasonably assured, which is interpreted to be a higher threshold than more likely than not.
In addition, because IFRS has more general principles and less specific application guidance, upon conversion to IFRS, an entity’s internal revenue recognition policies will likely have to be expanded to include the factors management considers in order to determine when revenue recognition should take place.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

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**3. Does the reporting entity earn revenues from providing services to its customers?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — SAB Topic 13, 605-20, 605-35, and 985-605</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 18.20; IAS 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certain types of service revenue, primarily relating to services sold with software, have been addressed separately in US GAAP literature. All other service revenue should follow SAB Topic 13. Application of long-term contract accounting in ASC 605-35 generally is not permitted for non-construction services (with a possible exception for long-term service contracts with the federal government).</td>
<td>Revenue is recognized in accordance with long-term contract accounting, including the percentage-of-completion method, when revenues, costs and the stage of completion can be measured reliably, and it is probable that economic benefits will flow to the company.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, revenue from service arrangements generally is recognized using a proportional performance or straight-line method, depending on the pattern of performance of the service. Application of long-term contract accounting is generally not permitted for service arrangements.

Under IFRS, revenue from service arrangements is recognized by reference to the stage of completion of the transaction (i.e., the percentage of completion method) whenever revenues, costs and the stage of completion can be measured reliably, and it is probable that economic benefits will flow to the company.

Both US GAAP and IFRS permit the use of the straight-line method of revenue recognition when such a pattern is not expected to differ significantly from the vendor’s pattern of actual performance.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
4. Has the reporting entity entered into bill-and-hold sales arrangements?

**US GAAP — SAB Topic 13**

US GAAP has a very high threshold for recognition of revenues under a bill-and-hold arrangement. Strict criteria apply and the rules are focused on whether the risk and rewards of ownership of the goods have transferred. Several factors need to be considered and analyzed. Because of the high hurdles established in SAB Topic 13, revenue recognition on a bill-and-hold basis is relatively rare in US GAAP.

**IFRS — IAS 18.IE1**

IFRS acknowledges that delivery is not always necessary for revenue recognition. IAS 18.IE1 lists some criteria to be considered in evaluating whether revenue recognition on a bill-and-hold basis is appropriate.

**Implications:**

While US GAAP contains stringent requirements for when revenue can be recognized for bill-and-hold arrangements, IFRS accepts that delivery is not always necessary for the recognition of revenue, because the risks and rewards of ownership may be transferred to the buyer even though the goods have not been delivered. The reporting entity would need to define within its own revenue recognition policies, after giving consideration to the factors discussed in IAS 18.IE1, how it will determine when the risks and rewards of such transactions have been transferred and when the revenue is recognizable. Although the principles for recognition of revenues in bill-and-hold arrangements under US GAAP and IFRS are consistent, because of the different level of stringency of the two standards, it is possible that in limited situations, entities may be able to recognize revenue for such arrangements under IFRS but not under US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

5. Has the reporting entity entered into any multiple-element arrangements?

In multiple-element arrangements, a vendor is obligated to deliver more than one product or service to a customer. The delivery can occur over several accounting periods. The multiple products or services may be included in a single arrangement or separate arrangements entered into in contemplation of each other.

**US GAAP — 605-25, 985-605 and 605-20**

**General guidance**

Specific criteria are required to be met in order for each product or service (element) to be a separate unit of accounting, including delivered elements must have standalone value. If those criteria are met, revenue for each element of the arrangement.

**IFRS — IAS 18.13 and 18; IFRIC 13, IAS 18.IE19 and IE20**

**General guidance**

IAS 18 requires an evaluation of the substance of the transaction in order to determine whether the recognition criteria should be applied to each separately identifiable component of an arrangement. Besides this general principle,
transaction may be recognized when the element is delivered.

Fees are allocated using the relative-selling price method, with selling price based on vendor-specific objective evidence (VSOE) or third party evidence (TPE), if available, or management’s best estimate if neither VSOE nor TPE are available.

Contingent revenue is deferred until the contingency is resolved, even if it is probable that the contingent amounts will be received.

**Software guidance**

Fees are allocated based on VSOE of fair value. The residual method is used when VSOE exists for the undelivered elements, but not for the delivered elements.

If VSOE does not exist, revenue recognition is generally deferred until VSOE does exist, or all elements are delivered, or if applicable, over the service period contained under the arrangement.

Contingent revenue is deferred until the contingency is resolved.

IAS 18 does not provide specific separation criteria.

IAS 18 does not prescribe an allocation method nor does it prescribe a hierarchy of allocation methods in order to allocate fees to each separately identifiable component in an arrangement. However, IAS 18.9 requires revenue to be measured at the fair value of the consideration received or receivable. Two methods that are mentioned under IFRS are the relative fair value approach and the residual approach. However, other methods are permitted. IFRS does not contain specific requirements related to contingent revenue. Under IFRS, revenue is recognized only when it’s probable that the associated economic benefits will flow to the entity. In some cases, this may not be probable, and revenue may not be recognized, until the consideration is received or until the uncertainty is removed.

**Software guidance**

IFRS does not provide specific separation or allocation guidance for the software industry.

### Implications:

Because IFRS does not provide guidance on when an element included in a multiple-element arrangement would be accounted for as a separately identifiable component, such a determination will require the use of professional judgment. The US GAAP guidance contained in ASC 605-25 on whether an element has stand-alone value may be helpful in making those judgments, and companies may wish to look to it based on the provisions of IAS 8.

With the exception of multiple-element software arrangements, it is likely that a company will account for elements in the same manner under IFRS as under US GAAP.

Companies that have multiple-element software arrangements should consider the following factors when contemplating the IFRS accounting for those arrangements:

- Unlike US GAAP, IFRS does not prescribe that VSOE of fair value must be used as basis for allocation. Therefore, the ability under IFRS to use a cost-plus a reasonable profit margin approach to estimating fair value of elements is a significant difference from the software revenue recognition guidance in US GAAP (such an approach to estimating fair value is not permitted by ASC 985-605). While many companies may view this as a welcome change from the provisions of US GAAP, the use of such an approach may require companies to develop...
new policies, processes and controls relating to its use. Specifically, companies will have to address the following questions:

(a) Does the definition of cost include only the direct costs of providing goods and services to customers (i.e., fulfillment costs), or does it include an allocation of indirect costs? If cost includes allocated indirect costs, which costs are allocable? How are such costs allocated? Do systems and processes exist to capture such costs on a routine basis?

(b) What is a “reasonable profit margin”? Is it based on company-specific margins, or should it reference marketplace assumptions? Should the margins used be consistent for arrangements with different, comparably situated customers, or can they vary from customer to customer? These determinations may be especially difficult for post-contract customer support (PCS) and other post-contract support services that have very high margins.

Many companies applying ASC 985-605 in US GAAP may be encouraged by the fact that under IFRS evidence of fair value is not limited to VSOE of fair value. The ability to look to competitors’ prices may be particularly helpful for services such as software customization, installation and training. Additionally, third-party evidence or cost plus a reasonable profit margin, among other evidence, are also acceptable methods of establishing a reasonable estimate of fair value under IFRS. If a company has such sources of fair value evidence available to it (or, potentially, other sources), but is unable to establish VSOE of fair value for an element as required by ASC 985-605, it may be inappropriate to defer revenue recognition due to a lack of VSOE of fair value in a manner similar to US GAAP. Refer also to Question 15 related to the software industry for additional details.

Because there are multiple acceptable means to establish a reasonable estimate of fair value under IFRS, detailed disclosure of the basis used is important and should be included in the notes to the financial statements.

Also consider the following when contemplating the IFRS accounting:

Companies that offer their customers the option to buy separately priced extended warranty and/or product maintenance contracts concurrently with the sale of hardware will not be able to account for the service contract solely based on its stated price. Rather, such companies must evaluate if the service contract has commercial substance and, if so, under IFRS, arrangement consideration should be allocated to the hardware and service contract based on a reasonable estimate of fair value (regardless of any separate prices stated within the contract for each element).

Additionally, IFRS does not expressly limit the amount of arrangement consideration allocable to a delivered item to amounts that are not subject to forfeiture, refund or other concession if undelivered elements are not successfully delivered, as do ASC 985-605 and ASC 605-25. However, before recognizing such amounts as revenue, vendors must be able to demonstrate that it is probable that future economic benefits will flow to the organization (a basic revenue recognition criterion of IAS 18).

IFRIC 13 provides guidance for revenue recognition in customer loyalty programs that are considered to be multiple-element arrangements. IFRIC 13 provides some guidance on how to allocate arrangement consideration. While the scope of IFRIC 13 is specific to customer loyalty programs, it may be appropriate to consider this guidance when accounting for other multiple-element arrangements under IFRS. Refer to Question 12 related to IFRIC 13 for further details.
### 6. Does the entity receive upfront fees such as initiation, entrance or membership fees?

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consideration received from a customer at inception of an arrangement generally should be deferred unless the up-front fee is in exchange for products delivered or services performed that represent the culmination of a separate earnings process. Such fees are recognized ratably over the longer of the term of the arrangement or the expected performance period.</td>
<td>Such fees may be recognized as long as no uncertainty as to collectibility exists and if certain other criteria are met (for example, the fees are such that they provide only membership and all other services are paid for separately). If the fee entitles the member to services or publications to be provided during the membership period or to purchase goods or services at prices lower than those charged to non-members, it is recognized on a basis that reflects the timing, nature and value of the benefits provided.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Entities should consider the specific facts and circumstances to determine the appropriate accounting for nonrefundable, up-front fees. In some cases, it is possible that revenues related to such fees may be recognized earlier under IFRS as compared to US GAAP.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

### 7. Is revenue recognized using the completed contract method for long-term construction-type contracts?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 605-35</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 11.22, 30, 32 through 35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construction contracts are accounted for using the percentage-of-completion (POC) method if certain criteria are met. If the percentage-of-completion method cannot be used, the completed contract method is used.</td>
<td>Construction contracts are accounted for using the percentage-of-completion (POC) method if certain criteria are met. Otherwise, revenue is recognized but limited to recoverable costs incurred. Use of the completed contract method is not permitted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, the POC method should be used if the outcome of the contract can be reasonably estimated (even if an entity can only ensure that no loss will be incurred). If the outcome (revenues and costs) cannot be reasonably estimated, the completed contract method should be used. Under
Revenue recognition

the completed-contract method, billings and costs are accumulated on the balance sheet while the contract is in progress, but no revenue is recognized until the contract is completed or substantially completed.

Under IFRS, the POC method also should be used to recognize revenue where the outcome of a contract can be estimated reliably. However, if the outcome cannot be estimated reliably, revenue should be recognized only to the extent it is probable the contract costs incurred will be recoverable. Contract costs should be recognized when they are incurred instead of using the completed contract method.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

8. Does the reporting entity have long-term construction-type contracts for which revenue is recognized using the POC method?

US GAAP — 605-35

US GAAP allows two different approaches to measure contract revenue and costs under the percentage of completion method: the revenue-cost and gross profit approaches.

Implications:

While both US GAAP and IFRS allow the use of the POC method for qualifying contracts, differences may exist in the actual POC calculation, creating a potential timing difference in when revenue and profits are recognized. US GAAP allows the percentage-of-completion method of accounting to be calculated using either a revenue-cost approach or a gross profit approach.

Under the revenue-cost approach, the costs recognized are the total estimated contract costs multiplied by the percentage of completion. Likewise, contract revenues recognized are the total estimated contract revenues multiplied by the percentage of completion.

Under the gross profit approach, contract costs are the actual costs incurred in the period. Contract revenues are the total estimated contract profit multiplied by the percentage of completion plus the actual costs incurred in the period.

IFRS allows only the revenue-cost approach and it does not allow the gross profit approach for calculating the percentage of completion. Therefore, although the gross profit would be the same under both standards, the revenue and cost amounts may be different if the gross profit approach is used for US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
9. **Does the reporting entity have long-term construction-type contracts that include change orders?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 605-35</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 605-35 requires that change orders be accounted for as follows:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Under the completed-contract method (which is not permitted under IFRS — see Question 7), costs attributable to unpriced change orders should be deferred as contract costs if it is probable such costs will be recovered from contract revenues.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For all unpriced change orders, recovery of the costs should be deemed probable if the future event or events necessary for recovery are likely. In making this assessment, contractors should consider the customer’s written approval of the scope of the change order, separate documentation for change order costs that are identifiable and reasonable, and the contractor’s favorable experience in negotiating change orders, especially for the specific type of contract or change order being evaluated.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ASC 605-35 also provides the following guidelines in accounting for unpriced change orders under the percentage-of-completion method:</td>
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<tr>
<td>► If it is <em>not</em> probable that costs related to unpriced change orders will be recovered through a change in the contract price, such costs should be treated as contract costs in the period incurred (i.e., they should be expensed).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► If it is probable that the additional costs will be recovered, they should either be deferred until the parties have agreed to a change in contract price or treated as contract costs in the period incurred, with a like amount of revenue recognized.</td>
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<tr>
<td>► If it is probable that the contract price will be adjusted by more than the amount of the related costs and if the amount of the excess can be reliably estimated, the original contract price also should be adjusted for that amount if realization of the adjusted contract price is probable. However, because it is difficult to substantiate the amount of future revenue, revenue in excess of costs attributable to</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

IAS 11.13 states that a contractor may include change orders in the total contract revenue estimate when it is probable (more likely than not) that the customer will approve the changes and the amount of revenue can be reliably measured.
unpriced change orders should be recorded only when recovery is assured beyond a reasonable doubt (e.g., when a contractor’s historical experience provides such assurance or when a contractor has received a bona fide pricing offer from a customer).

Change orders that are in dispute or unapproved both in scope and price should be evaluated as claims. Recognition of additional contract revenue relating to claims is appropriate only if it is probable that the claim will result in additional contract revenue and if the amount can be reliably estimated. In such case, revenue should be recorded only to the extent that contract costs relating to the claim have been incurred.

Implications:

Accounting for change orders depends on the underlying circumstances, which may differ for each change order depending on the customer, the contract and the nature of the change. Therefore, change orders should be evaluated according to their characteristics and the circumstances and accounted for pursuant to the specific requirements of ASC 605-35.

IFRS permits a contractor to include change orders in the total contract revenue estimate when it is probable (more likely than not) that the customer will approve the changes and the amount can be reliably measured.

Because of the different requirements, the timing of revenue recognition between US GAAP and IFRS may differ, depending on the facts and circumstances.

Identified difference?

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

10. Does a reporting entity either have long-term construction type contracts that include a number of deliverables within a single contract or does the reporting entity have a number of contracts with the same party?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 605-35-25-5 through 25-14</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 11.7 through 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construction contracts may be, but are not required to be, combined or segmented if certain criteria are met.</td>
<td>Construction contracts must be combined or segmented if certain criteria are met.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Implications:**

US GAAP allows, but does not require, segmenting or combining such contracts if certain conditions are met, whereas IFRS requires contracts to be segmented or combined if the criteria outlined in IAS 11 are met. Accordingly, differences may arise between US GAAP and IFRS.

Additionally, although the criteria in IAS 11 for combining or segmenting contracts are similar to the criteria of ASC 605-35, they are not identical. Accordingly, there may be differences between US GAAP and IFRS when determining if contracts should be combined or segmented. It is possible that more contracts would have to be combined or segmented under IFRS as compared to US GAAP, depending on the facts and circumstances.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe:</td>
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</table>

| 11. Does the entity provide consideration to its customers, including resellers, such as discounts, coupons, rebates, and “free” products or services? | Yes | No |

### US GAAP — 605-50

Consideration given by a vendor to a customer is presumed to be a reduction of the selling prices that should be characterized as a reduction of revenue.

This presumption may be overcome only when the following two conditions are met:

1. The vendor receives an identifiable benefit (goods or services) in exchange for the consideration.
2. The vendor can reasonably estimate the fair value of the benefit identified under condition (1).

### IFRS — IAS 18.8, 10

IAS 18 states that revenues should be measured at fair value of the consideration received or receivable taking into account the amount of any trade discounts and volume rebates allowed by the entity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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</table>

Under US GAAP, there is a presumption that consideration given by a vendor to a customer is a reduction of the selling prices of the vendor’s products or services that should be characterized as a reduction of revenue when recognized in the income statement. This presumption can be overcome, and the consideration recorded as an expense, only if certain conditions are met.

IAS 18 does not contain such specific guidance and therefore it is possible that in certain circumstances the entity may conclude that such consideration represents other identifiable benefits and should be presented as an expense rather than a reduction of revenues.

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the net income should be the same but the revenue and expense lines may be different due to the different classifications of such consideration given to customers.
**12. Does the reporting entity provide certain “customer loyalty” rewards to provide its customers with incentives to buy its goods and services (e.g., frequent flier miles provided by airlines)?**

**US GAAP — 605-50 and 605-25**

Diversity in practice exists under US GAAP.
Some entities analogize to ASC 605-50 and account for award credits granted to members by accruing the estimated costs of providing free or discounted goods or services to the members that are expected to redeem accumulated award credits.
Other entities analogize to ASC 605-25 and account for such award credits in a manner analogous to an element included in a multiple-element arrangement (i.e., as a current sale of a product or service and an obligation to deliver future products or render future services).

**IFRS — IFRIC 13**

IFRIC 13 established that entities should account for award credits as a separately identifiable component of the sales transaction(s) in which they are granted (i.e., as an element of a multiple-element arrangement).
The fair value of the consideration received or receivable in respect of the initial sale must be allocated between the award credits and the other components of the sale.
The amount allocated to the award credits is measured by reference to their fair value.
IFRIC 13 indicates that fair value may be based on a quoted market price for an identical award credit or other valuation techniques.

**Implications:**

Because IFRIC 13 requires transactions involving award credits in a customer loyalty program provided in connection with the current sale of a good or service be accounted for as a multiple-element arrangement, its application results in some amount of revenue deferral under IFRS.
Under US GAAP, this is not the case if the entity’s accounting policy analogizes to ASC 605-50. This accounting is commonly referred to as the “incremental cost” model in US GAAP. The incremental cost model is not permitted in IFRS.
Entities sponsoring customer loyalty programs will need to carefully review their accounting policies and the potential impact of implementing IFRIC 13. It should be noted that even if an entity analogized to ASC 605-25 and accounted for the awards analogous to a multiple-element arrangement (see Question 5), that method may still differ from the IFRC 13 approach. Specifically, a difference exists with respect to the treatment of breakage. In many cases customers ultimately do not demand that the entity provides the full amount of goods and/or services to which they are entitled. The portion of the award credits that ultimately is not redeemed by customers is known as breakage.
Under US GAAP, entities accounting for award credits by analogizing to ASC 605-25 should not consider breakage when determining the amount to be allocated to award credits accounted for as a separate unit of accounting (because this would result in immediate recognition of breakage prior...
to a vendor providing any goods or services to the customer in fulfillment of the award credits). By contrast, IFRIC 13.AG2 states that an entity may estimate the fair value of award credits by taking into account the points which are not expected to be redeemed, non-performance risk and the amount of the discounts or incentives that would otherwise be offered to customers who have not earned award credits from an initial sale.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**13. Does the reporting entity recognize revenue associated with advertising barter transactions?**

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires advertising barter revenue to be recognized only if the fair value of the advertising given up is determinable based on the entity’s own historical practice of receiving cash (or consideration that is readily convertible to cash) for similar advertising. ASC 605-20-25-14 through 25-18 provides very detailed guidance to analyze and measure this type of revenue.</td>
<td>IAS 18 states that an exchange of similar items does not generate revenue but SIC-31 provides an exception for certain advertising barter transactions. SIC-31 has specific guidance for barter transactions involving advertising services. It states that if the fair value of the advertising services received cannot be measured reliably, then the fair value of the services provided may be measured using only similar cash (non-barter) transactions. The guidance within IFRS on measuring this type of transaction is very detailed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

While the principles in US GAAP and IFRS pertaining to advertising barter transactions are similar, differences may result from the detailed provisions within both sets of requirements on how to measure this type of revenue.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
14. Does the entity receive government grants?

**US GAAP**

US GAAP does not provide specific guidance relating to the accounting for government grants. As a result, many US GAAP reporters account for government grants or other assistance by analogy to other guidance, such as IAS 20, Accounting for Government Grants and Disclosure of Government Assistance or ASC 450-30, Contingencies — Gain Contingencies, depending on the facts and circumstances. The reason for analogizing to IAS 20 is the absence of US GAAP literature to address the accounting for government grants.

However, in 2011 the SEC staff informally expressed a view that registrants should not account for payments received for using electronic health record (EHR) technology, pursuant to the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, by analogy to the grant accounting guidance in IAS 20. As an alternative, the SEC staff said it would not object to registrants that use a gain contingency model by analogy to ASC 450-30 to account for payments received for meaningfully using EHR technology.

**IFRS — IAS 20.7, 12, 20, 24 and 29**

Government grants should not be recognized until there is reasonable assurance that both they will be received and that the entity will comply with their conditions. IAS 20.12 requires grants to be recognized in profit or loss over the periods that match the related costs for which they were intended to compensate, on a systematic basis.

IAS 20.20 further states that grants should be recognized in profit or loss in the period when they become receivable as compensation for expenses or losses already incurred or for the purpose of giving immediate financial support to the entity with no future related costs.

IAS 20.24 states that grants related to assets should be presented on the balance sheet either as deferred income (and then amortized on a systematic basis over the life of the asset) or as an offset to the cost of the asset to which it relates.

IAS 20.29 states that amounts recognized in profit or loss are either presented separately under a general heading of ‘other income’ or alternatively as a deduction from the related expense. Therefore, amounts are not presented as revenue.

**Implications:**

Because US GAAP does not provide specific guidance relating to the accounting for government grants, it is possible that US GAAP reporters may have used IAS 20 as guidance previously. Accordingly, depending on a company’s historical accounting practices, there may or may not be a significant difference between US GAAP and IFRS. Companies should carefully review all terms and conditions of grant agreements to determine whether differences do, or should, exist.

Under both US GAAP and IFRS, recording grants in equity is not acceptable.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
### 15. Does the entity sell software to its customers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 985-605</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The basic principles of 985-605 are consistent with the general revenue recognition principles of SAB Topic 13 and certain other US GAAP literature. However, ASC 985-605 provides prescriptive accounting in certain situations. Software arrangements may consist of multiple deliverables, or elements, including elements deliverable only on a when-and-if-available basis. If an arrangement includes multiple elements, the vendor must allocate the revenue to the various elements based on vendor-specific objective evidence (VSOE) of fair value. If VSOE of fair value of at least the undelivered elements of an arrangement does not exist, all revenue from the arrangement should be deferred until VSOE does exist or until all elements have been delivered, with certain exceptions. The portion of the fee allocated to an element should be recognized as revenue when all of the basic revenue recognition criteria have been met for that element.</td>
<td>No detailed guidance is provided for transactions involving the sale or licensing of software. However, the illustrative examples to IAS 18 (IAS 18.IE19) indicate that fees from the development of customized software are recognized as revenue by reference to the stage of completion of the development, including completion of services provided for post-delivery service support. IAS 18.IE20 notes license fees and royalties are normally recognized in accordance with the substance of the agreement. As a practical matter, this may be on a straight-line basis over the life of the agreement or if the licensor has no remaining obligations to perform, as a sale at point in time. Contingent revenue is recognized only when it is probable that the fee or royalty will be received, normally when the event has occurred.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

The accounting issues in the software services industry include when to recognize revenue from contracts to develop software, software licensing fees, customer support services and data services and how to allocate arrangement consideration to the different elements in a multiple-element arrangement. However, these issues have not been specifically addressed in the IFRS literature. The illustrative examples to IAS 18 provide limited guidance related to software transactions. Because of the nature of the products and services involved, applying the IFRS general revenue recognition principles to software transactions can sometimes be difficult. As a result, software companies have used a variety of methods to recognize revenue, often producing significantly different financial results for similar transactions. ASC 985-605 requires that when an arrangement includes multiple elements, the fees should be allocated to the various elements based on VSOE. IFRS has no concept of VSOE and, therefore, it is possible that entities may determine alternative methods to allocate the arrangement consideration based on estimated fair value, for example. Refer to Question 5 related to multiple-element arrangements for additional details.
Revenue recognition

16. Is the entity engaged in the cable and satellite TV operations industry?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 922-605, 922-430</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Installation (hookup) fee revenues are generally recognized up to the amount of costs incurred for the installation with any excess revenue deferred and amortized to income over the estimated average period that subscribers are expected to remain connected to the system (i.e., the estimated customer life).</td>
<td>IAS 18 provides only general guidance as to when it may be appropriate to separate different elements of the transactions. No detailed guidance is provided for cable companies. Following the principle in IAS 18.13, the transaction should be analyzed as a multiple-element arrangement. If the substance of the transaction does not reflect that installation (hookup) is a separately identifiable component to be accounted for, revenue should be deferred and recognized over the period in which the related service is to be provided.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

US GAAP has a specific standard for cable television industry. ASC 922-605 requires that installation fee revenue be recognized to the extent of direct costs incurred. The remaining amount, if any, would be deferred and amortized over the estimated customer life.

In contrast, under IAS 18.13, such fees would be analyzed to determine whether they should be considered a separate element of the transaction. If so, and the amount of fees are reliably estimated, no revenue deferral would occur. If the installation is not a separate deliverable when looking at the substance of the transaction, then the entire amount of revenue from the installation should be deferred and amortized over the estimated customer life.

ASC 922-605 should not be applied under the IAS 8 hierarchy because it conflicts with the principles of IAS 18. ASC 922-605 permits the recognition of hookup revenue to the extent of direct selling costs, whereas IAS 18 focuses on deliverables. As such, even if a hookup was determined to be a separate deliverable, direct selling costs (which are the trigger for the recognition of hookup revenue under ASC 922-605) are not an appropriate measure for the deliverable pursuant to IAS 18.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
## 17. Does the entity engage in real estate sales activities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 976-605</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 11, IAS 18, IFRIC 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, profit on a real estate sale may be recognized in full on the date of sale, provided that the profit is determinable (i.e., collectibility is reasonably assured or the amount that will not be collected can be estimated), and the earnings process is virtually complete (i.e., the seller does not have substantial continuing involvement). If these general principles are not met, full profit recognition (and, in some cases, sales recognition) is postponed. ASC 976-605 describes, in detail, how to determine whether these general principles have been satisfied and the appropriate accounting to apply in other circumstances.</td>
<td>Under IAS 18, revenue is generally recognized when the significant risks and rewards of ownership have transferred to the seller, there is no continuing managerial involvement (to the degree usually associated with ownership), revenue can be measured reliably, it is probable that the economic benefits associated with the transaction will flow to the seller and costs incurred (or to be incurred) can be measured reliably. IFRIC 15 provides guidance to clarify whether an agreement for the construction of real estate is within the scope of IAS 11 or IAS 18. Additionally, IFRIC 15 provides guidance to determine when revenue from the construction of real estate should be recognized. IFRIC 15 states that an agreement for the construction of real estate meets the definition of a construction contract (therefore, under the scope of IAS 11) when the buyer is able to specify the major structural elements of the design of the real estate before construction begins and/or specify major structural changes once construction is in progress (whether or not it exercises that ability). Additionally, if the contract is for the rendering of services with construction materials, then revenue may be recognized by reference to the stage of completion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

Although the basic principles in the revenue standards under both US GAAP and IFRS are conceptually similar, the prescriptive rules under US GAAP may result in different conclusions depending on the facts and circumstances. Additionally, the limited prescriptive rules in IAS 18 may require more judgment to determine revenue recognition for real estate sales transactions.

The application of IFRIC 15 to real estate construction contracts may result in a significant difference in accounting depending on the determination of whether IAS 18 or IAS 11 should be applied. An analysis of the terms of the real estate construction contract and all of the surrounding facts and circumstances will need to be performed for each contract. Because US GAAP requirements are more restrictive, it is possible that in certain circumstances revenue may be recognized earlier under IFRS than US GAAP.
18. Does the entity offer extended payment terms to its customers?

Vendors commonly offer payment terms to its customers that extend beyond normal trade terms and, in some cases, offer their products in exchange for notes receivable due in subsequent periods. Often, the long-term trade receivables or notes receivable carry no interest or interest rates below the rate that would be charged in a standalone financing arrangement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 835-30</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 11 and IAS 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires an entity to account for the implicit interest component of trade receivables and notes receivable only in limited circumstances. ASC 835-30 provides the guidance for the appropriate accounting when the nominal (face) amount of a note or trade receivable does not represent the present value of the consideration receivable in the transaction. ASC 835-30 is not applicable to the following transactions:  ► Receivables and payables arising from transactions with customers or suppliers in the normal course of business that are due in customary trade terms not exceeding approximately one year  ► Amounts that do not require repayment in the future, but rather will be applied to the purchase price of the property, goods, or service involved  ► Amounts intended to provide security for one party to an agreement  ► The customary cash lending activities and demand or savings deposit activities of financial institutions whose primary business is lending money  ► Transactions where interest rates are affected by the tax attributes or legal restrictions prescribed by a governmental agency  ► Transactions between parent and subsidiary entities and between subsidiaries of a common parent</td>
<td>IAS 11 and IAS 18 require an entity to measure revenue at the fair value of the consideration received or receivable. The consideration received or receivable is often in the form of cash or cash equivalents; therefore, the entity recognizes revenue equal to the amount of cash or cash equivalents received or receivable when the consideration is transferred within a short period of time. However, when the entity allows the customer to defer payment, the fair value of the consideration may be less than the nominal amount of cash received or receivable. For example, an entity may extend credit to the buyer at an interest rate below market (or with no interest) for the sale of goods. IAS 18 states that when the arrangement effectively constitutes a financing transaction, the fair value of the consideration receivable should be determined by discounting future receipts using an imputed interest rate. The difference between the fair value of the consideration receivable and the nominal amount of the consideration would be recognized as interest income.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When a note is exchanged for goods or services entered into at arm’s length, ASC 835-30 presumes that the interest rate stipulated by the parties to the transaction represents fair and adequate compensation for the use of the related consideration. However, when the economic substance of the transaction suggests that the interest rate stipulated by the parties varies from prevailing market interest rates, ASC 835-30 requires the vendor to impute interest and recognize interest income for the difference between the nominal amount of the consideration and the present value of the consideration to be received.

Implications:
Under US GAAP, entities are not required to impute interest on amounts due in normal trade terms for transactions carried out in the normal course of business unless the payment terms exceed one year.
Under IFRS, an entity should impute interest in all transactions in which the customer’s required payment is deferred (subject to materiality).

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

19. Does the entity enter into service concession arrangements (also referred to as public-private partnerships)?

In some countries, service concession arrangements have been developed as a mechanism for procuring public services. Under such arrangements, private capital is used to provide major economic and social facilities for public use. These arrangements are generally used for funding and building infrastructure assets such as roads, bridges, railways, hospitals, prisons, etc. Although service concession arrangements historically have not been widely entered into either in the US or generally by US reporting entities, these arrangements are becoming more prevalent in certain industries (such as the construction industry).

The FASB issued guidance on service concession arrangements in ASC 853, Service concessions arrangements, in 2014. This guidance is effective for PBEs for annual periods, and interim periods within those annual periods, beginning after 15 December 2014. For entities other than PBEs, the amendments are effective for annual periods beginning after 15 December 2014, and interim periods within annual periods beginning after 15 December 2015. Early adoption is permitted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 853 and 840</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRIC 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASC 853 applies only to an operating entity in a service concession arrangement that involves a public-sector grantor if (1) the grantor controls or has the ability to modify or approve the services</td>
<td>IFRIC 12 applies to public-to-private service concession arrangements if 1) the grantor (typically a governmental unit) controls or regulates what services the operator must provide with the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that the operator must provide with the infrastructure, to whom it must provide them, and at what price; and (2) the grantor controls — through ownership, beneficial entitlement or otherwise — any significant residual interest in the infrastructure at the end of the term of the arrangement.

Infrastructure within the scope of ASC 853 should not be accounted for as a lease or recognized as property, plant and equipment because the operating entity does not control the infrastructure.

ASC 853 does not specify which aspects of US GAAP should be applied. Instead, the operating entity should refer to other US GAAP to account for the aspects of a service concession arrangement (e.g., ASC 605). Service concession arrangements meeting the scope criteria in ASC 980, *Regulated Operations*, should be accounted for using that guidance.

Infrastructure within the scope of IFRIC 12 should not be accounted for as a lease or recognized as property, plant and equipment of the operator since the asset is "controlled" by the grantor. IFRIC 12.14 requires, the operator to recognize revenue from construction services when assets are built or upgraded during the concession term. Revenue is recognized during the period of construction using the percentage of completion method set out in IAS 11.

The operator recognizes an asset in consideration for these construction services. It is a financial asset to the extent that the operator has an unconditional right to receive consideration from the grantor or the grantor has guaranteed the operator's cash flow and/or an intangible asset to the extent it has a right to charge users of the public service. Otherwise, it is an intangible asset.

IFRIC 12.20 requires, the operator to recognize revenue from operations services over the term of the concession arrangement in accordance with IAS 18.

**Implications:**

Service concession arrangements within the scope of ASC 853 exist in the US but may be more prevalent in other jurisdictions, particularly in the energy and construction sectors (e.g., entities involved with assets such as power plants or bridges).

The guidance in ASC 853 is consistent with IFRS in that service concession arrangements under IFRS are not considered leases. In addition, infrastructure that is the subject of a service concession arrangement is not recognized as property, plant, and equipment. However, IFRIC 12 addresses the accounting by operating entities of service concession arrangements, including general principles on recognizing and measuring the obligations and related rights in these arrangements.

Further, IFRIC 12 clarifies how certain aspects of existing IFRS should be applied by an operating entity in accounting for various aspects of service concession arrangements (e.g., how to recognize and measure revenue for operating, construction, or upgrade services in accordance with IAS 11 and IAS 18, and how to account for borrowing costs).

ASC 853 does not provide similar guidance about how to account for service concession arrangements. Instead, ASC 853 requires an operating entity to refer to other accounting topics (e.g., ASC 605) to account for various aspects of service concession arrangements.

The application of IFRIC 12 to service concession arrangements may result in a significant difference in accounting, for both the balance sheet and income statement, due to the detailed provisions within IFRIC 12 on how existing IFRS should be applied.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

IFRS 1 permits a first-time adopter to apply the transitional provisions in IFRIC 12. IFRIC 12 requires retrospective application unless it is, for any particular service arrangement, impracticable for the operator to apply IFRIC 12 retrospectively at the start of the earliest period presented, in which case it should:

(1) Recognize financial assets and intangible assets that existed at the start of the earliest period presented;

(2) Use the previous carrying amounts of those financial and intangible assets (however previously classified) as their carrying amounts as at that date; and

(3) Test financial and intangible assets recognized at that date for impairment, unless this is not practicable, in which case the amounts shall be tested for impairment as at the start of the current period.

As noted above, service concession arrangements exist in the US but may be more prevalent in other jurisdictions, particularly in the energy and construction sectors (e.g., entities involved with assets such as power plants or bridges). Therefore, this voluntary exemption is likely to have minimal impact for many industries but will need to be evaluated by a first-time adopter providing public services as defined by IFRIC 12. Additionally, first-time adopters with foreign operations may have a greater likelihood of having these types of agreements and therefore may have to apply this guidance.
Share-based payments

Similarities:
The US guidance for share-based payments, ASC 718, *Compensation — Stock Compensation*, and ASC 505-50, *Equity-Based Payments to Non-Employees*, is largely converged with IFRS 2, *Share-Based Payment*. Both US GAAP and IFRS require a fair value-based approach in accounting for share-based payment arrangements whereby an entity (a) acquires goods or services in exchange for issuing share options or other equity instruments or (b) incurs liabilities that are based, at least in part, on the price of its shares or that may require settlement in its shares. Under both US GAAP and IFRS, this guidance applies to transactions with both employees and non-employees and is applicable to all entities. Both ASC 718 and IFRS 2 define the fair value of the transaction to be the amount at which the asset or liability could be bought or sold in a current transaction between willing parties. Further, both US GAAP and IFRS require the fair value of the shares or options, as applicable, to be measured based on a market price (if available) or estimated using an option-pricing model. Additionally, the treatment of modifications and settlements of share-based payments is similar in many respects under both US GAAP and IFRS. Finally, both standards require similar disclosures in the financial statements to provide investors sufficient information to understand the types of and the extent to which the entity is entering into share-based payment transactions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 718, <em>Compensation — Stock Compensation</em></td>
<td>▶ IFRS 2, <em>Share-Based Payment</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 505-50, <em>Equity-Based Payments to Non-Employees</em></td>
<td>▶ IAS 12, <em>Income Taxes</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ SAB Topic 14, <em>Share-Based Payment (SAB 107 and SAB 110)</em></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any specific plans to further converge ASC 718 and IFRS 2. However, in June 2016, the IASB issued three amendments to IFRS 2, two of which would more closely align the guidance with US GAAP. The amendments are effective 1 January 2018 but earlier application is permitted provided it is disclosed. Entities are required to apply the amendments without restating prior periods but retrospective application is permitted if elected for all three amendments and other criteria are met. The amendments include:

▶ Effects of vesting conditions on the measurement of a cash-settled share-based payment – Entities should account for the effects of vesting and non-vesting conditions on the measurement of a cash-settled share-based payment using the approach for the treatment of service conditions in Example 12 of the Implementation Guidance (IG) to IFRS 2 (i.e., excluding the conditions from the fair value calculation, but basing the liability until vesting date on the current best estimate of the outcome of those conditions (as is the case for equity-settled share-based payments)).

▶ Accounting for a modification to the terms and conditions of a share-based payment that changes the classification of the transaction from cash-settled to equity-settled – The amendment will clarify that: (1) the equity-settled share-based payment transaction is measured by reference to the fair value of the equity instruments granted at the modification date and is recognized in equity, on the modification date, to the extent to which goods or services have been received; (2) the liability for the cash-settled share-based payment transaction as of the modification date is derecognized on that date; and (3) any difference between the carrying amount of the liability derecognized and the amount of equity recognized on the modification date is recognized
immediately in profit or loss. The remaining fair value of the equity instrument is recognized over the remaining vesting period of the equity-settled transaction.

Classification of share-based payment transactions with net settlement features – The amendment will require an entity that settles a share-based payment arrangement net by withholding a specified portion of the equity instruments to meet the entity’s statutory tax withholding obligation to classify the transaction as equity-settled in its entirety, if the entire share-based payment would otherwise be classified as equity-settled if it had not included the net settlement feature.

Discussion of IFRS 1:

The IASB specifically added the following exemptions to IFRS 1 for first-time adopters that have share-based payment plans:

- A first-time adopter is encouraged, but not required, to apply IFRS 2 to equity instruments that were granted on or before 7 November 2002
- A first-time adopter is also encouraged, but not required, to apply IFRS 2 to equity instruments that were granted after 7 November 2002 but that vested before the later of date of transition to IFRS and 1 January 2005
- A first-time adopter is encouraged, but not required, to apply IFRS 2 to liabilities arising from cash-settled share-based payment transactions if those liabilities were settled before 1 January 2005 or before the date of transition to IFRS.

As a result of applying these exemptions, a first-time adopter will have to apply the provisions of IFRS 2 only to all outstanding equity instruments that are unvested and liabilities that have not been settled prior to the date of transition to IFRS. Therefore, a first time adopter who elects to apply these exemptions will not apply the requirements of IFRS 2 to equity instruments that have vested and liability awards that have been settled prior to the date of transition to IFRS.

Given that entities reporting under US GAAP were required to adopt a fair value approach to accounting for share-based payment transactions beginning in 2005, it is unlikely that first-time adopters will have many, if any, unvested share-based payment arrangements that are not already being accounted for under a fair value approach on the date of transition. As a result, we would not expect the effect of applying the requirements of IFRS 2 to the unvested share-based payment transactions to be significant. However, as described below, the entity should be aware that there are certain differences between IFRS 2 and ASC 718/ASC 505-50 that may affect the opening IFRS balance sheet and future accounting for the entity’s share-based payment transactions.
1. **Does the entity have share-based payment awards that vest in installments (i.e., graded vesting) based on service conditions only?**

   Graded vesting refers to share-based payment awards that vest in installments (or “tranches”) over the vesting period (e.g., an award of 300 stock options that vest in equal installments of 100 stock options per year over a three-year period).

   A service condition is a condition that affects the vesting, exercisability, exercise price or other pertinent factors used in determining the fair value of an award that depends on the employee rendering service to the employer for a specified period.

<table>
<thead>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entities make an accounting policy decision about whether to recognize compensation cost for an award with only service conditions that has a graded vesting schedule:</td>
<td>The accelerated method is required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- on a straight-line basis over the requisite service period for each separately vesting portion of the award as if the award was, in substance, multiple awards, (i.e., accelerated method); or</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- on a straight-line basis over the requisite period for the entire award.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The choice of attribution method is an accounting policy decision that should be applied consistently to all share-based payments subject to graded service vesting and should be disclosed, if significant.</td>
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</table>

**Implications:**

Because of the policy choice under US GAAP, the attribution of compensation cost over the vesting period will differ between US GAAP and IFRS when an entity elects to apply the “straight-line” method to account for share-based payment awards subject to graded vesting based on a service condition only. The use of the “straight-line” method will result in less compensation cost being recognized in earlier years.

In addition, total compensation cost may differ between US GAAP and IFRS because of the way that the fair value of the award is determined. For example, US GAAP permits the total fair value of the award (regardless of the entity’s policy) to be determined by estimating the value of the award subject to graded vesting as a single award using an average expected life or by estimating the value of each vesting tranche separately using a separate expected life, whereas IFRS requires the use of the latter valuation approach.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
IFRS 1 implications:

First-time adopters that have elected to apply the “straight-line” method under ASC 718 will need to apply the “accelerated” method under IFRS 2 to all unvested share-based payment awards subject to graded vesting as of the transition date (note that the entire award is considered to be unvested if any tranche is unvested as of the transition date). This could result in the acceleration of compensation cost from what had been originally reported. Any difference would be recorded as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet.

In addition, because IFRS 2 requires a different fair value measure for each tranche, the first-time adopter who measured the fair value of the award using a single expected term assumption will be required to remeasure each vesting tranche. In remeasuring the fair value, the first-time adopter should use inputs (e.g., volatility, risk-free rate, dividend yield) determined as of the original grant date, unless there is objective evidence that demonstrates such inputs were erroneous.

2. After the adoption of ASU 2016-09\textsuperscript{11} under US GAAP, does the entity elect to recognize forfeitures of awards as they occur?

A forfeiture of a share-based payment results from an employee’s failure to satisfy a service condition or a performance condition that affects vesting. A service condition is a condition that affects the vesting, exercisability, exercise price or other pertinent factors used in determining the fair value of an award that depends on the employee rendering service to the employer for a specified period. A performance condition is a condition affecting the vesting, exercisability, exercise price, or other pertinent factors used in determining the fair value of an award that relates to both of the following: (1) an employee’s rendering service for a specified (either explicitly or implicitly) period of time and (2) achieving a specified performance target that is defined solely by reference to the employer’s own operations (or activities). The total amount of compensation cost recognized at the end of the requisite service period should be based on the number of instruments for which the requisite service has been rendered (that is, awards for which the requisite service period has been completed).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-35-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Upon adoption of ASU 2016-09, entities will have to elect whether to account for forfeitures related to service conditions by (1) recognizing forfeitures of awards as they occur (e.g., when an award does not vest because the employee leaves the company) or (2) estimating the number of awards expected to be forfeited and adjusting the estimate when subsequent information indicates that the estimate is likely to change (the approach described above for prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09). For awards with performance conditions, an entity will continue to follow ASC 718-10-25-20 and assess the probability that a performance condition will</td>
<td>There is no accounting policy election under IFRS. Entities should base initial accruals of compensation cost on the estimated number of instruments for which the requisite service is expected to be rendered. That estimate should be revised if subsequent information indicates that the actual number of instruments is likely to differ from previous estimates.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{11} For public business entities, ASU 2016-09 is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those years. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted, but all of the guidance must be adopted in the same period.
be achieved at each reporting period to determine whether and when to recognize compensation cost, regardless of its accounting policy election for forfeitures.

**Implications:**

If an entity estimates forfeitures after adopting ASU 2016-09, there would be no difference between US GAAP and IFRS. However, the timing of the recognition of compensation cost will differ between US GAAP and IFRS when an entity elects to recognize forfeitures of awards as they occur. Regardless of the policy election, an entity will ultimately recognize compensation cost for all awards that vest under both US GAAP and IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

First time adopters of IFRS that previously elected to recognize forfeitures of awards as they occur will need to estimate forfeitures under IFRS 2 for all unvested share-based payment awards as of the transition date. This could result in recognizing more or less compensation cost for unvested awards as of the transition date. Any difference would be recorded as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital or liability, as applicable, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet.

**3. Does the entity have share-based payment awards whose service inception date precedes the grant date?**

The service inception date is the date at which the requisite service period begins and usually is the grant date. The grant date is the date at which an employer and an employee reach a mutual understanding of the key terms and conditions of a share-based payment award.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-35-6, 718-10-55-108 through 55-109</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.IG4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The service inception date usually is the grant date, but may precede the grant date if: (1) an award is authorized, (2) service begins before a mutual understanding of the key terms and conditions of a share-based payment award is reached, and (3) either of the following conditions is met: (a) the award’s terms do not include a substantive future requisite service condition that exists at the grant date or (b) the award contains a market or performance condition that if not satisfied during the service period preceding the</td>
<td>The service inception date usually is the grant date, but may precede the grant date if services are received prior to the grant date. Condition (3) under US GAAP does not have to exist in order to have a service inception date under IFRS.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
grant date and following the inception of the arrangement results in forfeiture of the award.

If the service inception date precedes the grant date, accrual of compensation cost for periods before the grant date is based on the fair value of the award at the service inception date and each subsequent reporting date. In the period in which the grant date occurs, cumulative compensation cost is adjusted to reflect the cumulative effect of measuring compensation cost based on the fair value at the grant date.

If the service inception date precedes the grant date, the recognition of compensation cost begins on the service inception date and ends on the vesting date, even if that date occurs after the grant date.

If the service inception date precedes the grant date, accrual of compensation cost for periods before the grant date is based on the fair value of the award at the service inception date and each subsequent reporting date. In the period in which the grant date occurs, cumulative compensation cost is adjusted to reflect the cumulative effect of measuring compensation cost based on the fair value at the grant date.

If the service inception date precedes the grant date, the recognition of compensation cost begins on the service inception date and ends on the vesting date.

Implications:

Under ASC 718 the service inception date may precede the grant date only if the above conditions are satisfied. Because those conditions do not exist in IFRS 2, a service inception date preceding the grant date is more likely to occur under IFRS, which may lead to the recognition of compensation cost earlier under IFRS than US GAAP. Consider the following example:

► On 1 January 20X9, Entity A offers an employee a share option award that vests upon completion of two years of service. A mutual understanding of the key terms and conditions of the award exists on this date.
► Entity A’s Board of Directors has authorized the award. Shareholder approval of the award occurs on 1 April 20X9 (grant date).
► The employee begins providing service on 1 January 20X9.

Under US GAAP, because the award has a substantive future requisite service condition that exists at the grant date (1 April), the service inception date and grant date are 1 April. Entity A would recognize compensation cost beginning on 1 April through the end of the remaining two-year service period. Thus, compensation cost under US GAAP is recognized over 21 months.

Conversely, under IFRS, the service inception date is 1 January and the grant date is 1 April. Therefore, Entity A would begin recognizing compensation cost based on the fair value of the award at each reporting date prior to 1 April. On 1 April, cumulative compensation cost would be adjusted to reflect the cumulative effect of measuring compensation cost based on the fair value at the grant date. Compensation cost will continue to be recognized over the next 21 months through the end of the two-year service period. Thus, compensation cost under IFRS is recognized over 24 months.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
**IFRS 1 implications:**

If the first time adopter is receiving services for a share-based payment award in which neither the service inception date nor the grant date has been established under ASC 718 as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must determine whether a service inception date has been established under IFRS 2. If there is a service inception date under IFRS 2, the first-time adopter must measure the fair value of the award as of the transition date and recognize compensation cost by recording in the opening IFRS balance sheet an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

In addition, an adjustment may be required in the opening IFRS balance sheet to reflect differences in service inception date between IFRS 2 and ASC 718 for an award for which the grant date has already occurred. Any difference in the cumulative compensation cost recognized in additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

In measuring the fair value of the award in advance of a grant date, the inputs used in the option-pricing model should be based on conditions that existed as of the transition date, in order to achieve consistency with IAS 10, *Events after the Reporting Period*.

4. **Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to non-employees?**

Both US GAAP and IFRS prescribe specific models to account for share-based payment awards to non-employees. Non-employees are those individuals that do not meet the definition of an employee, which is defined differently under the two standards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-30-2, 505-50</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.13 through 13A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Definition of an employee</strong></td>
<td><strong>Definition of an employee</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The US GAAP definition of employee focuses mainly on the common law definition of an employee (i.e., IRS Revenue Ruling 87-41 <em>Common Law Employee Guidelines</em>).</td>
<td>IFRS has a more general definition of an employee that includes individuals who provide services similar to those rendered by employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement date</strong></td>
<td><strong>Measurement date</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share-based payment awards granted to non-employees must be measured at the earlier of:</td>
<td>Share-based payment awards granted to non-employees must be measured at the date the entity obtains the goods or the counterparty renders the services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the date at which a “commitment for performance” by the counterparty is reached; or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► the date at which the counterparty’s performance is complete.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A performance commitment is a sufficiently large disincentive for non-performance such that performance is probable (e.g., a financial penalty). If a performance commitment is present, the measurement date may be the grant date. If not, the measurement date is the date the service is complete, but the cost is recognized over the vesting period.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement</strong></td>
<td><strong>Measurement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share-based payment awards granted to non-employees must be measured using either:</td>
<td>Share-based payment awards granted to non-employees should be measured based on the fair value of the goods or services received. In those rare circumstances where the fair value of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the fair value of the goods or services received; or
the fair value of the equity instruments granted, whichever is more reliably measurable.

Most US entities have concluded that the fair value of the equity instruments is more reliably measurable.

### Completion of performance

Once performance is complete, the award may become subject to other accounting literature that may require continued remeasurement of the award at fair value (i.e., a liability award).

the goods and services received cannot be reliably estimated, the fair value of the equity instruments granted may be used.

However, if the fair value of the equity instruments exceeds the fair value of the goods and services received, the difference is generally an indication that unidentifiable goods or services have been or will be received. The unidentifiable goods or services would be measured as the difference between the fair value of the equity instrument and the fair value of any identifiable goods or services received. Therefore, even under IFRS 2 where the fair value of the goods or services is used, entities would need to consider the fair value of the equity instrument to determine if there is any excess that may need to be accounted for.

### Completion of performance

While not specifically addressed in IFRS 2, share-based payment awards that are originally within the scope of IFRS 2 remain within the scope of IFRS 2 and do not become subject to other literature until they vest (share awards), are exercised (equity-settled option awards), or settled (cash-settled awards).

---

**Implications:**

**Definition of an employee**

Because the definition of an employee is broader under IFRS 2, this could result in some non-employee awards under US GAAP qualifying as employee awards under IFRS, depending on whether the nature of the services and the relationship between the counterparty and the employer satisfies the more general IFRS definition.

**Measurement date**

Unlike US GAAP, IFRS does not have a “performance commitment” concept for purposes of identifying the measurement date for transactions with non-employees. Consequently, if the measurement date is the “performance commitment” date under US GAAP (which is not common), this will likely result in a different fair value and, therefore, a different amount of compensation cost.

In addition, as discussed further below, it may be more common under IFRS for transactions with non-employees to be measured based on the fair value of the goods and service received, rather than the fair value of the equity instruments granted. In these situations, the measurement date under IFRS will occur when the goods and services are received. This may result in a different amount of compensation cost under IFRS compared with US GAAP, under which the measurement date typically occurs when the non-employee’s performance is complete. However, if the fair value of the equity instrument exceeds the fair value of the goods and services received, this may result in the same measurement date as US GAAP.
**Measurement**

Unlike IFRS, most US GAAP reporters measure share-based payment awards granted to non-employees based on the fair value of the equity instruments granted (rather than based on the fair value of the goods or services received). Consequently, if the fair value of the equity instruments granted under US GAAP is less than the fair value of the goods or services received under IFRS, this will result in the recognition of a different amount of compensation cost. However, if the fair value of the equity instruments granted under US GAAP is greater than the fair value of the goods or services received under IFRS, compensation cost may be the same if the application of IFRS 2 results in the recognition of that excess.

**Completion of performance**

Unlike IFRS, share-based payment awards granted to non-employees may become subject to other literature (e.g., ASC 815, ASC 480-10) once the non-employee’s performance is complete. Consequently, this may require classification of the award as a liability under US GAAP, with continued remeasurement of the award at fair value that would otherwise not be required under IFRS. For example, assume that Entity A grants share options to a non-employee that may be settled only with registered shares. Entity A accounts for the award as an equity-settled award under ASC 718. However, once the non-employee’s performance is complete, the award becomes subject to other literature (ASC 815-40). Under ASC 815-40, because the award requires settlement by delivering only registered shares, it is assumed Entity A could be required to net-cash settle the contract resulting in liability classification. Under IFRS, because the award does not become subject to other literature until the share option is exercised, the award remains within the scope of IFRS 2 when the non-employee’s performance is complete (i.e., award is vested).

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Depends on policy election</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

First-time adopters will have to assess whether non-employee awards that are unvested at the date of transition to IFRS should be accounted for as employee awards under IFRS 2. This evaluation will likely require the use of significant judgment to determine whether the services performed by a non-employee are similar to those rendered by an employee. Any awards that should be considered employee awards under IFRS 2 should be accounted for as such from the transition date.

First-time adopters also need to re-evaluate the accounting for unvested non-employee awards that continue to be accounted for as non-employee awards under IFRS. Awards that were measured based on the fair value of the equity instruments granted should be evaluated to determine whether the fair value of the goods or services received was reliably determinable. If the fair value of the goods or services received was reliably determinable and that value exceeded the fair value of the equity instrument, then the unvested awards should be measured based on the fair value of the goods or services. If the fair value of the goods and services received was not reliably determinable, then the fair value of the equity instruments should be used under IFRS 2, similar to US GAAP. However, when a first-time adopter has previously measured non-employee awards at the “performance commitment” date, the first-time adopter may still need to remeasure the fair value of unvested equity instruments at the date of transition to IFRS using the revised measurement date since IFRS 2 requires the awards to be measured when the goods and services are received. The differences in the fair value of non-employee awards as of the date of transition to IFRS should be recorded in the opening IFRS balance sheet as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.
5. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to non-employees that include a performance condition?

For example, the quantity or any of the terms of the equity instruments are dependent on the achievement of the non-employee performance conditions.

ASC 505-50-20 defines counterparty performance conditions as conditions that relate to the achievement of a specified performance target, for example, attaining a specified increase in market share for a specified product. A counterparty performance condition might pertain either to the performance of the entity as a whole or to some part of the entity, such as a division.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 505-50</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.20 and IG Example 4</th>
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</table>
| ASC 505-50 discusses various transactions that involve only counterparty (i.e., the non-employee) performance conditions based on different possible outcomes as follows:

*For transactions in which the quantity or any of the terms are not known up front, how to measure at the measurement date*

On the measurement date, if the quantity or any of the terms of the equity instruments are dependent on the achievement of counterparty performance conditions that, based on the different possible outcomes, result in a range of aggregate fair values for the equity instruments as of that date, then the reporting entity should utilize the lowest aggregate (i.e., the variable terms times the applicable number of equity instruments) amount within that range for recognition purposes. This amount may be zero.

*For transactions in which the quantity or any of the terms are not known up front, the accounting prior to the measurement date*

When it is appropriate under generally accepted accounting principles for the reporting entity to recognize any cost of the transaction in reporting periods prior to the measurement date, the equity instruments should be measured at their then-current lowest aggregate fair value at each of those interim reporting dates.

*For transactions in which the quantity or any of the terms are not known up front, the accounting after the measurement date*

As each quantity and term become known and until all the quantities and terms that stem from the counterparty’s performance become known, the “lowest aggregate” fair value measured should be adjusted, to reflect additional cost of

If the reporting entity is measuring the goods and services received by reference to the fair value of the equity instruments granted (see Question 4), IFRS requires compensation cost for awards containing performance conditions to be recorded based on the best available estimate of the number of equity instruments expected to vest. The estimate of the number of instruments expected to vest should be revised, as necessary, if subsequent information indicates that revised estimates differ from previous estimates.
the transaction, using the “modification accounting” methodology described in ASC 718-20-35-3, 35-4 and 718-30-35-5. That is, the adjustment should be measured at the date of the revision of the quantity or terms of the equity instruments as the difference between:

- the then-current fair value of the revised instruments utilizing the then-known quantity or term; and
- the then-current fair value of the old equity instruments immediately before the quantity or term becomes known. The “then-current fair value” is calculated using the assumptions that result in the lowest aggregate fair value if the quantity or any other terms remain unknown.

**Implications:**

Share-based payment awards granted to non-employees may specify that the quantity of instruments earned (or other terms, such as the exercise price of share options) will be determined when a counterparty performance condition is achieved. Compensation cost under US GAAP is determined at each reporting date prior to when the counterparty performance condition is achieved based upon the lowest amount within a range of aggregate fair values. This value could be zero if the award states that no awards will be earned if the counterparty performance is not achieved.

In contrast, IFRS has no special provisions for awards issued to non-employees that include a performance condition. That is, IFRS applies the usual performance model to non-employees (same as is applied to employees). IFRS requires that compensation cost be recognized based on the best available estimate of the number of instruments expected to vest. If the best available evidence indicates that a certain number of awards are expected to vest, then compensation cost for those awards should be recognized. In addition, if the terms of the award (such as the exercise price) are dependent on the outcome of the performance condition, then the fair value of the award is estimated based on each possible outcome of the performance condition. Compensation cost is recognized based on the expected (generally interpreted as more likely than not) outcome of the performance condition and eventually trued up to actual performance.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Upon initial adoption, reporting entities will need to assess whether a different amount of compensation cost should be recognized for non-employee awards containing performance conditions. Any difference in the fair value of non-employee share-based payment awards would be recorded as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital, with the offsetting amount recognized in retained earnings.
6. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards to employees that include a performance condition?

A performance condition is defined in ASC 718 as a condition affecting the vesting, exercisability, exercise price, or other pertinent factors used in determining the fair value of an award that relates to both: (1) an employee’s rendering service for a specified (either explicitly or implicitly) period of time and (2) achieving a specified performance target that is defined solely by reference to the employer’s own operations (or activities). For example, a common type of performance condition requires an entity to achieve a specified amount of net income, as determined in accordance with US GAAP, in order for the employees to vest in the awards. The definition of a performance condition under IFRS 2 is similar to the definition under US GAAP, except as described below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — Awards containing a performance condition, 718-10-30-28, and 718-10-25-20</th>
<th>IFRS — Awards containing a performance condition, IFRS 2.20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance period different from service period</strong>&lt;br&gt;A performance target that affects vesting of a share-based payment and that could be achieved after the requisite service period is a performance condition under US GAAP. ASC 718 does not require the employee to be rendering service when the performance target is achieved. The period of time to achieve a performance target can extend beyond the end of the service period.</td>
<td><strong>Performance period different from service period</strong>&lt;br&gt;Under IFRS, a performance condition that affects vesting of a share-based payment must be met while the employee is rendering service. The period of time to achieve a performance target cannot extend beyond the end of the service period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong>&lt;br&gt;Compensation cost should be recognized only if it is probable that the performance condition will be achieved. The probable threshold should be applied based on the guidance in ASC 450. “Probable” is generally interpreted as a greater than 70% likelihood that an event will occur.</td>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong>&lt;br&gt;If the performance metric is a performance condition, compensation cost should be recognized for awards that are expected to vest, which is generally interpreted as more likely than not (greater than 50% likelihood).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

**Definition of a performance condition**

Under US GAAP, an award with a performance condition that could be met after the required service period could result in an entity recognizing compensation expense when the achievement of the target is probable even after an employee has completed the requisite service. One common example of a performance condition that could be met after the required service period would include an award that vests when a company completes an initial public offering (IPO), i.e., it achieves the performance condition even if the IPO occurs after a former employee completed the required service. Another example would be an award granted to an employee who is eligible to retire (without losing the ability to vest in the award) before the end of the period in which a performance target could be achieved.

Under IFRS, the performance targets described above would not be accounted for as a performance condition, if they would not be met until after the employee has completed the requisite service. They would instead be included as a non-vesting condition in the determination of the grant date fair value that will be recognized over the requisite service period.
Recognition

Because “probable” under US GAAP is considered to be a higher threshold than “more likely than not,” the recognition of compensation cost under US GAAP for an award with a performance condition may occur later than under IFRS. Practically speaking, we do not expect many differences in recognition to arise.

Identification difference?
Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

For share-based payment awards granted to an employee that include a performance condition and are unvested as of the transition date, if compensation cost was not recognized under US GAAP because the performance condition was not considered “probable,” the first-time adopter must determine whether the award was “expected to vest,” which is generally interpreted as a “more likely than not” threshold in IFRS. If the first-time adopter determines that the “more likely than not” threshold is met as of the transition date, the first-time adopter should recognize any cumulative compensation cost at the date of transition as an adjustment to the liability or additional paid-in capital, as applicable, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the opening IFRS balance sheet.

7. Has the entity modified the terms of an unvested share-based payment award resulting in a longer requisite service period as well as incremental compensation cost?

For example, an entity may modify a share-based payment award by extending its term thereby causing the fair value of the modified award to be greater than that of the original award as of the modification date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.B43(a)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Based on the conclusions of the FAS 123(R) Resource Group (26 May 2005 meeting), we believe there are two acceptable approaches to attribute the remaining unrecognized compensation cost from the original award and the incremental compensation cost resulting from the modification: 1. The unrecognized compensation cost remaining from the original grant date valuation is recognized over the remainder of the original requisite service period, while the incremental compensation cost is recognized over the new service period (beginning on the modification date). Essentially, the unrecognized compensation cost is bifurcated and recognized as if the two components were separate awards with separate vesting periods (Approach 1).</td>
<td>IFRS 2 requires the grant date fair value of the original equity award to be recognized over the remainder of the original vesting period while the incremental compensation cost is recognized over the new service period (beginning on the modification date) (Approach 1 described in the US GAAP section).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. The total compensation cost relating to the newly modified award (including both the unrecognized compensation cost remaining from the original grant date valuation and the incremental compensation cost resulting from the modification) is recognized ratably over the new requisite service period (Approach 2).

The selection of either Approach 1 or Approach 2 is an accounting policy decision that must be consistently applied.

(See Section 8.2.1 of our Financial Reporting Developments publication, *Share-based payments*.)

**Implications:**

Because of the policy choice generally accepted under US GAAP, when a US reporter modifies the terms of an unvested share-based payment award that results in a longer service period as well as incremental compensation cost, the attribution of the remaining unrecognized compensation cost from the original award and the incremental compensation cost will differ between US GAAP and IFRS if the US reporter elects to apply Approach 2. The use of Approach 2 will result in less compensation cost being recognized in earlier years.

<table>
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<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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**IFRS 1 implications:**

First-time adopters that have elected to apply Approach 2 under US GAAP will need to apply Approach 1 under IFRS 2 to all unvested share-based payment awards as of the transition date that were previously modified to extend the service period (which resulted in incremental compensation cost). This could result in the acceleration of compensation cost from what had been originally reported. Any difference would be recorded as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet.
8. Has the entity modified any share-based payment equity awards because the existing vesting conditions were improbable of achievement?

An entity may modify a share-based payment award so that the vesting condition goes from being improbable of ultimately vesting at the date of the modification to being probable (known as a Type III modification under ASC 718).

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation cost is based on the fair value of the modified award. Because the original award was improbable of vesting as of the modification date, that award is no longer relevant for accounting purposes. Thus, the original grant date fair value is ignored.</td>
<td>Modification accounting is applied. Compensation cost is based on the value of the original award plus any incremental increase in value measured as of the date of the modification. The determination of whether the original grant date fair value affects the measurement of compensation cost is based on the ultimate outcome (i.e., whether the original or modified conditions are met) rather than the probability of vesting as of the modification date.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP and IFRS, a modification of an equity instrument’s vesting terms affects the amount of total compensation cost to be recognized. However, the modification to a vesting condition when the award was not expected to vest at the modification date pursuant to the original terms is treated differently under the two standards. Under US GAAP, since the original vesting condition is not probable of achievement at the modification date, the original grant-date fair value is no longer used to measure compensation cost for the award. Rather, the modified award is treated as a new award, which may result in a lower fair value than the original grant date fair value.

In contrast, under IFRS 2, if the original vesting conditions of an award are not expected to be satisfied, but the modified vesting conditions are expected to be met, an entity would recognize the original grant date fair value of the award together with any incremental fair value resulting from the modification. If the modified vesting conditions are not met but the original vesting conditions were met, an entity still must recognize the original grant date fair value of the award. The fact that the original award is not expected to vest at the modification date does not factor into the final measure of the compensation cost. Consequently, to the extent that the original award’s grant-date fair value exceeds the fair value of the modified award, compensation cost will be higher under IFRS than US GAAP.

Consider the following example:

- Entity A grants 1,000 share options to one employee of the sales department.
- The award vests upon the employee selling 150,000 units of product Z over a three-year explicit service period.
- Based on historical sales patterns and future forecasts, at the end of year 1, Entity A does not believe the awards are probable of vesting and modifies the sales target to 120,000 units of product Z.
- The fair value of the modified award is equal to the fair value of the original award immediately before the modification (no incremental compensation) but is less than the grant-date fair value of the original award.
Under ASC 718, because the modified award is not probable of vesting at the modification date, the final measurement of compensation cost will be based on the fair value of the modified award. In contrast, under IFRS 2, the original grant-date fair value of the award will be recognized if the original vesting conditions ultimately are satisfied, which will result in a higher amount of compensation cost.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS implications:

If a first-time adopter modified a share-based payment award that is unvested as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must assess whether that previous modification was a Type III modification under ASC 718. If so, the first-time adopter will need to assess whether the modification accounting under ASC 718 is in compliance with IFRS 2 by determining whether there is any incremental compensation cost at the modification date. To the extent the fair value of the modified award exceeds the fair value of the original award immediately before the modification, that incremental compensation cost is recognized over the new service period with the grant date fair value of the original award being recognized over the remainder of the original vesting period. If there is no incremental compensation cost, the grant date fair value of the original award is recognized over the remainder of the vesting period. Any differences between the cumulative compensation costs recognized for unvested awards at the date of transition to IFRS determined in accordance with ASC 718 versus IFRS 2 is recognized as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

9. Has the entity modified the terms of a share-based payment award after the employee has been terminated?

This situation could occur when the employee retains the share-based payment award after he/she is terminated and the award is subsequently modified.

US GAAP — 718-10-35-14, 718-10-35-9 through 35-11

A freestanding financial instrument originally issued to an employee in exchange for past or future employee services that is or was subject to ASC 718 should continue to be subject to the recognition and measurement provisions of ASC 718 throughout the life of the instrument, unless its terms are modified when the holder is no longer an employee.

Such modifications would not include those accounted for as an equity restructuring meeting the conditions in 718-10-35-9 through 35-11.

Following the modification, the instrument is subject to other accounting literature.

IFRS — IFRS 2.26 through 29

While not specifically addressed in IFRS 2, share-based payment awards that are originally within the scope of IFRS 2 remain within the scope of IFRS 2 and do not become subject to other literature until they vest (share awards), are exercised (equity-settled option awards) or are settled (cash-settled awards). After vesting (or, for options, after exercise), the share held by the employee or non-employee is no different from other shares issued by the entity and therefore is no longer subject to IFRS 2. However, the subsequent modification of the share should be evaluated as a separate transaction to determine whether it is within the scope of IFRS 2. Specifically, a modification of an existing share with one shareholder (or
specified shareholders) for no consideration (or for goods or services) is generally a new share-based payment transaction within the scope of IFRS 2, whereas a modification to all shares held by a class of shareholders would not be within the scope of IFRS 2. If the modification is within the scope of IFRS 2, the share-based payment award remains within the scope of IFRS 2 until it becomes subject to other accounting literature as described above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Because the modification guidance in ASC 718 and IFRS 2 is similar, the accounting for the modification of an award after the employee has been terminated should be similar under US GAAP and IFRS. (See Question 8 if the award was modified because the existing vesting conditions were improbable of achievement.) However, under US GAAP, because the award becomes subject to other literature after the modification that may require liability classification, differences may arise if that other literature has different accounting requirements than IFRS. (Note that under IFRS, depending on the award’s terms, the award may or may not become subject to other literature.)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Describe:</td>
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<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
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</table>

**IFRS 1 implications:**

This accounting difference will most likely arise for vested share-based payment awards held by former employees. If a first-time adopter elects to apply IFRS 2 only to unvested awards at the transition date, then there will not be any adjustments to record in the opening balance sheet as a result of this US GAAP-IFRS difference. IFRS 1 permits retention of US GAAP accounting for awards that were vested as of the date of transition to IFRS.
10. Does the entity receive a tax deduction for its share-based payment plan?

In many jurisdictions, an entity will receive a tax deduction for its share-based payment awards. For example, in the United States, many entities will receive a tax deduction upon employee exercise of a nonqualified stock option, and that deduction generally is equal to the intrinsic value of the award on the date of exercise.


- Deferred tax assets for awards that will result in a deduction are calculated based on the cumulative GAAP expense recognized and trued up or down upon realization of the tax benefit.
- If the tax benefit exceeds the deferred tax asset, the excess ("windfall benefit") is credited directly to shareholders equity. Any shortfall of the tax benefit below the deferred tax asset is charged to shareholders equity to extent of prior windfall benefits, and to tax expense thereafter.
- After the adoption of ASU 2016-09, deferred tax assets for awards that will result in a deduction are calculated based on the cumulative GAAP expense recognized.
- In addition, entities will recognize all excess tax benefits and tax deficiencies by recording them as income tax expense or benefit in the income statement.

### IFRS — IAS 12.68A through 68C, Appendix B-Example 6

- Deferred tax assets are calculated based on the estimated tax deduction determined at each reporting date under applicable tax law (e.g., intrinsic value).
- If the tax deduction exceeds cumulative compensation cost for an individual award, deferred tax based on the excess is credited to shareholders’ equity. If the tax deduction is less than or equal to cumulative compensation cost for an individual award, deferred taxes are recorded in income.

### Implications:

The method for calculating deferred tax assets for share-based payment arrangements under US GAAP and IFRS differs significantly, including how the deferred tax benefit itself is calculated and the timing and amount (in certain circumstances) of income tax expense recognized in the statement of income.

Under US GAAP, the deferred tax benefit of a share-based payment arrangement that will result in a tax deduction (e.g., a nonqualified share option), and the related deferred tax asset, is calculated based on the cumulative compensation cost recognized over the vesting period and is trued-up or down upon realization of the tax benefit. A tax benefit is generally measured as the intrinsic value on the date of exercise (for a share option) or fair value at the vesting date (for a share award), multiplied by the entity’s tax rate. If the realized tax benefit exceeds the deferred tax asset, the excess ("windfall benefit") is credited directly to shareholders equity. These increases to additional paid-in capital (APIC) are accumulated into a "pool" of excess tax benefits (known as the "APIC pool"). A shortfall of the realized tax benefit below the deferred tax asset is charged to shareholder equity to the extent of prior windfall benefits (i.e., an APIC pool exists) and to tax expense thereafter.

By contrast, IFRS calculates the deferred tax benefit of a share-based payment arrangement and the related deferred tax asset based on the estimated tax deduction determined at each reporting date under applicable tax law (e.g., intrinsic value) over the life of the share-based payment award. This results in the recognition of deferred tax assets only for those awards that have intrinsic value deductible for tax purposes at each reporting date. If the estimated (for reporting periods prior to the taxable event) or actual (for reporting periods when the taxable period occurs) tax deduction
exceeds cumulative compensation cost multiplied by the tax rate, the deferred tax benefit based on the excess is credited to shareholders’ equity. If the tax deduction is less than or equal to cumulative compensation cost, deferred taxes are recorded in tax expense. Thus, IFRS excludes the concept of an APIC tax pool.

Because IFRS estimates the actual deduction to be taken based on current information at each reporting period, IFRS likely will result in more volatility in deferred tax expense during the vesting period. On the other hand, US GAAP may result in more volatility in the deferred tax expense when the option is exercised, expires, or is forfeited.

The cumulative tax benefit recognized for share-based payment awards will often be the same under IFRS and US GAAP, although there will be differences reported in periods prior to the taxable event as a result of the differences described above. However, in certain situations, the cumulative tax benefit recognized will be different under IFRS and US GAAP. For example, when an option expires at the end of its contractual term (meaning, the option was never exercised), the reversal of the deferred tax asset on the balance sheet will be recorded under US GAAP as an adjustment to APIC (to the extent that there are sufficient credits available in the APIC pool) and to income once the APIC pool balance is zero. Under IFRS, the reversal of the deferred tax asset is recorded in income or in APIC based on how the original deferred tax asset was recognized (i.e., compensation expense or APIC).

Further, the aforementioned differences also may cause differences in the deferred tax treatment of share-based payment awards exchanged in a business combination under ASC 805 and IFRS 3(R). See Question 4 in the “Business combinations” section of this publication for a discussion of share-based payment awards exchanged in a business combination.

IFRS requires that an entity adjust any deferred tax asset associated with a share-based payment award at each reporting period for the effect of changes in the intrinsic value of the award during the reporting period. After the adoption of ASU 2016-09, to the extent there is a tax deficiency, the income statement result under US GAAP would be similar to the result under IFRS. However under IFRS, excess tax benefits are recorded in shareholders’ equity, while the changes to US GAAP require that all income tax effects are recorded in the income statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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**IFRS 1 implications:**

The first-time adopter will need to identify all outstanding, unexercised share-based payment arrangements, both vested and unvested, at the opening balance sheet date that are expected to provide a tax deduction. For each arrangement identified, the estimated tax deduction will be calculated by multiplying the intrinsic value as of the opening IFRS balance sheet date by the number of shares, options, or similar instruments included in the arrangement. The estimated tax deduction, multiplied by the first-time adopter’s tax rate, will represent the tax benefit recorded as a deferred tax asset in the opening IFRS balance sheet, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings and additional paid-in capital (if the estimated tax deduction exceeds cumulative compensation cost multiplied by the tax rate).
11. Is the entity required to pay employer payroll or other employment taxes on employee share-based compensation arrangements?

In many jurisdictions, the entity is required to pay employer payroll or other employment taxes on share options and other share-based payment transactions with employees, just as if the employees had received cash remuneration. For example, in the United States, an entity generally is required to pay payroll taxes on the intrinsic value of nonqualified options on the exercise date, and on the fair value of share awards on the vesting date.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-25-22</th>
<th>IFRS</th>
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</table>
| A liability for employee payroll taxes on employee share-based payment awards should be recognized on the date of the event triggering the measurement and payment of the tax to the taxing authority (generally the exercise date). | Specific guidance does not exist under IFRS and there are several approaches applied in practice. An entity may adopt an approach that is consistent with the principles in the following standards to account for the liability for employee payroll taxes on employee share-based payment awards:  
IAS 37: The entity will recognize a provision for the employment tax in accordance with IFRIC 21 – Levies – which requires identification of the activity that triggers the payment, as identified by the legislation. When IAS 37, as interpreted by IFRIC 21, is applied, there are different views on what constitutes the activity that triggers the payment (i.e., the granting of the award, the consumption of services received from employees, the event (typically exercise) that gives rise to a real tax liability, or the vesting of the award). Entities applying IAS 37 therefore need to consider the appropriate treatment of employment taxes in light of IFRIC 21.  
IAS 19: If short-term, the liability would be recognized over the vesting period as the services are being performed. If long-term, the liability would be accounted for using the projected unit credit method.  
IFRS 2: The payroll tax liability would be accounted for as a cash-settled share-based payment award, which would require the tax liability to be measured based on the fair value of the cash-settled award at each reporting date and recognized to the extent that the award has vested.  
However, the entity should choose an appropriate policy based on its particular facts and circumstances. |
Implications:
The total expense ultimately recognized must always equal the tax paid; however, the allocation of the expense to different accounting periods may differ between US GAAP and IFRS depending on which approach is followed under IFRS. As discussed above, specific guidance does not exist under IFRS and there are several approaches applied in practice.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:
Because the US GAAP requirement of recognizing the tax liability on the date that gives rise to the tax liability (generally the exercise date for options or the vesting date for shares) is an acceptable alternative under IFRS (if the first-time adopter elects to apply the IAS 37 approach), no adjustment may be required to the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date.

12. Does the entity repurchase (or net settle) shares upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy the entity’s statutory withholding requirements?

The exercise of a nonqualified stock option or vesting of nonvested shares generates taxable income to the employee. The IRS requires entities to withhold and remit tax based on this taxable income. Some plans allow employees to use shares received from the exercise to satisfy the tax withholding requirement. In effect, the entity repurchases a portion of the shares at fair value, and instead of giving the money to the employee remits it on the employee’s behalf to the government.

US GAAP — 718-10-25-16 through 25-19

The repurchase (or net settlement) of shares upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy the employer’s minimum statutory withholding requirements does not, by itself, result in liability classification of instruments that would otherwise be classified as equity. However, if an amount in excess of the minimum statutory withholding is withheld or may be withheld at the employee’s discretion, the entire award should be classified and accounted for as a liability.

If a broker is used to facilitate the sale of shares to third parties to fund the tax withholding obligation, then the employer has neither repurchased nor net settled the shares received upon exercise of the share options. The entire award should be classified as equity as long as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP</th>
<th>IFRS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The repurchase (or net settlement) of shares upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy the employer’s minimum statutory withholding requirements does not, by itself, result in liability classification of instruments that would otherwise be classified as equity. However, if an amount in excess of the minimum statutory withholding is withheld or may be withheld at the employee’s discretion, the entire award should be classified and accounted for as a liability.</td>
<td>IFRS 2 does not currently provide any specific guidance and therefore this is an area in which there is diversity in accounting practice. In our view, a liability should be recognized for the portion of the award relating to the shares withheld because the entity has effectively obligated itself to repurchase those shares for cash (the remaining portion of the award would be accounted for as equity-settled). The US GAAP exception to account for the award as equity-settled as long as no more shares are withheld than is required to satisfy the employer’s minimum statutory withholding requirement (prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09) does not exist under IFRS. However, we believe that if the entity arranged for a broker to sell the shares withheld in the</td>
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</table>
(1) a valid exercise of the share options is required and (2) the employee is the legal owner of the shares subject to the option. In addition, if the broker is a related party of the entity, the broker must sell the shares in the open market within a normal settlement period, which is generally three days.

After the adoption of ASU 2016-09, an employer with a statutory income tax withholding obligation can withhold shares with a fair value up to the amount of tax owed using the maximum statutory tax rate in the employee’s applicable jurisdiction(s).

The same guidance above would apply if the entity uses a broker to facilitate the sale of shares to third parties to fund the tax withholding.

**Implications:**

To the extent that the entity repurchases (or net settles) shares upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy the entity’s minimum statutory withholding requirements (or repurchases shares with a fair value up to the amount of the maximum statutory tax rate in the employee’s applicable jurisdiction(s) after the adoption of ASU 2016-09 under US GAAP), differences in total compensation cost between US GAAP and IFRS may arise. For example, if an entity net settles shares upon exercise of share options to satisfy the statutory withholding requirements, under US GAAP, the entire award would be accounted for as equity-settled whereas, under IFRS, the portion of the award relating to the shares withheld would be accounted for as cash-settled with the remaining portion of the award being accounted for as equity-settled.

In addition, if an amount in excess of the minimum statutory withholding (or in excess of the maximum statutory tax rate in the employee’s applicable jurisdiction(s) after the adoption of ASU 2016-09 under US GAAP) is withheld or may be withheld at the employee’s discretion, differences in total compensation cost between US GAAP and IFRS will arise because, under IFRS, the award will be accounted for as part cash-settled (the portion of the award relating to the shares withheld) and part equity-settled (the remaining portion of the award). Under US GAAP the entire award would be accounted for as cash-settled.

If the entity planned to use a broker to facilitate sales to third parties to fund the tax withholding obligation and certain conditions are met, then under both US GAAP and IFRS, the entire award would be accounted for as equity-settled.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
**IFRS 1 implications:**

If a first-time adopter plans or is obligated to repurchase shares (or net settle) upon exercise of share options (or the vesting of nonvested shares) to satisfy its minimum statutory withholding requirements (or repurchases shares with a fair value up to the amount of the maximum statutory tax rate in the employee’s applicable jurisdiction(s) after the adoption of ASU 2016-09 under US GAAP) and the share-based payment award is unvested as of the transition date, the first-time adopter will be required to determine the appropriate classification of the award under IFRS.

The first-time adopter must classify and account for the portion of the award relating to the estimated withholding amount as a liability with the remaining portion being classified and accounted for as an equity award. Any adjustment to the share-based payment award should be recorded as an adjustment to the liability and additional paid-in capital, as applicable, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the opening IFRS balance sheet.

In measuring the fair value of the liability on the transition date, the inputs used in the option-pricing model should be based on conditions that existed as of the transition date.

If a broker arrangement is in place to facilitate the sale of shares to third parties to fund the tax withholding obligation and the conditions for equity classification are met, no adjustment would be required under IFRS.
13. Does the share-based payment award include a condition other than a service, performance, or market condition?

An example of such an award is an option that vests based on the increase in a commodity index. For example, an employee will earn the award only if a commodity index rises by 10% over three years. Another example is an option whose exercise price is indexed to inflation. These features are commonly referred to as “other” conditions under US GAAP. Under IFRS, conditions that are not service or performance conditions are considered “non-vesting conditions.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-25-13 and 25-14</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.30</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If an award is indexed to a factor in addition to the entity's share price, and the additional factor is not a market, performance, or service condition, the share-based payment award is classified and accounted for as a liability. The “other” condition is factored into the fair value estimate of the award. “Other” condition is met Compensation cost is recorded over the vesting period and the award is marked to fair value at the end of each reporting period until settled. “Other” condition is not met No compensation cost is recognized because the fair value of the liability is zero.</td>
<td>A non-vesting condition is a condition not considered to be a vesting condition as defined in IFRS 2. Vesting conditions include service and performance conditions (a market condition is a type of performance condition under IFRS). A non-vesting condition under IFRS does not trigger liability classification. The non-vesting condition is factored into the fair value measurement of the award. Non-vesting condition is met Compensation cost is recorded over the vesting period (i.e., the period over which the service is provided) based on the award’s grant date fair value. Non-vesting condition is not met If the non-vesting condition is within the control of the employee or employer, the failure to satisfy the non-vesting condition is accounted for as a cancellation (accelerate all remaining compensation cost immediately). If the non-vesting condition is not within the control of the employee or employer, compensation cost for the award continues to be spread over the vesting period based on the award’s grant date fair value.</td>
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Implications:

Both IFRS 2 and ASC 718 provide guidance for features in share-based payment awards that are not service, performance or market conditions. IFRS 2 defines these features as “non-vesting” conditions and provides specific guidance regarding the measurement and attribution of compensation cost for awards with these conditions. The balance sheet classification of awards with non-vesting conditions is based on the existing guidance in IFRS 2 for equity-settled and cash-settled awards.

By contrast, ASC 718 provides guidance regarding the balance sheet classification of awards that are indexed to something that is not a service, performance or market condition. The measurement and attribution of compensation cost for awards containing these features (commonly known as...
“other” conditions) is based on the existing guidance for liability classified awards in ASC 718 (that is, the award is measured at fair value each reporting period until the earlier of the satisfaction of the condition or the settlement of the award).

Many features that are considered “other” conditions under ASC 718 will qualify as “non-vesting” conditions under IFRS 2, and vice versa. For example, an award that vests based on the achievement of an increase in a commodity index will likely be considered a non-vesting condition under IFRS 2 and an “other” condition under ASC 718. However, because “other” conditions and non-vesting conditions are different concepts under US GAAP and IFRS, respectively, that may not always be the case. For example, consider a share-based payment award that includes a non-compete clause whereby the vested award will be forfeited if the employee terminates employment and goes to work for a competitor within a stated timeframe. That non-compete clause would qualify as a non-vesting condition under IFRS 2 but would not qualify as an “other” condition under ASC 718 (see Question 14 for further information about non-compete clauses).

Even if an award contains a feature that is considered an “other” condition under ASC 718 and a non-vesting condition under IFRS 2, the final measure of compensation cost for the award likely will differ under both standards. This is because IFRS 2 does not require liability classification of the award simply because of the “non-vesting” condition and, therefore, its classification will be based on the general classification guidance of IFRS 2. In contrast, under US GAAP, share-based payment awards containing “other” conditions are classified as liabilities, which likely will result in the recognition of a different amount of compensation cost if the “other” condition is met because compensation cost will be measured at the earlier of the satisfaction of the condition or the settlement of the award. If the other condition is not met, then no compensation cost is recognized because the fair value of the liability is zero.

Identified difference?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

A first-time adopter that has unvested share-based payment awards, including those containing “other” conditions, will need to evaluate whether the awards contain non-vesting conditions under IFRS 2. If the award contains a non-vesting condition, but did not previously contain an “other” condition under US GAAP and was classified as an equity award, then the grant-date fair value of the award will need to be revised to incorporate the non-vesting condition. All other assumptions previously used to estimate the grant-date fair value should not be revised unless those assumptions were in error. If an award contains a non-vesting condition that was previously considered an “other” condition under US GAAP, then the award will need to be reclassified from a liability award to an equity award (as long as the award is not otherwise considered cash-settled under IFRS 2), which will likely change the amount of cumulative compensation cost that should have been recognized as of the opening IFRS balance sheet date. Any differences between the cumulative compensation cost recorded under US GAAP and the amount that would have been recorded under IFRS 2 should be recorded as an adjustment to eliminate the liability and to recognize additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.
### 14. Has the reporting entity granted a share-based payment award that includes a non-compete clause?

Entities may grant share-based payment awards with non-compete clauses that contain a contingent feature whereby if an employee terminates employment and immediately (or within a specified period) goes to work for a competitor, he or she will be required to return all share-based payment awards previously granted and earned (i.e., a clawback).

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<tr>
<td>Because the non-compete clause is a contingent feature that might cause an employee to return to the entity either equity instruments earned or realized gains from the sale of equity instruments earned for consideration that is less than fair value on the date of transfer (including no consideration), it generally should be accounted for if and when the contingent event occurs. The non-compete clause is not factored into the fair value estimate of the award.</td>
<td>In our view, the non-compete clause is a non-vesting condition and, therefore, it is factored into the fair value estimate of the award. See Question 13 for a further discussion of non-vesting conditions.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, non-compete clauses are not reflected in the fair value of the share-based payment award. The non-compete clause is generally accounted for if and when it occurs. Conversely, we believe IFRS 2 views non-compete clauses as a non-vesting condition; as such, it would be reflected in the fair value measure of the share-based payment award. This will result in a different amount of compensation being recognized. This difference is further illustrated in the following example:

A share award is granted with a three-year cliff vesting condition. The award has a non-compete condition stating that the employee will have to give any vested shares back (i.e., clawback) if he or she leaves the entity and goes to work for a competitor within two years following employment termination. Under US GAAP, the non-compete clause is not factored into the grant-date fair value of the share-based payment award. The clawback of the award resulting from violating the non-compete is accounted for if and when it occurs, resulting in a reduction to the previously-recognized compensation cost to the extent of the fair value of the shares at the date of forfeiture.

Under IFRS, the non-compete condition is factored into the grant-date fair value because, in our view, it is a non-vesting condition. That value would be recognized over the three-year vesting period. If the employee leaves anytime in those three years, the compensation cost would be reversed. However, if he or she stays, earns the award, then subsequently leaves the entity and begins to compete, he or she would have to return the shares. The return of those shares would be treated as an equity transaction. There would be no reversal of cost. Because this was an award where the condition (not competing) was not attained and the ability to achieve the condition was in the employee’s control, the violation of the non-compete provision would be treated as a cancellation, with acceleration of any remaining compensation cost. Because compensation cost has been fully recognized prior to the violation of the non-compete provision, there is no additional compensation cost to recognize.
IFRS 1 implications:

First-time adopters that have unvested share-based payment awards containing non-compete contingent features, such as a non-compete agreement with a clawback requirement, will need to account for those awards following the guidance for non-vesting conditions under IFRS. This will result in a remeasurement of the award’s grant-date fair value to include this non-vesting condition, which will likely change the amount of cumulative compensation cost recognized as of the opening IFRS balance sheet date. Any differences between the cumulative compensation cost recorded under US GAAP and the amount that would have been recorded under IFRS 2 will be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet as an adjustment to additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

15. Has the entity granted share-based payment awards that can be cash-settled upon a contingent event?

Some share-based payment awards include provisions that allow the award to be cash-settled upon certain contingent events (e.g., change in control, initial public offering, or death of an employee) that are outside of the control of both the employer and employee.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-25-11 and 25-12, 718-10-35-15</th>
<th>IFRS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An award with contingent cash settlement features may be classified as an equity award provided that the contingent event is outside the control of both the employer and the employee, is not considered probable of occurring, and contains no other features that would require liability classification.</td>
<td>An award with contingent cash settlement features may:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The probability assessment must be performed at the end of each reporting period, which may result in a change in the award’s classification from equity to a liability.</td>
<td>(1) be classified as an equity award provided that the contingent event is outside the control of both the employer and employee, is not considered probable of occurring, and contains no other features that would require liability classification (similar to US GAAP). This approach is based on the application of the principles in IAS 37, which requires a liability to be recognized only when it is probable of occurring (i.e., more likely than not).</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(2) be classified as a cash-settled award if the contingent event is outside the control of the employer</td>
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<td>(3) treated as two mutually exclusive awards, one equity-settled and one cash-settled, with the ultimate accounting depending on which settlement method is probable.</td>
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When applying approach (1), the probability assessment must be performed at the end of each reporting period, which may result in a change in the award’s classification from equity
to a liability. The probability assessment for approach (3) must also be performed at the end of each reporting period. An entity may adopt any of these accounting treatments, but should do so consistently and state its policy for accounting for such transactions if material.

**Implications:**

For awards that may be cash-settled upon a contingent event that is outside the control of both the employer and the employee and the event’s occurrence is not considered probable, the IFRS alternative of accounting for the award as a cash-settled award may result in more or less compensation cost being recognized under IFRS than US GAAP.

Also, there could be a difference in application of the models due to the difference in the definitions of “probable.” See Question 1 in the “Contingencies, exit or disposal costs, and asset retirement obligations” section of this publication for a discussion of this difference.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

If a first-time adopter classified an unvested share-based payment award with a contingent cash settlement feature as an equity award, because IFRS 2 also would permit equity classification, no adjustment would be required to the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date. In our view, it would be rare that the first-time adopter would elect the IFRS alternative (approach (ii) above) and account for the award as a cash-settled award.

**16. Does the share-based payment award contain a cash repurchase feature at fair value at the employee’s election?**

For example, the share-based payment award may contain a put feature that enables the employee to sell the shares back to the entity at fair value on the repurchase date beginning six months after the date the equity is issued or vests.

**US GAAP — 718-10-25-9 and 25-10**

Liability classification is not required if the employee bears the risks and rewards of ownership of a share acquired under a share-based payment award for at least six months from the date the shares are issued or vest.

In many cases, such awards will be classified by SEC registrants outside of permanent equity (between liabilities and equity, generally characterized as “temporary” or “mezzanine” equity) in accordance with ASR 268 and its related interpretations.

**IFRS — IFRS 2.30**

Liability classification is required (no six-month consideration exists). Liability awards must be remeasured at fair value at each reporting date until settled.
### Implications:

Differences between US GAAP and IFRS will arise if the employee bears the risks and rewards of ownership for at least six months from the date the shares are issued or vest. For example, assume that an entity grants share options to its employees and the award provides the employees the right to put the underlying shares to the entity for cash equal to the fair value of the shares on the put date. If the put cannot be exercised until six months after the share options are exercised, this award would be classified as an equity award under US GAAP (because the employee bears the risks and rewards of ownership for a reasonable period of time) and a liability award under IFRS.

### Identified difference?

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### IFRS 1 implications:

To the extent that such unvested share-based payment awards have been classified within permanent or temporary equity as of the transition date, a first-time adopter will be required to classify these awards as liabilities in their opening IFRS balance sheet and account for them as such prospectively from that date. Any adjustment upon transition should be recorded as an adjustment to the liability, and additional paid-in capital or “temporary” equity, as appropriate, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

#### 17. Does the entity’s share-based payment plan provide an equity repurchase feature at fair value at the employer’s election?

For example, the share-based payment award may contain a call feature that enables the employer to buy shares back from the employee at fair value on the repurchase date beginning six months after the date the equity is issued or vests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-25-9 and 25-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.41 through 43</th>
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</table>
| Liability classification is required if it is probable that the employer would prevent the employee from bearing the risks and rewards of ownership for a reasonable period of time (i.e., repurchase the shares within a six-month period from the date the equity is issued or vests). We believe the probability assessment should be based on:  
  - the employer’s stated representation that it has the positive intent not to repurchase immature shares (shares held for less than six months); and  
  - all other relevant facts and circumstances.  
This probability assessment should be made at the end of each reporting period on an individual employee-by-employee basis. | Liability classification is required if the entity has a present obligation to settle in cash. Under IFRS, an entity has a present obligation to settle in cash if the choice of settlement in equity instruments has no commercial substance (e.g., because the entity is legally prohibited from issuing shares), or the entity has a past practice or a stated policy of settling in cash.  
The assessment of whether the entity has a present obligation to settle in cash should be made at the end of each reporting period on an individual employee-by-employee basis. |
Implications:

In general, if it is probable that an entity will exercise its fair value repurchase right within a six-month period from the date the equity is issued or vests, then both ASC 718 and IFRS 2 will require the share-based payment award to be classified and accounted for as a liability. However, if an entity can demonstrate equity classification under ASC 718 based on the criteria listed above, differences between US GAAP and IFRS may arise because the six-month consideration does not exist in IFRS. That is, if an entity has a present obligation to settle in cash, even if beyond the six-month period, liability classification would be required under IFRS 2.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

To the extent that such unvested share-based payment awards have been classified as equity awards as of the transition date, the first-time adopter must determine whether the award’s current classification is appropriate under IFRS 2 as of that date. Any adjustment resulting from a change in the award’s classification should be recorded as an adjustment to the liability and additional paid-in capital with an offsetting entry to retained earnings in the opening IFRS balance sheet.

18. Is the entity that is issuing share-based payment awards a nonpublic entity?

A nonpublic entity is any entity other than one (1) whose equity securities trade in a public market either on a stock exchange (domestic or foreign) or in the over-the-counter market, including securities quoted only locally or regionally, (2) that makes a filing with a regulatory agency in preparation for the sale of any class of equity securities in a public market, or (3) that is controlled by an entity covered by (1) or (2). An entity that has only debt securities trading in a public market (or that has made a filing with a regulatory agency in preparation to trade only debt securities) is a nonpublic entity for purposes of ASC 718.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-10-30-20, 718-30-30-2; 718-30-35-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP provides different measurement alternatives and transition requirements for nonpublic entities, including:</td>
<td>IFRS does not differentiate between public or nonpublic entities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ Measurement of liability awards at intrinsic, rather than fair value (accounting policy election)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ ASU 2016-09 includes a practical expedient that will allow nonpublic entities that currently measure liability-classified awards at fair value to elect a one-time change in accounting principle to measure them at intrinsic value.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▶ Measurement of share options and similar instruments using a “calculated value” (which substitutes the volatility of an appropriate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
industry sector index for the volatility of the entity’s own share price) when the entity is unable to estimate its expected volatility

- ASU 2016-09 also includes a practical expedient that will allow nonpublic entities to more easily estimate the expected term for awards with performance or service conditions that meet certain criteria instead of making a more precise estimate as described in ASC 718 (ASC 718-10-30-20B lists the criteria that must be met for an entity to use the practical expedient.)

### Implications:

Because US GAAP provides different measurement alternatives and transition requirements for nonpublic entities, this may result in the recognition of a different amount of compensation cost. For example, ASC 718 permits nonpublic entities to measure liability awards either at intrinsic value or at fair value whereas IFRS 2 requires such awards to be measured at fair value.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**  
Click here to enter text.

### IFRS 1 implications:

First-time adopters that meet the definition of a nonpublic entity must determine if they have applied any of the measurement alternatives or transition requirements permitted by ASC 718 to any unvested share-based payment awards as of the transition date. If applied and such measurement alternatives or transition requirements do not comply with IFRS 2, any difference between the cumulative compensation cost recorded under US GAAP and the amount that would have been recorded under IFRS 2 should be reflected in the opening IFRS balance sheet as an adjustment to the liability or additional paid-in capital, as applicable, with an offsetting entry to retained earnings.

### 19. Does the entity have an employee stock purchase plan (ESPP) that allows employees to buy the entity’s stock over a period of time at a discount from the market price at the date of grant?

- Employee stock purchase plans generally provide a broad group of employees the right to acquire employer stock through payroll deductions. A typical plan (e.g., one that qualifies for favorable tax treatment under Section 423 of the Internal Revenue Code: a “Section 423 Plan”) allows employees to buy the employer’s stock over a period of time (e.g., two years) at a discount from the market price at the date of grant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 718-50-25-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 2.4, BC8 through BC17, IG15A and IG17</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation cost is not recognized if the following conditions are met:</td>
<td>Compensation cost is measured in the same way as any other share-based payment award.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(1) the plan satisfies at least one of the following conditions:
   ▶ The terms of the plan are no more favorable than those available to all holders of the same class of shares.
   ▶ Any purchase discount from the market price does not exceed the per-share amount of share issuance costs that would have been incurred to raise a significant amount of capital by a public offering. A purchase discount of 5% or less from the market price shall be considered to comply with this condition without further justification. A purchase discount greater than 5% that cannot be justified under this condition results in compensation cost for the entire amount of the discount.

(2) substantially all employees that meet limited employment qualifications may participate on an equitable basis; and

(3) the plan incorporates no option features, other than the following:
   ▶ Employees are permitted a short period of time (not exceeding 31 days) after the purchase price has been fixed to enroll in the plan.
   ▶ The purchase price is based solely on the market price of the shares at the date of purchase, and employees are permitted to cancel participation before the purchase date and obtain a refund of amounts previously paid (such as those paid by payroll withholdings).

**Implications:**

It is possible that an ESPP for which IFRS 2 requires recognition of compensation cost would not be considered compensatory under ASC 718. However, because many ESPPs are compensatory under ASC 718 (i.e., the ESPP failed one of the criteria above), compensation cost will generally be recognized under both IFRS and US GAAP.

In addition, the requirement to make contributions to the ESPP is a non-vesting condition under IFRS 2. Because the non-vesting condition is within the control of the employee, if the employee elects to cancel his/her participation in the ESPP and obtain a refund of amounts previously paid, this would be treated as a cancellation under IFRS 2 and any unrecognized compensation cost would be recognized immediately. (See Question 13 for more information about non-vesting conditions.) Under US GAAP, we generally believe similar accounting would be applied when the employee cancels his/her participation in the ESPP that has been deemed compensatory under ASC 718; however, we recognize that practice may be mixed.
### Identified difference?

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| Yes | No | Depends on policy election |

### IFRS 1 implications:

Because both GAAPs typically result in ESPPs being treated as compensatory, no adjustment would be required to the first-time adopter’s opening IFRS balance sheet as of the transition date. However, a transition adjustment would result if the ESPP was not compensatory under US GAAP.
Employee benefits other than share-based payments

Similarities:
Under both US GAAP and IFRS, the cost recognized for defined contribution plans is based on the contribution due from the employer in each period. The accounting for defined benefit plans has many similarities as well, most notably that the defined benefit obligation is the present value of benefits that have accrued to employees for services rendered through that date, based on actuarial methods of calculation. Additionally, both US GAAP and IFRS require the funded status of the defined benefit plan to be recognized on the balance sheet as the difference between the present value of the benefit obligation and the fair value of plan assets, although IAS 19 limits the amount of the defined benefit net plan asset (if any) that can be recorded.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 715, Compensation — Retirement Benefits</td>
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<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 420, Exit or Disposal Cost Obligations</td>
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<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 712, Compensation — Nonretirement Postemployment Benefits</td>
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<td>▶ ASC 710, Compensation — General</td>
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<tr>
<td>▶ IAS 19, Employee Benefits</td>
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<tr>
<td>▶ IFRIC 14, IAS 19 — The Limit on a Defined Benefit Asset, Minimum Funding Requirements and their Interaction</td>
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Convergence:
No further convergence is planned at this time.

1. Does the reporting entity have defined benefit pension or other postretirement benefit plans located in countries where a deep market for high-quality corporate bonds is not available to determine the discount rate for the benefit obligation?

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<th>Yes</th>
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Employers typically look to rates of return on high-quality (generally interpreted to be an instrument that receives one of the two highest ratings given by a recognized rating agency) fixed-income investments currently available and expected to be available when the postretirement benefits are expected to be paid to participants. Different methods exist for determining the discount rate, including an index of high-quality bonds, spot-rate yield curves and a hypothetical bond portfolio.

IFRS — IAS 19.83 through 86

The rate used to discount the defined benefit obligation should be determined by reference to the market yields on high quality (we interpret this to be an instrument that is rated AA or better) corporate bonds that are denominated in the same currency as the defined benefit obligation.

If a deep market for such bonds does not exist, the yield from government bonds denominated in that currency should be used. The assessment of whether a deep market for bonds exists should be made at a currency level and should not be determined on a country level or an entity-by-entity basis.
Implications:

Employers may operate in countries or regions where there are not enough high-quality corporate bonds that are denominated in the currency of the obligation available to match the estimated timing of future benefit payments. In this situation, IAS 19 states that market yields from government bonds denominated in the same currency should be used. Under US GAAP, we believe in practice that market yields on high-quality corporate bonds located outside of an employer’s country or regional market are used when sufficient bonds are not available within a country. US GAAP does not contain a requirement to use market yields from government bonds. Consequently, the discount rate determined for a benefit plan located in a country without a deep market for high-quality corporate bonds will be different under US GAAP and IAS 19.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

This difference will most likely affect the measurement of the benefit obligation for employers with benefit plans in countries outside of the US where a deep market for high-quality corporate bonds might not exist. Current US GAAP reporting entities with plans in foreign jurisdictions will need to consider this difference upon transition to IFRS. It is important that first-time adopters verify that their actuaries understand this difference with regard to determining the discount rate.

2. Does the reporting entity develop its discount rate assumption using a spot rate yield curve or hypothetical bond portfolio (specific bond matching approach)?

US GAAP and IFRS both require a plan sponsor to consider the effect of the time value of money by using a discount rate when calculating the projected benefit obligation (or defined benefit obligation) of a postretirement benefit plan.

Neither US GAAP nor IFRS specify the method that must be used to determine the discount rate. Different methods exist in practice. Spot rate yield curves are developed such that the spot rates at various points along the curve can be used to discount the plan’s expected future cash outflows. Alternatively, the discount rate produced by a hypothetically constructed bond portfolio is developed using individual bonds that are selected to generate cash inflows (coupon interest and principal payments) that match the plan’s expected cash outflows for benefit payments. Both the spot rate yield curves or hypothetical bond portfolio are acceptable methods to develop the discount rates assumption under US GAAP, whereas employers that report under IFRS generally are not permitted to use yield curves that disproportionately exclude bonds at the higher and lower ends of the range (e.g., 40th to 90th percentile curve), or the hypothetical bond matching approaches because those methods may not comply with IAS 19’s requirement that employers select assumptions that are unbiased.

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<tr>
<td>ASC 715 states that employers are required to use assumed discount rates that reflect the rates at which the pension benefits could be effectively settled. It is appropriate in estimating those rates to look to available</td>
<td>IAS 19 prescribes that the rate used to discount post-employment benefit obligations (both funded and unfunded) should be determined by reference to market yields at the end of the reporting period on high-quality corporate bonds. For currencies for</td>
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information about rates implicit in current prices of annuity contracts that could be used to effect settlement of the obligation (including information about available annuity rates published by the Pension Benefit Guaranty Corporation). In making those estimates, employers may also look to rates of return on high-quality fixed-income investments currently available and expected to be available during the period to maturity of the pension benefits.

which there is no deep market in such high-quality corporate bonds, the market yields (at the end of the reporting period) on government bonds denominated in that currency shall be used. The currency and term of the corporate bonds or government bonds shall be consistent with the currency and estimated term of the post-employment benefit obligations. In addition, IAS 19 requires employers to select assumptions that are unbiased and mutually compatible. Actuarial assumptions are unbiased if they are neither imprudent nor excessively conservative, and mutually compatible if they reflect the same expected economic outlook.

Implications:

The discount rates assumption generally can have a significant effect on the benefit cost and obligation of a plan. ASC 715-30-55-25 states that the assumed discount rates should not be selected arbitrarily from within a range, but should reflect the best estimate of the interest rates at which the benefit obligation could be effectively settled at that point in time. Under US GAAP’s explicit approach, the employers’ objective is to select assumed discount rates using a method that is consistent with the manner in which they expect to settle the benefit payments. In contrast, IAS 19 rejects the use of the settlement approach to selecting the discount rate in BC 129 and requires employers to use their best estimate to select actuarial assumptions that are unbiased.

In practice the discount rates assumption generally would be unbiased under IAS 19 if the make-up of the corporate bonds used to determine the spot rate yield curves is representative of the “universe” of bonds denominated in the currency of the obligation and available in the jurisdiction that the benefits are expected to be paid. The population of the bonds should not exclude outliers based on a skewed selection process that disproportionately excludes bonds at the higher and lower ends of the range (with limited exceptions). Due to the different requirements in selecting the discount rate, employers using spot rate yield curves or hypothetical bond matching approaches under US GAAP should examine whether their approach is also acceptable under IAS 19.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Current US GAAP reporting entities will need to consider this difference upon transition to IFRS. It is important that first-time adopters verify that their actuaries understand this difference with regard to the requirements for determining the discount rates.
3. Does the reporting entity have unrecognized actuarial gains and losses associated with its defined benefit plan?

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<tr>
<td>Actuarial gains and losses may be recognized immediately in net income or in other comprehensive income. Actuarial gains and losses recorded in other comprehensive income are recognized in net income in subsequent reporting periods. Under this deferral approach, the minimum amount of actuarial gains and losses to be recognized in net periodic benefit cost is calculated as the amount of the net gain or loss that exceeds 10% of the greater of the benefit obligation or the market-related value of plan assets (known as the “10% corridor approach”) measured at the beginning of the year. Deferred actuarial gains and losses outside the 10% corridor are amortized over the average remaining service period of active employees or, when all or almost all participants are inactive, over the average remaining life expectancy of those participants. Any systematic method of amortizing net actuarial gains and losses may be used in lieu of the minimum determined by the method specified above provided that: (1) the minimum is used in any period in which the minimum amortization is greater (reduces the net balance included in accumulated other comprehensive income by more), (2) the method is applied consistently, (3) the method is applied similarly to both gains and losses, and (4) the method used is disclosed.</td>
<td>Remeasurement gains and losses, including actuarial gains and losses, must be recognized immediately in other comprehensive income and are not subsequently recognized (or recycled) into net income.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, all actuarial gains and losses are recognized in net income (either immediately or in future periods after they are initially recognized in other comprehensive income). In contrast, remeasurement gains and losses, including actuarial gains and losses, will never be recognized in net income under IAS 19 because remeasurement gains and losses must be recognized in other comprehensive income as they occur and are not subsequently recognized in net income.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

At the date of transition to IFRS, first-time adopters will begin recording actuarial gains and losses immediately through other comprehensive income.

4. Does the reporting entity have prior service costs or credits associated with its defined benefit plan?

Yes ☐ No ☐ ☐

US GAAP — 715-30-35-10, 35-11, 35-13, 35-14, 35-17, 715-60-35-13 through 35-20

Prior service costs are initially recognized through other comprehensive income and are recognized in net income in subsequent periods.

For benefit increases (positive plan amendments), the amortization of prior service costs occurs over the average remaining service period of active employees or over the average remaining life expectancy of inactive participants (if all or almost all participants are inactive).

For benefit decreases (negative plan amendments), unrecognized prior service “credits” are first offset against any remaining unrecognized prior service costs in accumulated other comprehensive income. Any remaining prior service credits are then recognized in net income on the same basis as prior service costs.

IFRS — IAS 19.102 through 108

Past service costs from plan amendments that increase or decrease vested or unvested benefits are recognized immediately in net income at the earlier of when the related plan amendment occurs or when the entity recognizes related restructuring costs or termination benefits (see Question 9).

Implications:

Under US GAAP, prior service costs or credits are generally recognized on a prospective basis (typically over the average remaining service period of active employees). Under IAS 19, those costs or credits (referred to as “past service costs”) must be recognized immediately.

Examples of benefit plans where past service costs are likely to exist include:

► A benefit plan with periodic benefit improvements, such as a collectively bargained plan;
► A frozen pension plan, under which benefit improvements (such as ad hoc cost-of-living adjustments) are provided to inactive participants; and
► Any benefit plan with a significant change that increases or decreases benefits.
Employee benefits other than share-based payments

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<tr>
<th>IFRS 1 implications:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A first-time adopter will need to identify at its date of transition to IFRS the amount of unrecognized past service costs or credits in accordance with IAS 19. First-time adopters will have to recognize any unrecognized past service costs or credits immediately in retained earnings upon adoption of IFRS.</td>
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5. Does the reporting entity use an actuarial method other than the projected unit credit method to estimate the present value of its liability for defined benefit plans?

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<td>Different methods are required depending on the characteristics of the plan’s benefit formula. For example, final-pay and career-average pay plans often use a projected unit credit method. Flat-benefit or non-pay-related plans typically use the unit credit method.</td>
<td>Projected unit credit method is required in all cases.</td>
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<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires the actuarial method selected (for example, benefit/years-of-service approach, projected unit credit method, unit credit method) to reflect the plan’s benefit formula. However, IFRS requires use of the projected unit credit method in all cases. This could result in different measurements of the defined benefit plan liability for certain plans. For example, “hybrid” plans that have features of both a defined benefit and a defined contribution plan exist in both the US and globally. In the US, such hybrid plans include “cash balance” plans and defined contribution plans with guaranteed interest crediting rates. Plans such as these that are accounted for using a “unit credit” method under US GAAP would be accounted for using the “projected unit credit” method under IAS 19.</td>
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IFRS 1 implications:

First-time adopters will need to obtain new actuarial valuations for their defined benefit plans in accordance with IAS 19 as part of their conversion to IFRS. Further, it is important that first-time adopters verify that their actuaries understand the difference in the actuarial valuation methodologies used under US GAAP and IFRS.

6. Is there a defined benefit asset recognized on the balance sheet?

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Employers are required to present the benefit plan's funded status on the balance sheet, which is the difference between the fair value of plan assets and the actuarial present value of the defined benefit obligation. US GAAP does not limit the amount of the defined benefit asset recognized on the balance sheet for overfunded plans.</td>
<td>Employers are required to present the benefit plan's funded status on the balance sheet, which is the difference between the actuarial present value of the benefit obligation and the fair value of plan assets. However, IAS 19 limits the measurement of the net defined benefit asset (or “surplus”) to the present value of economic benefits available in the form of cash refunds from the plan or reductions in future contributions to the plan. This limitation is known as the “asset ceiling.” A reduction in the net defined benefit asset resulting from the asset ceiling is reported in other comprehensive income (see Question 3). IFRIC 14 provides additional guidance on how to determine the amount of the surplus that can be recognized as the net defined benefit asset. It also explains how the asset ceiling test may be influenced by the existence of a minimum funding requirement. Specifically, IFRIC 14 provides the following guidance:</td>
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<tr>
<td>► Economic benefits in the form of refunds from the plan are considered “available” to the employer if they will be realizable at some point during the life of the plan or at final settlement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>► Economic benefits available as a reduction in future contributions are measured as the lower of the surplus in the plan and the present value of the employer’s future service cost (excluding any employee contributions).</td>
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<td>► Any minimum funding requirement at a given date must take into consideration any existing shortfall for past services as well as future benefit accruals. An entity must</td>
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assume continuation of a minimum funding requirement for contributions relating to future service, consistent with the assumptions used to measure the defined benefit obligation.

► The reduction in the net defined benefit asset for the asset ceiling is recorded through an increase in the defined benefit obligation if contributions payable under minimum funding requirements will not be available to the employer after they are paid into the plan. The additional liability is necessary to prevent recognition of gains and losses that would otherwise arise in future periods when the contributions are paid and the asset ceiling test is applied.

► A prepayment of a minimum funding requirement is to be recognized as a pension asset. Subsequently, the remaining surplus in the plan is subject to the same analysis (discussed above) as if no prepayment had been made.

**Implications:**

Because US GAAP does not limit the amount of the net defined benefit asset that can be recognized on the balance sheet, all defined benefit plans in a surplus position could be affected by the IAS 19 asset ceiling. Additionally, IFRIC 14 may also require recognition of an additional liability for defined benefit plans in a deficit (net defined benefit liability) position if they have minimum funding requirements to cover an existing shortfall on the minimum funding basis related to services already received.

A reduction in the net defined benefit asset as a result of the asset ceiling may be more likely to occur for employers with the following situations:

► Plans under which surplus assets may not fully revert to the employer upon plan wind-up or termination, due to plan provisions, local laws (including tax laws), or the constructive obligation of the employer to share the surplus with other parties, including plan participants. The available refund, if any, would be net of any taxes or other costs payable by the plan upon the reversion of assets.

► Plans under which surplus assets may not be available to the employer to reduce future contributions due to contractual arrangements, such as a collectively-bargained arrangement, that prevents those assets from reverting back to the employer.
**Identified difference?**

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**Identified difference?**

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<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
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**IFRS 1 implications:**

The IAS 19 asset ceiling may reduce the amount of any net defined benefit asset that exists at the transition date. IAS 19’s asset ceiling requirements, as well as the IFRIC 14 requirements, are very complex. Companies will most likely need to work with accounting and actuarial specialists to apply the provisions. A transition adjustment to reduce the amount of any net defined benefit asset or increase the postemployment obligation for any minimum funding requirements should be recorded in retained earnings.

**7. Does the reporting entity include an expected return on plan assets as a component of net periodic benefit cost?**

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<tr>
<td>The expected return on plan assets, which is a component of net periodic benefit cost recognized in the income statement, is determined using the expected long-term rate of return on invested assets and the market-related value of the assets (based on either the fair value of plan assets at the measurement date or a calculated value that smooths changes in fair value over a period not to exceed five years, at the employer’s election). The fair value of plan assets is determined based on the guidance in ASC 820 (see the “Fair value measurements” section of this publication).</td>
<td>A concept of an expected return on plan assets does not exist in IFRS. A “net interest” expense (income) on the net defined benefit liability (asset) is recognized as a component of defined benefit cost. Net interest represents the change in the net defined benefit obligation (asset) as a result of the passage of time. It is calculated as the product of the net defined benefit liability (asset) and the discount rate used to measure the benefit obligation, each as of the beginning of the annual period (see Questions 1 and 2).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Under US GAAP an employer will include in net periodic benefit cost an expected return on plan assets based on either the fair value of plan assets or a “calculated” value that smooths the effects of short-term market fluctuations over a period not to exceed five years. Differences between the expected and actual return on plan assets are recognized immediately in net income or other comprehensive income. Gains or losses on plan assets included in other comprehensive income are recognized in net income in subsequent periods (see Question 3).

IAS 19 requires recognition of a “net interest” expense (income) on the net defined benefit liability (asset) as a component of the defined benefit cost, instead of an expected or calculated return on plan assets. The net interest expense (income), which consists of interest expense on the obligation and interest income on the plan assets, is calculated using the benefit obligation’s discount rate, which typically is determined using high-quality corporate bond yields, irrespective of the assets held in the plan. Differences between the interest income on plan assets and the actual return on those assets are included in the remeasurement gains and losses recorded in other comprehensive income and will never be recognized in net income. This difference affects all plans.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

A first-time adopter will begin recognizing net interest on the defined benefit plan liability (asset), in its first IFRS financial statements.

8. Are plan benefits covered by insurance policies?

Under US GAAP, an annuity contract is a contract in which an insurance company unconditionally undertakes a legal obligation to provide specified benefits to specific individuals in return for a fixed consideration or premium. It is irrevocable and involves the transfer of significant risk from the employer to the insurance company.

Under IAS 19, a qualifying insurance policy is an insurance policy issued by an insurer that is not a related party of the employer, if the proceeds of the policy:

(1) can be used only to pay or fund employee benefits under a defined benefit plan;

(2) are not available to the employer’s own creditors (even in bankruptcy) and cannot be paid to the employer, unless either:

(a) the proceeds represent surplus assets that are not needed for the policy to meet all the related employee benefit obligations; or

(b) the proceeds are returned to the employer to reimburse it for employee benefits already paid.
### Employee benefits other than share-based payments


The cost of benefits covered by an annuity contract is the cost of purchasing the annuity contract. Similar to a defined contribution plan, the annuity contracts and the benefits covered by those contracts are excluded from the employer’s balance sheet.

Insurance policies that are not annuity contracts may be plan assets if the assets have been segregated and restricted to provide benefits. Otherwise, they are recognized as separate assets of the employer.

#### IFRS — IAS 19.46 through 49, 115 through 119

The cost of benefits covered by an insurance arrangement will equal the insurance premiums paid (the plan is considered a defined contribution plan) unless the employer has a legal or constructive obligation to either: (1) pay employee benefits directly when they come due or (2) pay further amounts if the insurer does not pay all future employee benefits relating to employee service in the current and prior periods.

If the employer retains a legal or constructive obligation to pay employee benefits, then the plan is accounted for as a defined benefit plan. Qualifying insurance policies are included in plans assets and the benefits covered by the qualifying insurance policies are included in the benefit obligation. Insurance policies that are not qualifying insurance policies are excluded from plan assets. The right to reimbursement under the insurance policy is a separate asset on the employer’s balance sheet that is not deducted from the defined benefit deficit or added to the defined benefit surplus but is otherwise accounted for similar to plan assets.

### Implications:

An annuity contract purchased to pay benefits under the plan may be treated differently under US GAAP and IAS 19. Under IAS 19, the payments of fixed premiums under an annuity contract may be considered contributions to a defined contribution plan if those payments are, in substance, the settlement of the employee benefit obligation; otherwise, the annuity contract is accounted for as a defined benefit plan. Under US GAAP, the cost of an insurance contract is accounted for similar to a defined contribution plan as long as the contract is considered an “annuity contract,” as defined, even if the criteria for a settlement under US GAAP may not have been met. This difference will affect all defined benefit plans that hold annuity contracts.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**Yes**  **No**  **Depends on policy election**

### IFRS 1 implications:

If a first-time adopter has an annuity contract, it will need to consider whether the contract should be accounted for as a defined contribution or defined benefit plan under IAS 19, as described above. If the annuity contract is considered a defined benefit plan under IAS 19, then the first-time adopter will need to determine whether the contract is: (1) a qualifying insurance contract, or (2) a reimbursement right in order to determine whether the contract can be accounted for as a plan asset. A transition adjustment to account for the contract as a defined benefit plan should be recorded in retained earnings.
9. Has the reporting entity’s defined benefit plan experienced a curtailment?

Under US GAAP, a curtailment is defined as an event that significantly reduces the expected years of future service of current employees or eliminates, for a significant number of employees, the accrual of defined benefits for some or all of their future services. A curtailment under IFRS occurs when an entity significantly reduces the number of employees covered by a plan.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A decrease (gain) in the benefit obligation due to a curtailment is considered a curtailment gain only to the extent the gain exceeds net actuarial losses in accumulated other comprehensive income (the entire decrease is considered a curtailment gain if a net actuarial gain exists). An increase (loss) in the benefit obligation due to a curtailment is considered a curtailment loss only to the extent the loss exceeds net actuarial gains in accumulated other comprehensive income (the entire increase is considered a curtailment loss if a net actuarial loss exists).</td>
<td>A curtailment results in past service cost, measured as the change in the present value of the defined benefit obligation due to the curtailment. Past service costs (see Question 4) are recognized immediately in net income at the earlier of when the curtailment occurs or when the entity recognizes related restructuring costs or termination benefits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unrecognized prior service costs (credits) at the curtailment date associated with prior plan amendments for which future service is no longer expected to be rendered are losses (gains). Net losses are recognized when the curtailment is probable of occurring and the loss is estimable. Net gains are not recognized until the affected employees terminate or the plan suspension or the plan amendment is adopted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

Differences exist between US GAAP and IAS 19 in determining the timing and the amount of the curtailment gain or loss to be recognized. Under IAS 19, only the change in the benefit obligation will be recognized as a result of a curtailment, since there are no unrecognized prior service costs or gains and losses. Under US GAAP, unrecognized prior service costs or credits relating to previous plan amendments are recognized in a curtailment together with the portion, if any, of the decrease or increase in the benefit obligation that exceeds unrecognized actuarial losses or gains, respectively.

The timing for recognizing the effects of a curtailment under US GAAP differs depending on whether a curtailment gain or loss has occurred (curtailment losses may be recognized in an earlier period than curtailment gains). The timing for recognizing the effects of a curtailment under IAS 19 is the same for both an increase and a decrease in the defined benefit obligation.

In addition, the elimination of the accrual of defined benefits for some or all of the future services of a significant number of employees is accounted for as a curtailment under US GAAP. Under IAS 19, the elimination of benefits is accounted for as a plan amendment (see Question 4). The accounting for both a plan amendment and a curtailment is the same under IAS 19.
Differences in accounting for curtailments will affect employers that are reducing their workforces or reducing/eliminating employees’ future benefit accruals.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:
To the extent a first-time adopter had recognized a curtailment loss under US GAAP based upon the probability of the curtailment occurring, but the curtailment has not yet occurred at the transition date, then an adjustment will be required at the date of transition to reverse the effects of the curtailment. The curtailment loss will subsequently be recognized under IAS 19 when the curtailment occurs. Also the amount of curtailment gains and losses may differ under US GAAP and IFRS.

10. Has the reporting entity’s defined benefit plan experienced a plan settlement? Does the reporting entity have defined benefit plans that pay lump-sums to plan participants?

Under US GAAP, a settlement of a defined benefit obligation is an irrevocable action that relieves the employer (or the plan) of primary responsibility for a benefit obligation and eliminates significant risks related to the obligation and the assets used to effect the settlement. For example, the obligation for pension benefits could be transferred to a third party by purchasing annuity contracts from an insurance company. Alternatively, the obligation could be settled by making lump-sum cash payments to participants in exchange for their rights to receive benefits.

Under IFRS, a settlement of a defined benefit obligation occurs when an entity enters into a transaction that eliminates all further legal or constructive obligation for part or all of the benefits provided under a defined benefit plan. A payment of benefits to, or on behalf of, employees in accordance with the terms of the plan and included in the actuarial assumptions is not a settlement. For example, a one-off transfer of significant employer obligations under the plan to an insurance company through the purchase of an insurance policy is a settlement, whereas a lump-sum cash payment made under the terms of the plan to plan participants in exchange for their rights to receive specified post-employment benefits is not a settlement (i.e., the actuarial assumptions would already anticipate the payments).

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A settlement gain or loss is calculated as the difference between the present value of the defined benefit obligation being settled and the settlement price, including any plan assets transferred and any payments made directly by the employer in connection with the settlement, plus a pro rata portion of previously unrecognized actuarial gains and losses. The settlement gain or loss is recognized when the benefit obligation is settled.</td>
<td>A settlement gain or loss is calculated as the difference between the present value of the defined benefit obligation being settled and the settlement price, including any plan assets transferred and any payments made directly by the employer in connection with the settlement. The settlement gain or loss is recognized when the benefit obligation is settled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An employer is not required to account for a settlement with one or more participants unless all settlements during the year exceed the sum of the plan’s total service and interest cost for that year.

**Implications:**

Differences exist between US GAAP and IAS 19 in determining the amount of the settlement gain or loss to be recognized. Under IAS 19, the settlement gain or loss is measured as the difference between the benefit obligation being settled and the settlement price. Under US GAAP, the settlement gain or loss includes a portion of unrecognized actuarial gains or losses.

In addition, while lump-sum cash payments to plan participants in exchange for their rights to receive specified benefits are considered settlements under US GAAP, an employer can elect to not account for lump-sum payments as settlements under US GAAP as long as those payments do not exceed the sum of the plan’s total service cost and interest cost for that year (known as the “settlement threshold”). Under this approach, an employer with a plan that makes lump-sum payments in excess of the settlement threshold should account for those payments as settlements, even if the payments were not triggered by any special corporate event. Settlement accounting also may be applied if the amount of lump-sum payments is below the threshold, if this approach is applied consistently from year to year.

IAS 19 does not have a minimum threshold for recognizing settlements. However, if an existing benefit plan provides plan participants with an option to choose a lump-sum payment at retirement, instead of ongoing annuity payments, participants’ decisions to receive those lump-sum payments are accounted for as actuarial gains or losses, rather than as settlements.

Differences in accounting for settlements will affect employers that are reducing their workforces and/or are making one-time or periodic purchases of annuities or payments of lump-sums (including termination indemnities) to plan participants.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Because the net benefit liability (asset) measured at the date of adoption will incorporate settlements under IAS 19, there will not likely be any IFRS 1 implications.
11. Does the reporting entity participate in a multiemployer plan?

Under US GAAP, a multiemployer plan is a defined benefit or defined contribution plan to which two or more unrelated employers contribute, usually pursuant to one or more collective-bargaining agreements. In multiemployer plans, assets contributed by one participating employer may be used to provide benefits to employees of other participating employers. Also, the assets contributed by an employer are not segregated in a separate account or restricted to provide benefits only to employees of that employer.

Under IFRS, a multiemployer plan is a defined benefit or defined contribution plan that pools the assets contributed by various entities that are not under common control and uses those assets to provide benefits to employees of more than one entity, on the basis that contribution and benefit levels are determined without regard to the identity of the entity that employs the employees covered.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An employer accounts for its participation in a multiemployer plan by recognizing the cost of the required contribution for the period and recording a liability for contributions due and unpaid (similar to the accounting for a defined contribution plan). Any obligation required upon withdrawal from the multiemployer plan is recorded when the withdrawal is probable or reasonably possible according to the guidance under ASC 450, Contingencies.</td>
<td>An employer accounts for its participation in a multiemployer plan based on the underlying terms of the plan. If the plan provides a defined benefit, the employer should follow the requirements for defined benefit plans. Accordingly, the employer’s proportionate share of the defined benefit obligation, fair value of plan assets, and cost associated with the plan is accounted for in the same manner as for any other defined benefit plan. In some situations, the employer may not have access to the information required to apply defined benefit accounting. In this case, the employer should account for the plan as a defined contribution plan. If the plan is, or is accounted for as, a defined contribution plan, an employer accounts for its participation in a multiemployer plan by recognizing the cost of the required contribution for the period and recording a liability for contributions due and unpaid, together with any contractual assets or liabilities arising from the multiemployer plan agreement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

US GAAP requires the employer to recognize the required contributions as net periodic benefit costs for the period and to recognize a liability based on any contributions due and unpaid.

IAS 19 requires consideration of the underlying characteristics of the plan to determine whether the plan should be accounted for as a defined contribution or a defined benefit plan. For defined benefit-type plans, the employer may have to recognize its proportionate share of the defined benefit obligation, plan assets and costs associated with the plan.

This is a potentially significant difference for all US GAAP employers participating in a multiemployer plan arrangement.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

Depends on policy election

Yes ☐ No ☐

IFRS 1 implications:

Upon adoption of IAS 19, a US company participating in a multiemployer plan may be required to account for the plan as a defined benefit plan. As such, any net deficit or surplus of the defined benefit plan upon adoption would be recognized in retained earnings.

12. Does the entity participate in one or more multiple-employer plans?

Under US GAAP, some pension plans to which two or more unrelated employers contribute are not multiemployer plans (see Question 11). Multiple-employer plans are in substance aggregations of single-employer plans combined to allow participating employers to pool their assets for investment purposes and to reduce the costs of plan administration.

Under IFRS, group administration plans are an aggregation of single employer plans combined to allow participating employers to pool their assets for investment purposes and reduce investment management and administration costs. The claims of different employers are segregated for the sole benefit of their own employees.


IFRS — IAS 19.38

Multiple-employer plans should be accounted for as single-employer plans, and each employer’s accounting should be based on its respective interest in the plan.

A group administration plan is accounted for as either a defined contribution plan or a defined benefit plan in accordance with the terms of the plan.

Implications:

Most multiple-employer plans are currently accounted for as defined benefit plans because they do not meet the definition of a defined contribution plan under US GAAP. In practice, many benefit plans (including multiple-employer plans) that are not defined contribution plans under US GAAP will not be considered defined contribution plans under IAS 19 and will continue to be accounted for as defined benefit plans under IAS 19 (see also Question 13).
Employee benefits other than share-based payments

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

IFRS 1 implications:
Because we expect many multiple-employer plans to continue to be accounted for as defined benefit plans, there will not likely be any IFRS 1 implications. However, if a multiple-employer plan is considered a defined contribution plan under IAS 19, then the first-time adopter will need to record an adjustment to remove the benefit asset or liability from the balance sheet. Any differences between the net periodic benefit obligation (asset) recorded prior to the date of transition for the defined benefit plan and the amount that should have been recorded for the defined contribution plan (due but unpaid contributions) should be recorded as an adjustment to retained earnings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. Does the entity have any plans with elements of both defined benefit and defined contribution plans?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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</table>

Under US GAAP, a defined contribution pension plan is a plan that provides retirement benefits in return for services rendered, provides an individual account for each participant, and has terms that specify how contributions to the individual’s account are to be determined rather than the amount of pension benefits the individual is to receive. The amount of the retirement benefit is based solely on the assets invested and the return on those assets. A benefit plan that does not meet the definition of a defined contribution plan is a defined benefit plan.

The IFRS definition of a defined contribution plan is similar to that under US GAAP. However, IFRS does not require that individual accounts exist for each participant. A benefit plan that does not meet the definition of a defined contribution plan is a defined benefit plan.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The employer’s expense for each period for a defined contribution plan is determined by the amount contributed for that period.</td>
<td>The employer’s expense for each period for a defined contribution plan is determined by the amounts to be contributed for that period.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A plan having characteristics of both a defined benefit and a defined contribution plan should be accounted for as a defined benefit plan if the substance of the plan is to provide a defined benefit.</td>
<td>If the arrangement does not meet the definition of a defined contribution plan, it is accounted for as a defined benefit plan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Benefit plans classified as either defined benefit or defined contribution plans under US GAAP will typically continue to be classified as defined benefit or defined contribution plans under IAS 19. However, one example of a benefit plan for which the classification under IAS 19 may not always be clear is cash balance plans. In these arrangements, the plan sponsor must make a fixed contribution to a “hypothetical account” and the employee’s postretirement benefit is determined based on the employee’s account balance. The assets are cominged for investment purposes and the plan sponsor retains the investment risks. Under US GAAP, even though the employer makes fixed contributions to a participant’s “account,” a cash balance plan is not accounted for as a defined contribution plan. Instead, cash balance plans are accounted for as a defined benefit plan because any plan that is not a defined contribution plan is accounted for as a defined benefit plan. It is not certain that cash balance plans would also be considered a defined benefit plan under IFRS.

Identified difference?

- Yes
- No
- Depends on policy election

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

A first-time adopter should carefully consider whether certain hybrid-type arrangements (plans with characteristics of both defined contribution and defined benefit plans) should be accounted for as defined contribution plans under IAS 19. If a benefit plan is considered a defined contribution plan under IAS 19, then the first-time adopter will need to record an adjustment to remove the benefit asset or liability from the balance sheet. Any differences between the net periodic benefit obligation (asset) recorded prior to the date of transition for the defined benefit plan and the amount that should have been recorded for the defined contribution plan should be recorded as an adjustment to retained earnings.
Other Employee Benefits

14. **Does the reporting entity provide deferred compensation benefits when the deferred funds are invested in a rabbi trust?**

Some employers offer a deferred compensation plan as an alternate form of compensation for select highly compensated employees. Amounts earned by eligible employees may be held in cash, invested in the employer’s stock or, for some plans, in non-employer securities if the plan permits diversification. The employee is immediately vested in the deferred compensation and typically redeems the funds upon leaving the company.

A rabbi trust may be used to fund the deferred compensation obligation. To qualify as a rabbi trust for income tax purposes, the assets of the trust must be available to satisfy the claims of general creditors in the event of the employer’s bankruptcy. The benefit of the rabbi trust to the employee is the ability to defer income taxes on the employee’s salary and allow the deferred salary to appreciate in value tax-free until the withdrawal period. The employer is not required to invest in the securities selected by the employee and may choose to invest in different securities. However, placing assets in a rabbi trust does not relieve the employer of its legal obligation to settle the deferred compensation obligation that is calculated based upon the employee’s investment elections.

### US GAAP — 710-10-05-8 and 9, 710-10-25-15 through 25-18, 710-10-35-1 through 4, 710-10-45-1 and 45-2

- Employer stock held by the rabbi trust should be classified within equity. Subsequent changes in the fair value of the employer’s stock are not recognized.

  - For plans that permit diversification and the employee has diversified, the assets held by the rabbi trust should be accounted for in accordance with the applicable GAAP for the particular asset. At acquisition, securities held by the rabbi trust may be classified as trading, with changes in fair value recorded in earnings. The deferred compensation obligation, generally, is classified as a liability. Changes in the fair value of the amount owed to the employee are recorded as compensation cost.

  - For plans that do not permit diversification and that must be settled by the delivery of a fixed number of employer shares, the obligation is recognized in equity and is not remeasured.

### IFRS — IAS 19.8, 67-69 and 113 through 115

- Employer stock held by the rabbi trust should be classified within equity. Subsequent changes in the fair value of the employer’s stock are not recognized.

  - For plans that permit diversification, the assets held in a rabbi trust are not plan assets under IAS 19. The assets should be accounted for under IAS 39, *Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement*. Changes in the fair value of the assets are recorded in earnings if the assets are classified as held for trading or are designated at fair value through profit or loss upon initial recognition.

  - The deferred compensation plan liability is a post-employment benefit only if it is payable after employment.

  - The deferred compensation liability that is not expected to be settled within 12 months of the reporting date is another long-term employee benefit and should be measured using the projected unit credit method to calculate the actuarial present value of the obligation. Subsequent changes in the measurement of the liability should be recognized immediately in net income. If the plan is a post-employment benefit plan, see Question 3 about accounting for the change in the benefit obligation.
Implications:
The liability for deferred compensation benefits invested in rabbi trusts is measured differently under US GAAP and IFRS.

Under US GAAP, the deferred compensation obligation is measured based on the fair value of the assets held in the rabbi trust. Under IFRS, the deferred compensation obligation is measured based on the actuarial present value of the benefits owed to the employee, which may differ from the fair value of the assets held in the rabbi trust. The application of the projected unit credit method for measuring the deferred compensation obligation may incorporate expectations regarding future changes in asset returns as well as future salary deferrals.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS implications:
A first-time adopter will need to consider potential differences between US GAAP and IFRS with respect to a deferred compensation plan when the deferred benefits are invested in a rabbi trust.

Upon conversion to IFRS, the deferred compensation liability under US GAAP will need to be remeasured using the projected unit credit method under IAS 19. Adjustments to the deferred compensation liability will be recorded as an adjustment to opening retained earnings.

15. Does the reporting entity provide profit sharing or bonus arrangements that are not expected to be settled wholly before 12 months after year-end?

Yes □ No □

It is common practice for some employers to defer payment of profit sharing or bonus amounts earned by employees for more than 12 months after the end of the fiscal year in which the compensation was earned. This practice is common in the financial services industry and is used to facilitate the claw-back of compensation that may have been fraudulently or erroneously earned by employees.

US GAAP — 710-10-25-9 through 11, 710-10-30-1 and 30-2

The deferred profit sharing or bonus obligation is classified as a liability and recognized each reporting period based upon the present value of the amount expected to be paid, discounted only for the effects of time value of money. Changes in the present value of the amount owed to the employee are recorded as compensation cost.

IFRS — IAS 19.24

Profit sharing and bonus payments that are not expected to be fully settled before 12 months after the end of the fiscal year in which the employees render the related service are accounted for as other long-term employee benefits.

As discussed in Question 14 above, the deferred profit sharing or bonus liability should be measured using the projected unit credit method to calculate the actuarial present value of the obligation. Subsequent changes in the measurement of the liability should be recognized immediately in net income. If the plan is a post-employment benefit plan, see Question 3 about accounting for the change in the benefit obligation.
Implications:

The liability for deferred profit sharing and bonus payments that are not expected to be fully settled within 12 months of the end of the fiscal year in which the related services are performed is measured differently under US GAAP and IFRS.

Under US GAAP, a deferred compensation obligation is measured based on the present value of the amount expected to be paid to the employees. Under IFRS, the deferred profit sharing or bonus obligation is measured based on the actuarial present value of the benefits owed to the employee, which may differ from the present value of the amount expected to be paid to the employee primarily due to differences in the discount rate used to measure the liability under US GAAP and IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

A first-time adopter will need to consider potential differences between US GAAP and IFRS with respect to liabilities for profit-sharing or bonus arrangements that are not expected to be fully settled within 12 months after the end of the fiscal period in which the employees provided the service.

Upon conversion to IFRS, the profit-sharing or bonus payment liability under US GAAP will need to be remeasured using the projected unit credit method under IAS 19. Adjustments to the deferred compensation liability will be recorded as an adjustment to opening retained earnings.

16. Does the reporting entity require employees or third parties to contribute to the cost of its defined benefit plan?

It is common practice for some employers to share the cost of other postemployment benefits with employees, retirees or third parties by requiring them to contribute to the plan during active service and/or after retirement. The amount of contribution could be a fixed percentage of compensation during active service or a fixed amount, adjusted for inflation, during retirement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 715-60-35-57</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 19.93</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The benefit obligation is reduced by the actuarial present value of contributions expected to be received from the plan participants during their remaining active service and postretirement periods. Employers should consider any related substantive plan provisions, such as past practice of consistently increasing or reducing the contribution rates, in determining the amount of the contributions expected to be received from the plan participants.</td>
<td>Contributions from employees or third parties may either reduce service cost if they are linked to service, or affect remeasurements of the net defined benefit liability (asset) if they are not linked to service. If contributions are linked to service and are dependent on the number of years of service, those contributions must be attributed to service periods using the same attribution method as used for the service cost calculated based on the plan’s benefit formula. If the contributions are linked to service but are not dependent on the number of years of service, those contributions may be recognized as a reduction in the service cost in the period in which the related service is rendered. (Note: this is a permitted but not a required method)</td>
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</table>
Implications:

There is limited guidance under US GAAP on contributions from employees or third parties because the majority of the defined benefit pension plans in the US are non-contributory (i.e., contributions required from employers only). In some instances, other postretirement benefit plans may contain provisions that require employees to contribute to the plan during their active service and postretirement periods as a means of cost sharing with the employer. The defined benefit obligation and the related cost are determined based on the net cost of the benefit to the employer.

Under IFRS, the accounting for contributions from employees or third parties depends on whether those contributions are linked to service. An example of contributions not linked to service is when the contributions are required to reduce a deficit arising from losses on plan assets or from actuarial losses. Those required contributions are recognized as remeasurement gains and losses when the triggering event occurs. If the contributions are linked to service and are dependent on the number of years of service, the employer must reduce the service costs by attributing those contributions to service periods using the same attribution method as used for the service cost calculated based on the plan’s benefit formula. Contributions that are linked to service but are independent of the number of years of service (e.g., those that are a fixed percentage of salary or a fixed amount per year of service) are permitted to be recognized as a reduction of service cost in the period in which the related service is rendered.

Identified difference?

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

Because we expect many defined benefit pension plans in the US to be non-contributory, there will not likely be any IFRS 1 implications. However, if a US company has a contributory plan under which an employee or third party contributes part of the plan cost, the first-time adopter will need to consider potential differences between US GAAP and IFRS with respect to contributions from employees or third parties as IFRS has different accounting guidance for contributions linked to service and those that are not. Any adjustment to the net periodic benefit obligation (asset) recorded at the date of transition should be recorded as an adjustment to retained earnings.
Earnings per share

Similarities:
Entities whose common stock is publicly traded, or entities that are in the process of issuing shares in the public markets, must disclose earnings per share (EPS) information pursuant to ASC 260, *Earnings Per Share*, and IAS 33, *Earnings per Share*. ASC 260 and IAS 33 are substantially the same. Both require presentation of basic and diluted EPS on the face of the income statement, both use the treasury stock method for determining the effects of stock options and warrants on the diluted EPS calculation, and both use the if-converted method for determining the effects of convertible debt on the diluted EPS calculation. While both US GAAP and IFRS use similar methods of calculating EPS, there are a few specific, narrow application differences.

Note that US GAAP uses the term “common stock” or “common shares” and IFRS uses the term “ordinary shares.” These terms are interchangeable and both refer to the class of stock with a residual ownership interest in an entity. This publication uses both terms based on the context (i.e., whether it refers to US GAAP or IFRS).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>▶ ASC 260, <em>Earnings Per Share</em></td>
<td>▶ IAS 33, <em>Earnings per Share</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
In March 2016, the FASB issued ASU 2016-09, *Improvements to Employee Share-Based Payment Accounting*, which changes the accounting for the tax effects of share-based payments and will have a consequential effect on the calculation of assumed proceeds for share-based payments subsequent to adoption. Specifically, when calculating assumed proceeds in the computation of diluted EPS for share-based payments using the treasury stock method, companies will exclude excess tax benefits because they are no longer recognized in additional paid-in capital (APIC). The guidance is effective for public business entities for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those fiscal years. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018. This part of the ASU will be applied prospectively, and early adoption is permitted. This change is discussed below. IAS 33 currently does not explicitly require the income tax effects of awards in the calculation of the treasury stock method. No further convergence is planned at this time.

Discussion of IFRS 1:
Upon the adoption of IFRS, an entity is required to restate EPS so that it conforms to IFRS for all periods presented.

1. **Is the reporting entity an investment company or a wholly owned subsidiary?**

   An investment company, for the purposes of the scope of ASC 260, is defined as a reporting entity that complies with the requirements of ASC 946, *Financial Services — Investment Companies*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 260-10-15-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 33.2, 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presentation of EPS for investment companies or in statements of wholly owned subsidiaries is not required. However, investment companies are</td>
<td>No scope exceptions are provided for investment companies and separate (or stand-alone) financial statements of wholly owned</td>
</tr>
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</table>
required to present certain other per share information under ASC 946.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Investment companies**

While there is no explicit scope exception for investment companies in IAS 33, we believe that there are some circumstances in which investment companies would not present EPS under IAS 33 as discussed further below.

The scope of IAS 33 includes entities 1) with instruments **traded in a public market**, or 2) that file, or are in the process of filing, financial statements with a securities commission or other regulatory organization for issuing any class of instruments in a **public market**. We believe that investment companies are not required to present EPS information if they are listed on a public exchange but all trading occurs off the public stock exchange directly with the company or through a transfer agent acting on behalf of the company (i.e., there is no public market).

Note that many investment companies are listed on a public stock exchange only to facilitate the valuation of portfolios by investors and accommodate certain investors that are required to invest only in securities listed on a public stock exchange. A public market in these instances does not exist when subscriptions and redemptions of a fund’s instruments can only occur with the fund itself (or an agent acting on its behalf) at a price determined by the fund agreement and buyers and sellers cannot transact with one another. A public market (including a secondary market) for an investment company’s instruments would only exist when the instruments can be bought or sold by buyers and sellers, consisting of the general public, at a price determined in that market (i.e., market participants can transact with one another).

Also, we believe that EPS information is not required to be presented for open ended investment funds where ‘shareholders equity’ is classified within liabilities because the financial instruments are puttable. The denominator in calculating EPS is always ordinary shares. An open ended investment fund does not have ordinary shares as defined by IAS 33, but rather puttable financial instruments which are classified as liabilities per paragraph 18b of IAS 32, *Financial Instruments: Presentation*. Therefore, it is not required to present EPS per IAS 33.

**Wholly owned subsidiaries**

If a wholly owned subsidiary has not presented EPS in its stand-alone financial statements because of the ASC 260 scope exception, the adoption of IFRS may require the wholly owned subsidiary to do so. However, when an entity presents both consolidated financial statements and separate financial statements, earnings per share disclosures are required only for the consolidated financial statements. An entity may elect to present earnings per share for the separate financial statements, but that information must be included in the separate financial statements only and cannot be presented in the consolidated financial statements.

**Identified difference?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Click here to enter text.
Does the reporting entity compute diluted EPS for contingently issuable shares or for potential common shares using the treasury stock method or reverse treasury stock method?

Contingently issuable shares are shares whose issuance is contingent upon the satisfaction of certain conditions.

The treasury stock method is used to compute the dilutive effect of call options, warrants and nonvested shares (restricted stock) on EPS.

### US GAAP — 260-10-55-3

For year-to-date and annual computations when each period is profitable, the number of incremental shares added to the denominator is the weighted average of the incremental shares that were added to the denominator in the quarterly computations.

### IFRS — IAS 33.37

Dilutive potential ordinary shares are determined independently for each period presented, including year-to-date periods. Regardless of whether the period has income or loss, the number of dilutive potential ordinary shares included in the year-to-date period is not a weighted average of the dilutive potential ordinary shares included in each interim computation.

**Implications:**

The adoption of IFRS could result in more dilution for contingently issuable shares in year-to-date computations. For example, under US GAAP, if contingently issuable shares first meet the requirements for inclusion in the diluted EPS calculation in the fourth quarter, the shares would be considered outstanding and weighted for the fourth quarter only in the year-to-date diluted EPS calculation. However, under IFRS, the shares would be included in the denominator of diluted EPS from the beginning of the reporting period (or from the date of the contingent share agreement, if later) in the year-to-date calculation.

The adoption of IFRS will likely result in differences for incremental shares calculated under the treasury stock method and reverse treasury stock method in year-to-date computations. The differences will be dependent on the fluctuations of the reporting entity’s market price.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
Does the reporting entity calculate diluted EPS using the treasury stock method for share-based payments?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 260-10-45-29</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 33.46-47A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09, assumed proceeds under the treasury stock method includes the income tax effects, if any, recognized in additional paid-in capital (APIC) at exercise. For example, assumed proceeds would include an excess tax benefit that results from an income tax deduction for compensation in excess of compensation expense recognized for financial reporting purposes. After the adoption of ASU 2016-09, assumed proceeds under the treasury stock method exclude income tax effects of share-based payment awards because they are no longer recognized in APIC. Refer to the “Income taxes” section of this publication for additional guidance.</td>
<td>For options, warrants and their equivalents, IAS 33 does not currently explicitly require assumed proceeds to include the income tax effects on additional paid-in capital at exercise.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Under IFRS, assumed proceeds under the treasury stock method are not explicitly required to include income tax effects on additional paid-in-capital. Prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09, the exclusion of these income tax effects from the EPS calculation, may increase or decrease the dilutive effect of the treasury stock method as compared to US GAAP. Following the adoption of ASU 2016-09, the inclusion of these income tax effects in the EPS calculation under IFRS may increase or decrease the dilutive effect of the treasury stock method as compared to US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
4. Has the reporting entity issued a contract that may be settled in common stock or in cash at the election of either the entity or the holder?

Examples of such contracts are written put options and convertible debt that give the holder a choice of settling in common stock or cash. Another example is a stock-based compensation arrangement that is payable in common stock or in cash at the election of either the entity or the employee.

**US GAAP — 260-10-45-45, 45-46, 55-36**

- For contracts that may be settled in shares or cash at the entity’s option, there is a presumption that the contract will be settled in common stock and the resulting potential common shares included in diluted EPS if the effect is dilutive. That presumption may be overcome if past experience or a stated policy provides a reasonable basis to believe that the contract will be paid partially or wholly in cash.

- For contracts that may be settled in shares or cash at the holder’s option, the more dilutive of cash or share settlement should be used in the calculation.

**IFRS — IAS 33.58 through 61**

- For contracts that may be settled in shares or cash at the entity’s option, there is a presumption that the contract will be settled in ordinary shares and the resulting potential ordinary shares included in diluted EPS if the effect is dilutive. The presumption of share settlement may not be overcome.

- For contracts that may be settled in shares or cash at the holder’s option, the more dilutive of cash or share settlement should be used in the calculation.

**Implications:**

The adoption of IFRS could result in more dilution if a company had previously overcome the presumption that the contract that may be settled in cash or shares at the entity’s option would be settled in common stock.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

5. Does the reporting entity have participating securities classified as liabilities under US GAAP?

Participating securities are securities that may participate in dividends with common stock according to a predetermined formula (for example, on a two-for-one basis) with potentially an upper limit on participation.

**US GAAP — 260-10-45-59A through 45-60B**

- The two-class method applies to securities classified as liabilities and equity that participate in dividends irrespective of whether they are debt or equity instruments.

**IFRS — IAS 33.A13-A14**

- The two-class method applies only to securities that participate in dividends that are classified as equity. The two-class method is not required for participating debt instruments (e.g., participating convertible debt).
Implications:
The adoption of IFRS could result in fewer instruments that require the application of the two-class method of computing EPS because securities that are classified as liabilities cannot be considered participating securities under IFRS.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

6. Does the reporting entity have a contingently convertible instrument with a contingency based on a market price trigger?

A market price trigger is a market condition that is based, at least in part, on the issuer’s own share price. An example is debt that is convertible once the reporting entity’s share price reaches a certain level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 260-10-45-43, 45-44</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 33.52 through 57</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Potentially issuable shares from a contingently convertible instrument are included in diluted EPS using the “if-converted” method if one or more contingencies relate to a market price trigger, even if the market price trigger is not satisfied at the end of the reporting period.</td>
<td>Potentially issuable shares from a contingently convertible instrument are included in diluted EPS using the “if-converted” method only if the share price trigger is satisfied at the end of the reporting period.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:
The adoption of IFRS will potentially reduce the dilutive impact of contingently convertible instruments, where the contingency is based on a market price trigger, in periods in which the share price contingency has not been satisfied.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

7. Has the reporting entity issued mandatorily convertible instruments?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 260-10-45-40 through 45-42, and 260-10-45-60, 45-60A</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 33.23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mandatorily convertible instruments are not explicitly addressed under US GAAP. However, if a mandatorily convertible instrument is deemed a</td>
<td>Ordinary shares that will be issued upon the conversion of a mandatorily convertible instrument are included in the calculation of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
participating security, a company should apply the two-class method.

If a mandatorily convertible instrument is not deemed a participating security, then the company would apply the “if-converted” method for computing diluted EPS. The effect of the mandatorily convertible instrument would be excluded from the computation of basic EPS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For participating securities, the conversion to IFRS will result in a company moving from applying the two-class method to including the instruments in the weighted average shares outstanding calculation for both basic and diluted EPS. However, an entity would potentially apply the two-class method under IFRS if the dividend rate on the mandatorily convertible instruments was different than the rate for ordinary shares.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For securities that are not participating securities, the conversion to IFRS will result in a company including the instruments in the weighted average shares outstanding calculation for both basic and diluted EPS rather than applying the if-converted method for inclusion in diluted EPS only. This will likely result in lower basic and diluted EPS amounts under IFRS.</td>
</tr>
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**Segment reporting**

**Similarities:**
The requirements for segment reporting under both ASC 280 and IFRS 8 are applicable to reporting entities with public reporting requirements and are based on a “management approach” to identify reportable segments. Required segment disclosures may differ from internal management reports if the reporting entity employs non-GAAP accounting policies to prepare its internal management reports. The two standards also have similar quantitative thresholds for determining reportable segments. That is, in general, separate operating or appropriately aggregated segments are required to be presented if the segment’s revenue, assets or profits or loss exceed 10% of the respective total. Furthermore, the aggregation of operating segments is permitted under both pronouncements only if segments are similar and meet a specific set of aggregation requirements, and the total amounts disclosed for all reportable segments are reconciled to financial statement amounts. If the composition of reportable segments changes, restatement of comparative information is required under both US GAAP (unless it is impracticable to do so) and IFRS (unless the necessary information is not available and the cost to develop it would be excessive). Certain enterprise-wide disclosures such as information about product and services, geographic areas and revenue from major customers are also required to be disclosed for each reportable segment under both US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 280, Segment Reporting</td>
<td>► IFRS 8, Operating Segments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Convergence:**
Neither the IASB nor the FASB have additional convergence plans in this area. The IASB issued IFRS 8 as part of the short-term convergence project. IFRS 8 eliminated most of the differences between US GAAP and IFRS for segment reporting.

**IFRS 1 implications:**
IFRS 1 provides no special guidance related to operating segments.

1. **Does the reporting entity utilize a “matrix” form organizational structure?**
   A “matrix” form of organization is a structure in which different components are managed in more than one way, and the CODM reviews all of the information provided. For example, certain managers may be responsible for different product and service lines worldwide, while other managers are responsible for specific geographical areas. The CODM regularly reviews the operating results of both sets of components, and financial information is available for both.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 280-10-50-9</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 8.1, 10</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For reporting entities with a matrix form of organization referenced above, the components based on products or services would constitute segments.</td>
<td>Reporting entities with a matrix form of organization are required to determine operating segments based on products, services or geographical areas. This determination should be made by reference to the core principle of the standard which requires a reporting entity to disclose information to enable users of its financial statements to evaluate the nature and financial effects of the business activities in which the reporting entity engages and the economic environment in which it operates.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Implications:

Due to the difference in how operating segments may be determined when a reporting entity utilizes a matrix form organizational structure, a reporting entity’s operating segments under IFRS may be different from those determined under US GAAP.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

2. Is a measure of liabilities for each reporting segment regularly provided to the chief operating decision maker (“CODM”)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 280-10-50-30(d)</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 8.21(b), 23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A reporting entity may choose to disclose liabilities for its reportable segments. However, such disclosure is not required even if segment liabilities are provided to the CODM.</td>
<td>A reporting entity is required to report a measure of liabilities for each reportable segment if such an amount is regularly provided to the CODM.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Because disclosure of segment liabilities is an option under US GAAP while it is a requirement under IFRS if it is regularly provided to the CODM, reporting under IFRS may require this additional disclosure.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

3. Does the entity-wide geographic area information disclose long-lived assets?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 280-10-50-41(b), 280-10-55-23</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 8.33(b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generally, long-lived assets include items such as property, plant, equipment, assets under capital leases of lessees, assets of lessors subject to operating leases and intangible assets. However, for the purposes of entity-wide geographic area disclosures, the definition of long-lived assets implies hard assets that cannot be readily removed, which would exclude intangible assets.</td>
<td>IFRS 8 requires disclosure of non-current assets. In a balance sheet that is classified according to liquidity, non-current assets are assets that include amounts expected to be recovered more than 12 months after the balance sheet date. These non-current assets often include intangible assets.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Implications:

US GAAP entity-wide information requires disclosure of total long-lived assets by geographical area. These would exclude intangible assets. IFRS has similar requirements with respect to non-current assets. However, these disclosures often include intangible assets. If the reporting entity has intangible assets, the disclosed amounts will have to be changed to include intangible assets in order to meet the IFRS non-current asset entity-wide segment disclosure requirements.

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</table>

### 4. Does the entity aggregate any of its operating segments?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 280-10-50-21(b)</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 8.22(aa)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entities must disclose whether operating segments have been aggregated.</td>
<td>Entities must disclose whether operating segments have been aggregated and the judgments made in applying the aggregation criteria, including a brief description of the operating segments that have been aggregated and the economic indicators that have been assessed in determining economic similarity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

Although both US GAAP and IFRS require disclosure of whether operating segments have been aggregated, IFRS requires additional disclosures regarding judgments made in applying the aggregation criteria.

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<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<td>Describe:</td>
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</table>
Subsequent events and going concern

**Similarities:**

*Subsequent events*

Despite some differences in terminology, the accounting for subsequent events (US GAAP) and events after the reporting period (IFRS) is similar. An event that occurs after the balance sheet date but before the financial statements have been issued or available to be issued (US GAAP) or authorized for issue (IFRS) that provides additional evidence about conditions existing at the balance sheet date usually requires an adjustment to the financial statements. If the event occurring after the balance sheet date relates to conditions that arose subsequent to the balance sheet date, the financial statements are generally not adjusted, but disclosure may be necessary to keep the financial statements from being misleading. The date through which subsequent events have been evaluated is required to be disclosed under IFRS and under US GAAP, unless the entity is an SEC Filer (see Question 2 below).

*Going concern*

The going concern assumption is a fundamental principle in the preparation of financial statements under both IFRS and US GAAP. Under the going concern assumption, an entity is ordinarily viewed as continuing in business for the foreseeable future with neither the intention nor the necessity of liquidation, ceasing operations or seeking protection from creditors pursuant to laws or regulations. An entity that is a going concern is one that has the ability to realize its assets and discharge its liabilities in the normal course of operations.

**Prior to the adoption of US GAAP guidance in ASU 2014-15, Presentation of Financial Statements — Going Concern**

Prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-15, the US guidance for going concern evaluations is located in the auditing and not the accounting authoritative literature. US auditing standards (AU Section 341, AS 2415.02) require the auditor to evaluate whether there is substantial doubt about the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern for a reasonable period of time, which the auditing guidance defines as not longer than one year from the balance sheet date. While US GAAP does not explicitly require management to evaluate the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern, management’s evaluation is implied when an entity prepares financial statements on a going concern basis. By contrast, IFRS explicitly requires management to assess an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern. Management is required to assess whether material uncertainties related to conditions and events cast significant doubt upon the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern, taking into account all available information about the future, which is at least, but is not limited to, 12 months from the end of the reporting period.

When conditions that raise doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern exist, disclosure of such conditions is required under both US GAAP and IFRS. The financial statement presentation is not affected (i.e., the measurement and classification of assets and liabilities) unless the financial statements are prepared under a basis other than the going concern basis. If the financial statements are prepared under another basis of accounting, such as the liquidation basis if liquidation is imminent, that fact and the reasons leading to that decision are required to be disclosed under US GAAP and IFRS.

**Subsequent to the adoption of US GAAP guidance in ASU 2014-15, Presentation of Financial Statements — Going Concern**

The US accounting guidance for going concern evaluations was codified through the issuance of ASU 2014-15. The guidance is effective for annual periods ending after 15 December 2016, and for interim periods within annual periods beginning after 15 December 2016. Early adoption is permitted. As noted above, prior to the issuance of ASU 2014-15, the US guidance for going concern evaluations was only located in the US auditing literature.
Both US GAAP and IFRS explicitly require management to assess an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern. While management’s evaluation of an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern under US GAAP and IFRS is similar, there are notable differences. US GAAP requires management to evaluate whether there are conditions and events that raise substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern within one year after the date that the financial statements are issued (or available to be issued, if applicable). Management is also required to consider whether its plans alleviate substantial doubt about the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern. To avoid diversity in the timing and content of going concern disclosures, US GAAP defines substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern. In contrast, IFRS requires management to assess whether material uncertainties related to conditions and events cast significant doubt upon the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern. When making this assessment under IFRS, management takes into account all available information about the future, which is at least, but is not limited to, 12 months from the end of the reporting period.

When events and conditions that raise substantial doubt about (US GAAP), or when material uncertainties related to events or conditions cast significant doubt upon (IFRS) an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern, certain disclosures are required under both US GAAP and IFRS. US GAAP also requires disclosures when substantial doubt is alleviated by management’s plans (i.e., substantial doubt does not exist). The financial statement presentation is not affected (i.e., the measurement and classification of assets and liabilities) unless the financial statements are prepared under a basis other than the going concern basis. If the financial statements are prepared under another basis of accounting, such as the liquidation basis if liquidation is imminent, that fact and the reasons leading to that decision are required to be disclosed under US GAAP and IFRS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP and US GAAS</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➤ AU Section 341, The Auditor’s Consideration of an Entity’s Ability to Continue as a Going Concern, of the Codification of Auditing Standards and Procedures (prior to the adoption of PCAOB Release No. 2015-002)</td>
<td>➤ IAS 1, Presentation of Financial Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ AS 2415, Consideration of an Entity’s Ability to Continue as a Going Concern, of the Codification of Audit Procedures for Specific Aspects of the Audit (subsequent to the adoption of PCAOB Release No. 2015-002)</td>
<td>➤ IAS 10, Events after the Reporting Period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➤ ASC 205-40, Presentation of Financial Statements – Going Concern</td>
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<tr>
<td>➤ ASC 855, Subsequent Events</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Convergence:**

Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any specific plans to further converge IAS 1 and ASC 205-40.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

IFRS 1 includes an exemption to the retrospective application of IAS 10 such that it requires an entity to use the same estimates that it had made under the entity’s previous GAAP (after adjustments to reflect differences in accounting policies). It recognizes that an entity may have better information regarding various estimates at its first IFRS reporting date than when it originally made the estimates, but that a first-time adopter cannot apply hindsight and make “better” estimates when it prepares its
first IFRS financial statements. For example, an entity’s first reporting date under IFRS may be 31 December 2016, and those financial statements will include years ended 31 December 2014, 2015 and 2016. An entity cannot use information that became available in 2016 to adjust estimates made in the financial statements for the year ended 2014. A first-time adopter is not allowed to take into account any subsequent events that provide evidence of conditions that existed at a balance sheet date that came to light after the date its previous GAAP (e.g., US GAAP) financial statements were issued.

The IASB, in the Basis for Conclusions to IFRS 1, indicated that events occurring from the date the previous GAAPs financial statements were issued through the IFRS transition date, might provide additional information regarding estimates made in those previously issued financial statements. However, the IASB ultimately concluded that it would be more helpful to users and more consistent with IAS 8 to recognize the revision of those estimates as income or expense in the period when the first-time adopter made the revision, rather than in preparing the opening IFRS balance sheet. Effectively, the IASB wished to prevent first-time adopters from using hindsight to “clean up” their balance sheets by direct write-offs to equity as part of the opening IFRS balance sheet exercise.

### 1. Have events occurred after the balance sheet date but before the financial statements are issued?

Under US GAAP subsequent events are evaluated until the financial statements are issued or available to be issued whereas under IFRS subsequent events are evaluated until the financial statements are authorized for issue.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 855, 855-10-S99-2</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 10</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Events subsequent to the balance sheet date, but before the financial statements are issued, must be evaluated to determine whether the effect of such events should be reflected in the period end financial statements. Entit</td>
<td>Events subsequent to the balance sheet date, but before the financial statements are authorized for issue, must be evaluated to determine whether the effect of such events should be reflected in the period end financial statements. IAS 10 acknowledges that the process involved in authorizing the financial statements for issue will vary depending upon the management structure, statutory requirements and procedures followed in preparing and finalizing the financial statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entities that are SEC Filers, as defined (see Question 2 below) and conduit bond obligors are required to evaluate subsequent events through the date the financial statements are issued. All other entities are required to evaluate subsequent events through the date the financial statements are available to be issued. Financial statements are &quot;issued&quot; as of the date they are widely distributed to shareholders and other financial statement users for general use and reliance in a form and format that complies with US GAAP and, in the case of annual financial statements that contain an audit report, that report indicates that the auditors have complied with generally accepted auditing standards. Issuance of financial statements generally is the earlier of the date when the annual or quarterly financial statements are widely distributed to all shareholders and other financial statement users (which may include posting financial statements to an entity’s corporate website in some</td>
<td></td>
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</table>
Subsequent events and going concern

| circumstances) or the date the financial statements are originally filed with the SEC. Furthermore, the issuance of an earnings release does not constitute issuance of financial statements because the earnings release would not be in a form and format that complies with US GAAP and US GAAS. Financial statements are considered “available to be issued” when they are complete in a form and format that complies with US GAAP and all approvals necessary for issuance have been obtained; for example, approvals from management, the board of directors, or significant shareholders. |

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Financial statements could be considered authorized for issue under IFRS before such financial statements would be considered issued under US GAAP. Accordingly, an adjusting subsequent event may be recognized in financial statements prepared under US GAAP when the same subsequent event would not be recognized in financial statements prepared under IFRS. Entities that adopt IFRS will need to develop policies for determining when their financial statements are authorized for issue under IAS 10. If there is a difference between when the financial statements are authorized for issue under IAS 10 and issued under ASC 855, then an entity will need to monitor subsequent events during the period between those two dates to be able to adjust for any differences in recognition or disclosure under IFRS and US GAAP. However, we believe that the notion of “available to be issued” in ASC 855 generally is consistent with the manner in which most US entities would apply “authorized for issue” under IAS 10. As a result, the period for considering subsequent events likely will be the same under US GAAP and IFRS for entities that evaluate subsequent events through the date that the financial statements are available to be issued.</td>
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<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Describe:</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Is the entity an SEC Filer?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under IFRS, entities are required to disclose the date through which they evaluated subsequent events (i.e., the date that the financial statements were authorized for issue). Under US GAAP, entities that are SEC Filers are not required to disclose the date through which they evaluated subsequent events (see implications below)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 855-10-50-1</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 10.17</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entities that are not SEC Filers must disclose the date through which subsequent events have</td>
<td>IAS 10 requires entities to disclose the date when the financial statements were authorized</td>
</tr>
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</table>
been evaluated, as well as whether that date is the date the financial statements were issued or the date the financial statements were available to be issued.

An SEC Filer is an entity that is required to file or furnish its financial statements with the SEC (or another agency [e.g., a banking regulator] as required by Section 12(i) of the Exchange Act). The definition specifically excludes entities that are not otherwise SEC Filers whose financial statements are included in a submission by another SEC Filer (e.g., financial statements included under Rule 3-05 of SEC Regulation S-X or similar requirements). See implications below.

**Implications:**

The FASB believes that SEC requirements with respect to the content of filings and the obligations with respect to such filings (e.g., to disclose material events that occur through the filing date) provide sufficient transparency to users of financial statements with respect to the date through which subsequent events were evaluated. As a result, additional disclosure of the date through which subsequent events were reviewed is unnecessary for SEC Filers.

SEC Filers that apply IFRS will have to begin disclosing the date through which subsequent events were evaluated (i.e., the date that the financial statements were authorized for issue under IAS 10).

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

3. Has the entity reissued its financial statements (e.g., in reports filed with the SEC or other regulatory agencies)?

Under US GAAP, additional subsequent events generally are not recognized once the financial statements are originally issued or available to be issued. IFRS considers only one date through which subsequent events are evaluated, the date that the financial statements were authorized for issue, even if the financial statements are being reissued and were authorized for issue previously.

**US GAAP — 855-10-25-4, 855-10-50-4**

An entity may need to reissue financial statements, for example, in reports filed with the SEC or other regulatory agencies. After the original issuance of the financial statements, events or transactions may have occurred that require disclosure in the reissued financial statements to keep them from being misleading.

**IFRS — IAS 10**

IAS 10 does not specifically address the reissuance of financial statements and recognizes only one date through which subsequent events are evaluated (i.e., the date that the financial statements are authorized for issue, even if they are being reissued). As a result, only one date will be disclosed in IFRS.
An entity should not recognize events occurring between the time the financial statements were issued or available to be issued and the time the financial statements were reissued unless the adjustment is required by GAAP or regulatory requirements. Similarly, an entity should not recognize events or transactions occurring after the financial statements were issued or were available to be issued in financial statements that are later reissued in comparative form along with financial statements of subsequent periods unless the adjustment meets the criteria stated in this paragraph.

Examples of adjustments that would be required by GAAP or other regulatory requirements would be reporting stock splits, discontinued operations, or the effect of adopting a new accounting standard retrospectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, additional subsequent events are not recognized once the financial statements are originally issued or available to be issued. Since IFRS only considers one date through which subsequent events are evaluated, the date that the financial statements were authorized for issue, even if the financial statements are being reissued and were authorized for issue previously, an entity reporting under IFRS could have adjusting subsequent events in reissued financial statements. For example, assume that an entity originally authorized its 31 December 20X0 IFRS financial statements for issue on 28 February 20X1, and those financial statements included an estimate for a provision related to litigation of $10 million. On 1 April 20X1, the litigation is resolved for $50 million. Assume that for some reason the entity must reissue its financial statements on 31 May 20X1. When the IFRS financial statements are reissued, it must recognize the additional expense of $40 million in its 20X0 financial statements. By contrast, under US GAAP, the litigation settlement would be disclosed, but not recognized in the 20X0 financial statements.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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<td>Click here to enter text.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4. Are there circumstances that indicate substantial doubt as to an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern that are expected to arise beyond one year after the balance sheet date (prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-15) or the date the financial statements are issued, or available to be issued if applicable (subsequent to the adoption of ASU 2014-15)?

Circumstances that indicate substantial doubt as to an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern that arise beyond one year from the balance sheet date (prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-15) or the date the financial statements are issued or available to be issued if applicable (subsequent to the adoption of ASC 2014-15) may need to be disclosed under IFRS, whereas those circumstances would not be considered in the assessment of an entity's ability to continue as a going concern under US GAAP.

| US GAAS — AU Section 341.2 (prior to the adoption of PCAOB Release No. 2015-002) | IFRS — IAS 1.26 |
| US GAAS — AS 2415.02 (subsequent to the adoption of PCAOB Release No. 2015-002) | In assessing whether the going concern assumption is appropriate, management takes into account all available information about the future, which is at least, but is not limited to, 12 months from the balance sheet date. The degree of consideration depends on the facts in each case. |
| US GAAP — ASC 205-40-50-1 | |

AU Section 341.2, AS 2415.02 (prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-15): An evaluation should be made as to whether substantial doubt about the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern exists. This evaluation extends for a reasonable period of time, not to exceed one year beyond the date of the financial statements.

ASC 205-40-50-1 (subsequent to the adoption of ASU 2014-15): In connection with preparing financial statements for each annual and interim reporting period, an entity’s management shall evaluate whether there are conditions and events, considered in the aggregate, that raise substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern within one year after the date that the financial statements are issued (or within one year after the date that the financial statements are available to be issued when applicable).

Implications:

US standards include a “bright-line” cut-off of 12 months from the balance sheet date (AU Section 341.2, AS 2415.02) or the date the financial statements are issued or available to be issued if applicable (ASC 205-40-50-1) for evaluating an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern, whereas IFRS does not explicitly limit the time horizon for evaluation. As a result, under IFRS, entities are required to consider information for periods at least, but not limited to 12 months from the end of the reporting period, when there is material evidence related to the going concern assumption in those periods. Additional disclosures regarding the going concern assessment may be required under IFRS as a result of this difference.
Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

5. Is substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern alleviated as a result of consideration of management’s plans? (subsequent to the adoption of ASU 2014-15)

Under US GAAP, certain disclosures are required when management initially identifies conditions or events that raise substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern within one year after the financial statements are issued (or available to be issued, if applicable) but concludes that its plans alleviate substantial doubt. There is no disclosure requirement under IFRS for similar circumstances.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — ASC 205-40-50-12</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| If, after considering management’s plans, substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern is alleviated as a result of consideration of management’s plans, an entity shall disclose in the footnotes information that enables users of the financial statements to understand all of the following (or refer to similar information disclosed elsewhere in the footnotes):
  - Principal conditions or events that raised substantial doubt about the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern (before consideration of management’s plans)
  - Management’s evaluation of the significance of those conditions or events in relation to the entity’s ability to meet its obligations
  - Management’s plans that alleviated substantial doubt about the entity’s ability to continue as a going concern | No required disclosure under IAS 1. |

Implications:

Certain disclosures are required under US GAAP when relevant conditions and events initially indicate that there is substantial doubt about an entity’s ability to continue as a going concern within one year after the financial statements are issued (or available to be issued, if applicable), but management concludes that its plans alleviate substantial doubt. There is no disclosure requirement under IFRS for similar circumstances. As a result, there may be disclosure differences between US GAAP and IFRS entities where there are going concern considerations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified difference?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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</table>
Statement of cash flows

Similarities:
Both US GAAP and IFRS require a statement of cash flows to provide information about the changes in cash and cash equivalents of an entity by means of classifying the cash flows during the period into operating, investing and financing activities. Both sets of standards define cash equivalents as short term, highly liquid investments that are readily convertible to known amounts of cash and are so near their maturity that they are subject to insignificant risk of changes in value. Generally, these instruments have original maturities of three months or less. Although gross presentation of cash flows is generally required by US GAAP and IFRS, net presentation is permitted if the cash flows are on behalf of customers or the turnover is quick, amounts are large and maturities are short. Entities with foreign currency transactions or operations present the reporting currency equivalent of foreign currency cash flows using the exchange rates in effect at the time of the cash flows. Both standards allow an appropriately weighted average exchange rate for the period to be used for the translation if it approximates the actual rate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Convergence:
Neither the IASB nor the FASB have any current convergence plans in this area.

The FASB issued ASU 2016-09, Improvements to Employee Share-Based Payment Accounting. The amendments require an employer to classify the cash paid to the taxing authorities when it repurchases shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation as a financing activity on its statement of cash flows. The amendments also require an entity to present excess tax benefits as an operating activity on its statement of cash flows rather than as a financing activity. For public business entities (PBEs), ASU 2016-09 is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those years. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted, but all of the guidance must be adopted in the same period.

In August 2016, the FASB issued ASU 2016-15, Classification of Certain Cash Receipts and Cash Payments. ASU 2016-15 addresses the classification of cash flows related to the following:

➤ Debt prepayment or extinguishment costs
➤ Settlement of zero-coupon debt instruments or other debt instruments with insignificant coupon rates
➤ Contingent consideration payments made after a business combination
➤ Proceeds from the settlement of insurance claims
➤ Proceeds from the settlement of company-owned life insurance
➤ Distributions received from equity method investees
➤ Beneficial interests in securitization transactions

ASU 2016-15 also addresses the classification of cash receipts and payments that have aspects of more than one class of cash flows.

ASU 2016-15 will be effective for PBEs for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within those years. For all other entities, the amendments will be effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018 and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2019. Early adoption is permitted.
In April 2016, the FASB also proposed requiring restricted cash to be included with cash and cash equivalents in the statement of cash flows. As a result, entities would no longer have to determine how to classify transfers to or from restricted cash within the statement of cash flows. An entity would be required to reconcile the total of cash, cash equivalents and restricted cash on the statement of cash flows to amounts in the balance sheet and disclose the nature of restricted cash balances. Developments on this proposal should be monitored.

**Discussion of IFRS 1:**

Under IFRS 1, the statement of cash flows should be presented in accordance with IAS 7 for all periods.

1. **Is the entity a defined benefit plan or other employee benefit plan or investment company?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-15-4</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A statement of cash flows is not required for defined benefit pension plans that present financial information in accordance with the provisions of Topic 960 and certain other employee benefit plans that present information similar to that required by Topic 960 and for certain investment companies.</td>
<td>This standard requires all entities to present a cash flow statement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP certain entities are not required to present a statement of cash flows. These include defined benefit pension plans that present financial information in accordance with the provisions of ASC 960 and other employee benefit plans that present financial information similar to that required by ASC 960. Also, certain investment companies that meet the criteria in ASC 230-10-15-4 are not required to provide a statement of cash flows. Under IFRS however, all entities are required to present a cash flow statement. Therefore, some entities that are not required to provide a statement of cash flows under US GAAP would be required to do so under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

Entities affected by this difference should plan to collect relevant information to prepare a cash flow statement on a timely basis to be able to prepare required statements upon adoption of IFRS.
Does the entity use the indirect method to report cash flows from operating activities?

The direct method requires that an entity report major classes of gross cash receipts and gross cash payments and their arithmetic sum – the net cash flow from operating activities.

Using the indirect method, an entity should determine and report the same amount for net cash flow from operating activities indirectly by reconciling net income to net cash flows from operating activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-25, 230-10-45-28 through 45-32</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.18 through 20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash flows from operating activities may be reported using either the direct or indirect method. The indirect method requires adjusting net income to remove the effects of (1) all deferrals of past operating cash receipts and payments (2) all accruals of expected future operating cash receipts and payments and (3) all items included in net income that do not affect net cash flows from operating activities (e.g., depreciation and amortization).</td>
<td>Cash flows from operating activities may be reported using either the direct or indirect method. Under the indirect method, profit or loss is adjusted for the effects of changes during the period in inventories and operating receivables and payables, non-cash items, and all other items for which the cash effects are investing or financing cash flows. Alternatively, the net cash flow from operating activities may be presented under the indirect method by showing the revenues and expenses disclosed in the statement of comprehensive income and the changes during the period in inventories and operating receivables and payables.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

US GAAP does not provide alternatives for the indirect method while IFRS allows for two approaches when using the indirect method, as noted above. The presentation requirements of the more common alternative under IFRS are the same as US GAAP. The alternative presentation under IFRS is rarely used.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
3. **Does the reporting entity have bank overdrafts that are repayable on demand?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-20</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The US GAAP definition of “cash equivalents” does not specifically address bank overdrafts. However, AICPA Technical Practice Aids, TIS Section 1300.15, <em>Presentation of Cash Overdraft on Statement of Cash Flows</em>, clarifies that the overdraft is classified on the statement of financial position as a liability, and notes that the net change in overdrafts during the period is a financing activity.</td>
<td>IFRS notes that bank borrowings are generally considered to be financing activities. However, at times bank overdrafts that are repayable on demand form an integral part of an entity’s cash management. In these circumstances, bank overdrafts are included as a component of cash and cash equivalents.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Under US GAAP, advances from banks are not included in the definition of “cash equivalents” while certain bank overdrafts are included in the definition under IFRS. Note that under IFRS, the bank overdraft may be included in “cash and cash equivalents” in the cash flow statement even if the bank overdraft is not included in the “cash and cash equivalents” line item in the statement of financial position.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.

4. **Has the reporting entity paid or received interest or received any dividends during the period?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-12 through 45-13 and 45-16</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.31 through 34</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash receipts from returns on loans, other debt instruments of other entities, and equity securities (interest and dividends) are classified as operating, as are cash payments to lenders and other creditors for interest. Cash receipts from returns of investment in equity instruments of other enterprises are classified as investing. Payments to acquire property, plant and equipment and other productive assets, including interest capitalized as part of the cost of those assets, are classified as investing.</td>
<td>Cash flows from interest and dividends received and paid should be classified in a consistent manner from period to period as either operating, investing or financing. Interest paid and interest and dividends received are usually classified as operating cash flows for a financial institution. However, there is no consensus on the classification of these cash flows for other entities. They may be classified as operating cash flows or, alternatively, the interest paid may be classified as financing and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
interest and dividends received may be classified as investing cash flows.

**Implications:**

*Interest paid or received*

Under US GAAP, interest paid or received is generally reported as an operating activity, with the exception of interest capitalized as part of the cost of the acquisition of productive assets, which is classified as investing. IFRS allows more latitude as long as the cash flows are classified in a consistent manner. Under IFRS, interest paid is generally classified as operating or financing, and interest received is generally classified as operating or investing cash flows. However, under IFRS it would seem appropriate to include cash flows relating to capitalized interest under investing activities as well.

*Dividends received*

Dividends received are classified as either operating or investing under IFRS. Under US GAAP, dividends received are generally classified as operating. However, under US GAAP, an entity with equity method investments must determine whether the dividends, or distributions, are a return of (classified as investing) or a return on (classified as operating) the investment. We believe that both the “cumulative earnings” and “look through” approaches are acceptable in making this determination.

Under the “cumulative earnings” approach, by analogy to ASC 325-20-35-1, all distributions received are deemed returns on the investment (and therefore classified as operating) unless the cumulative distributions exceed the cumulative equity in earnings recognized by the investor. The excess distributions are deemed to be returns of the investment (and are classified as investing). Under the "look through" approach provided in AICPA Technical Practice Aids, TIS Section 1300.18, *Presentation on the Statement of Cash Flows of Distributions From Investees With Operating Losses*, a presumption exists that the distributions are reported under the cumulative earnings approach (and therefore generally classified as operating) unless the facts and circumstances of a specific distribution clearly indicate the presumption has been overcome (e.g., a liquidating dividend or distribution of the proceeds from the investee’s sale of assets), in which case the specific distribution would be classified as a return of the investment.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.

5. Did the entity pay any dividends or repurchase shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-15</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.34</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payments of dividends or other distributions to owners are classified as cash outflows for financing activities.</td>
<td>Dividends paid may be classified as a financing cash flow because they are a cost of obtaining financial resources. Alternatively, dividends paid may be classified as a component of cash flows from operating activities in order to assist users</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
when it repurchases shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation. Following the adoption of ASU 2016-09: Cash paid by an employer to repurchase shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation will be classified as a financing activity.

(For PBEs, the guidance is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2016, and interim periods within those years. For all other entities, it is effective for fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2017, and interim periods within fiscal years beginning after 15 December 2018. Early adoption is permitted, but all of the guidance must be adopted in the same period.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implications:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under US GAAP, dividends paid are always classified as financing activities. This includes dividends paid to a subsidiary’s noncontrolling interest holders. However, IFRS permits dividends to be classified either as financing or operating cash flows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following the adoption of ASU 2016-09, an entity will be required to classify cash paid by an employer to the taxing authorities when it repurchases shares from employees to satisfy its statutory income tax withholding obligation. IAS 7 does not specifically address the classification of these cash flows. As a result, there may be a difference in how these cash flows are classified under US GAAP and under IFRS.</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<th>Identified difference?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes ☐ No ☐ Depends on policy election ☐</td>
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<td><strong>Describe:</strong></td>
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</table>

6. Has the reporting entity paid any income taxes?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 235-10-45-17</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7.13 through 15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taxes, duties and fines paid to governments are classified as operating cash flows.</td>
<td>Income taxes are classified as operating cash flows unless they can be specifically identified with investing or financing activities. When it is practicable to identify the tax cash flow with an individual transaction that gives rise to cash flows that are classified as investing or financing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
activities the tax cash flow is classified as an investing or financing activity as appropriate.

**Implications:**

US GAAP requires income taxes to be classified as operating cash flows.

Under IFRS, cash flows from taxes on income should be classified within operating cash flows unless they can be specifically identified with investing or financing activities. While it is possible to match elements of tax expense to transactions for which the cash flows are classified under investing or financing activities, taxes paid are usually classified as cash flows from operating activities because it is often impracticable to match tax cash flows with specific elements of tax expense and those tax cash flows may arise in a different period to the underlying transaction. However, when it is practicable to make this determination, the tax cash flow is classified as an investing or financing activity in accordance with the individual transaction that gives rise to such cash flows.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

**7. Did the entity retain cash as a result of the tax deductibility of increases in the value of equity instruments issued under share-based payment arrangements that are not included in amounts that are recognizable for financial reporting purposes?**

ASC 718 requires that the income tax effects of share-based payments be recognized for financial reporting purposes only if such awards would result in deductions on the company’s income tax return. Generally, under US GAAP, the amount of income tax benefit recognized in any period is equal to the amount of compensation cost recognized multiplied by the employer’s statutory tax rate. Prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09, if the tax deduction reflected on the company’s income tax return for an award (generally at option exercise or share vesting) exceeds the cumulative amount of compensation cost recognized in the financial statements for that award, the excess tax benefit (also referred to as the “windfall benefit”) is recognized as an increase to additional paid-in capital. Following the adoption of ASU 2016-09, entities will be required to reflect the income tax effects of awards in the income statement when the awards vest or are settled (i.e., APIC pools will be eliminated). See Question 9 in the “Share-based payments” section for additional information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-14</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09, cash retained as a result of excess tax benefits relating to share-based payments (that are not included in cost of goods or services that is recognizable for financial reporting purposes) must be presented in the statement of cash flows as a financing cash inflow. The calculation of excess tax benefits that must be presented as a financing cash flow must be performed on an individual award (e.g., share-by-share or option-</td>
<td>IFRS does not address the classification of cash retained as a result of excess tax benefits relating to share-based payments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
by-option) basis. That is, the amount presented in the statement of cash flows as a financing activity is based on a gross calculation without offset from any deferred tax asset write-offs to additional paid-in capital.

Following the adoption of ASU 2016-09, entities will no longer be required to present the cash retained as a result of excess tax benefits as financing cash inflows. Because the excess tax benefits will be recognized in income under the ASU, they will be included in operating cash flows (i.e., there will not be a reconciling item when applying the indirect method related to the excess tax benefits included in net income).

**Implications:**
Because IFRS does not specifically address the classification of excess tax benefits, a potential difference may arise if, prior to the adoption of ASU 2016-09, the IFRS financial statements classify such benefits outside of financing cash flows. See Question 6 above for discussion of the classification of income tax cash flows in general under IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

---

8. **Did the entity enter into any hedges?**

**US GAAP — 230-10-45-27**

Generally, each cash receipt or payment is to be classified according to its nature without regard to whether it stems from an item intended as a hedge of another item. However, cash flows from a derivative instrument that is accounted for as a fair value hedge or cash flow hedge may be classified in the same category as the cash flows from the items being hedged provided that the derivative instrument does not include an other-than-insignificant financing element at inception, other than a financing element inherently included in an at-the-market derivative instrument with no prepayments (i.e., the forward points in an at-the-money forward contract) and that the accounting policy is disclosed.

**IFRS — IAS 7.15, 16**

IFRS requires cash receipts or payments for futures contracts, forward contracts, option contracts and swap contracts to be classified as investing activities except when the contracts are held for dealing or trading purposes, in which case they are classified as operating activities. However, when a contract is accounted for as a hedge of an identifiable position, the cash flows of the contract are classified in the same manner as the cash flows of the position being hedged.
If the derivative instrument includes an other-than-insignificant financing element at inception, all cash inflows and outflows of the derivative instrument should be considered cash flows from financing activities by the borrower.

If for any reason hedge accounting for an instrument that hedges an identifiable transaction or event is discontinued, then any cash flows subsequent to the date of discontinuance should be classified consistent with the nature of the instrument.

Implications:
When a derivative is accounted for as a hedge, US GAAP permits classification of cash flows from the derivative in the same category as the cash flows from the item being hedged, provided that certain criteria are met. By contrast, IFRS requires that the derivative’s cash flows be classified in the same manner as the cash flows of the position being hedged. Therefore, differences could result in the classification of cash flows from derivatives accounted for as a hedge if an entity chooses under US GAAP not to classify the derivative’s cash flows in the same manner as the hedged item’s cash flows.

If the derivative includes an other-than-insignificant financing element at inception, US GAAP requires classification of cash flows from the derivative as a financing activity. Because IFRS does not specifically address classification of cash flows for derivatives that include an other-than-insignificant financing element at inception, a potential difference may arise.

When the hedge accounting for an instrument that hedges an identifiable transaction or event is discontinued (for any reason), US GAAP requires any subsequent cash flows to be classified consistent with the nature of the instrument. IFRS generally requires classification of cash flows from derivatives as investing activities unless they are held for dealing or trading in which case the related cash flows would be classified as an operating activity. This could lead to additional differences in accounting for cash flows from derivative instruments.

Identified difference?
Describe:
Click here to enter text.

9. Does the entity have discontinued operations?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-24</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 5.33</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US GAAP requires disclosure of either (1) the total cash flows attributable to operating and investing of the discontinued operation or (2) the depreciation, amortization, capital expenditures, and significant operating and investing noncash items of the discontinued operation. These disclosures may be presented either in</td>
<td>IFRS requires disclosure of the net cash flows attributable to the operating, investing and financing activities of discontinued operations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
disclosures may be presented either in the notes or on the face of the financial statements.

An entity that chooses to report cash flows of discontinued operations on the face of the cash flow statement must do so consistently for all periods affected.

As expressed at the 2005 AICPA National Conference on Current PCAOB and SEC Developments, the SEC staff believes that acceptable presentations include:

- Combine cash flows from discontinued operations with cash flows from continuing operations within each cash flow statement category
- Identify cash flows from discontinued operations separately within each statement of cash flows category
- Identify net cash flows from discontinued operations separately, by category and in total in the statement of cash flows

Implications:

Because IFRS requires disclosure of the net cash flows related to operating, investing and financing activities of discontinued operations, and US GAAP does not require presentation of all categories, differences in presentation may arise.

Identified difference?

Describe: Click here to enter text.

IfRS 1 implications:

Entities should plan to collect relevant information to meet the IFRS disclosure requirement in order to avoid recalculating these amounts at a later date when the information may not be as readily available.

10. Does the entity calculate a cash flow per share amount but not present it in its financial statements solely because cash flow per share is prohibited under US GAAP?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 230-10-45-3</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial statements shall not report an amount of cash flow per share.</td>
<td>No restriction on reporting cash flow per share.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Implications:

US GAAP prohibits an entity from reporting a cash flow per share amount in the financial statements, while IFRS does not explicitly disallow such presentation.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**

Click here to enter text.
Borrowing costs

Similarities:
The guidance for capitalizing interest under ASC 835-20 or borrowing costs under IAS 23 is largely converged. Both standards require financing costs related to borrowings that are incurred during the acquisition, construction or production of certain qualifying assets to be capitalized as costs of acquiring such assets. Generally, the types of costs to be capitalized and the qualifying assets that require capitalization of such costs are similar under both accounting models. In addition, both US GAAP and IFRS expressly prohibit the capitalization of interest or borrowing costs related to inventories that are manufactured or otherwise produced in large quantities on a repetitive basis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary US GAAP</th>
<th>Primary IFRS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 835-20, Capitalization of Interest</td>
<td>► IAS 23, Borrowing Costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► ASC 815, Derivatives and Hedging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergence:
The guidance in this area is largely converged. There are no current plans to converge any remaining differences.

Discussion of IFRS 1:
On first-time adoption of IFRS, an entity should capitalize borrowing costs under IAS 23. IFRS 1 allows a first-time adopter to elect to apply the requirements of IAS 23 from the date of transition or from an earlier date as permitted by paragraph 28 of IAS 23. From the date on which an entity that applies this exemption begins to apply IAS 23, the entity:

► should not restate the borrowing cost component that was capitalized under previous GAAP and that was included in the carrying amount of assets at that date; and
► should account for borrowing costs incurred on or after that date in accordance with IAS 23, including those borrowing costs incurred on or after that date on qualifying assets already under construction.

If a first-time adopter established a deemed cost for an asset then it cannot capitalize borrowing costs incurred before the measurement date of the deemed cost. See “IFRS Implications” in Question 1 of the “Property, plant and equipment” section for additional information on the deemed cost election.

1. Does the reporting entity acquire, construct or produce assets that take a substantial period of time to get ready for their intended use?  

An asset that requires a period of time to get it ready for its intended use or sale may require interest or borrowing costs incurred during the acquisition period to be capitalized as a part of the historical cost of the asset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 835-20-15-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 23.4 through 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualifying assets include:</td>
<td>Defines a qualifying asset as an asset that necessarily takes a substantial period of time to get ready for its intended use or sale.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>► Assets that are constructed or otherwise produced for an entity's own use including assets constructed or produced for the entity by others for which deposits or progress payments have been made</td>
<td>An entity is not required to apply the guidance to borrowing costs directly attributable to the acquisition, construction or production of a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Borrowing costs

► Assets intended for sale or lease that are constructed or otherwise produced as discrete projects (e.g., ships or real estate developments).

qualifying asset measured at fair value (e.g., a biological asset within the scope of IAS 41).

Implications:

Under US GAAP, there is not a specific requirement that the period of time to construct or produce the assets be substantial. As a result, certain assets (i.e., assets for which the period of time required to produce or construct is not substantial) that are qualifying assets under US GAAP may not be considered qualifying assets under IFRS.

Certain other assets (i.e., assets to be sold or leased that are not produced in discrete projects) that are not qualifying assets under US GAAP may be considered qualifying assets under IFRS. Note that under both ASC 835-20 and IAS 23 inventories that are routinely manufactured or otherwise produced in large quantities on a repetitive basis are not considered qualifying assets.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

2. Does the reporting entity capitalize interest related to any equity method investments?

An entity may have an investment, such as an equity interest, loan or advance, accounted for under the equity method while the investee has activities in progress necessary to commence its planned principal operations.


An investment accounted for under the equity method meets the qualifying assets criteria while the investee has activities in progress necessary to commence its planned principal operations provided that the investee’s activities include the use of funds to acquire qualifying assets for its operations. The investor’s investment in the investee, not the individual assets or projects of the investee, is the qualifying asset for purposes of interest capitalization.

IFRS — IAS 23.7

Depending on the circumstances, any of the following may be qualifying assets:

► inventories
► manufacturing plants
► power generation facilities
► intangible assets
► investment properties
► bearer plants

Financial assets, and inventories that are manufactured, or otherwise produced, over a short period of time, are not qualifying assets. Assets that are ready for their intended use or sale when acquired are not qualifying assets.
Implications:

Capitalization of interest on equity method investments, which is required under US GAAP in certain circumstances, is not allowable under IFRS. Paragraph 22 in the Basis for Conclusions of IAS 23 specifically notes this as a difference between US GAAP and IFRS.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

3. Has the reporting entity incurred interest or borrowing costs that are directly attributable to the acquisition, construction, or production of a qualifying asset?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 835-20-10-2 and 835-20-20 (Glossary definition of interest cost)</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 23.5 through 6 and IAS23.8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Capitalization of interest costs is required while a qualifying asset is being prepared for its intended use. Only interest costs (including interest recognized on obligations having explicit interest rates, interest on certain types of payables and interest related to capital leases) are eligible for capitalization. Interest cost includes amounts resulting from periodic amortization of discounts or premiums and issue costs on debt. Foreign exchange gains or losses are not included in capitalized interest.</td>
<td>Capitalization of borrowing costs is required while a qualifying asset is being acquired, constructed or produced. Borrowing costs include interest and other costs that an entity incurs in connection with the borrowing of funds. Borrowing costs include interest expense calculated using the effective interest method and finance charges related to finance leases (referred to as capital leases under US GAAP). Borrowing costs also include exchange differences arising from foreign currency borrowings to the extent that they are regarded as an adjustment to interest costs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Borrowing costs (IFRS) reflect a broader definition than interest costs. Paragraph 20 in the Basis for Conclusions of IAS 23 specifically notes this as a difference between US GAAP and IFRS. Due to the broader definition of borrowing costs versus interest costs, certain costs may be eligible for capitalization under IFRS that are not eligible for capitalization under US GAAP.

There will likely be differences in the measurement of costs to be capitalized when an entity borrows funds in a currency other than the currency in which the funds are expended for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset. For example, an entity may borrow funds denominated in US dollars and expend funds denominated in Mexican pesos. This may have been done on the basis that, over the period of the construction or production of the qualifying asset, the cost, after allowing for exchange differences, was expected to be less than the interest cost of an equivalent loan denominated in Mexican pesos.
4. Did the reporting entity borrow funds specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset?

An entity may finance the acquisition of a qualifying asset through the use of funds borrowed for the specific purpose of acquiring, constructing or producing the asset. An entity may obtain borrowed funds, thereby incurring interest or borrowing costs, before some or all of the funds are needed and may temporarily invest these amounts prior to expending the funds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 835-20-30-3 through 30-4 and 835-20-30-10</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 23.12 through 13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provides that capitalized interest should be determined by applying the capitalization rate (i.e., interest rate) to the average amount of accumulated expenditures for the asset during the period. The capitalization rate should reflect a reasonable measure of the cost of financing the acquisition of the asset in terms of the interest cost incurred that otherwise would have been avoided. An entity that borrows funds specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset may use either the interest rate on those funds (with certain defined limitations) or an overall borrowing rate as the capitalization rate. Any income earned on the temporary investment of borrowed funds is generally not considered in the determination of capitalized interest.</td>
<td>Requires an entity to capitalize actual borrowing costs incurred related to funds that are borrowed specifically to obtain a qualifying asset less any investment income on the temporary investment of those borrowings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implications:

Differences may result in the measurement of costs to be capitalized when an entity borrows funds specifically for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset. Under US GAAP, an entity applies a capitalization rate (which may not necessarily be equivalent to the interest rate on the specific borrowings) to average accumulated expenditures during the period to determine the amount of interest to capitalize. Under IFRS, an entity capitalizes the actual borrowing costs incurred on the specific borrowing (regardless of expenditures during the period) reduced by any income earned on the temporary investment of borrowings obtained in advance of expenditure. As a result, the different methods used will likely result in different capitalization amounts. The significance of such differences will vary based on facts and circumstances.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.
5. Did the reporting entity borrow funds generally and use them to obtain qualifying assets?

In some circumstances, such as when the financing activity of the entity are coordinated, an entity may borrow funds generally (as opposed to specific borrowings) and use those funds in the acquisition, construction or production of qualifying assets.

**US GAAP — 835-20-30-3 through 30-4**

The capitalization rates used in an accounting period shall be based on the rates applicable to borrowings outstanding during the period. Requires an entity to use judgment in determining the capitalization rate to apply to the expenditures on the asset. An entity selects the borrowings that it considers appropriate to meet the objective of capitalizing the interest costs incurred that otherwise could have been avoided.

**IFRS — IAS 23.14 through 15**

Generally requires an entity to use all outstanding borrowings in determining the capitalization rate. However, in some circumstances it may be appropriate to calculate a separate capitalization rate for each subsidiary based on its outstanding borrowings. Additionally, to the extent an entity has made certain borrowings specifically for the purpose of obtaining a different qualifying asset, those specific borrowings are not included in the determination of the capitalization rate for assets obtained using generally borrowed funds.

**Implications:**

Because US GAAP allows for the use of judgment in determining the capitalization rate whereas IFRS is more prescriptive, differences may result in the measurement of costs to be capitalized when an entity borrows funds generally and uses them for the purpose of obtaining a qualifying asset.

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

6. Has the reporting entity incurred any derivative gains and losses as part of the capitalized interest cost?

Derivative financial instruments such as interest rate swaps, floors, caps and collars are commonly used to manage interest rate risk on borrowings. These derivative financial instruments may be designated as hedging instruments in fair value or cash flow hedges.

**US GAAP — 815-25-35-14**

Amounts recorded in interest cost arising from the effective portion of a derivative instrument that qualifies as a fair value hedge are reflected in the capitalization rate.

**IFRS — IAS 23**

Does not address such derivative gains and losses.
**Implications:**

Differences may result in the measurement of costs to be capitalized when an entity uses derivative financial instruments to manage interest rate risk on borrowings because IFRS does not have specific guidance. In practice, the lack of guidance under IFRS has led to diversity in how derivative gains and losses are treated. As a result, an entity will be required to develop a policy (which may differ from the entity’s historical practice under US GAAP) on how it will account for derivative gains and losses when capitalizing interest costs on adoption of IFRS.

**Identified difference?**

Describe:

Click here to enter text.
Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations

Similarities:

Held for sale criteria
The criteria for classifying a long-lived asset or disposal group (herein referred to as a disposal group) as held for sale are similar. A disposal group is a group of assets to be disposed of together in a single transaction and the liabilities directly associated with those assets that will be transferred in the transaction. A disposal group is classified as held for sale if its carrying amount will be recovered principally through a sale transaction rather than through continuing use and the disposal group meets the held-for-sale criteria. For this to be the case, the disposal group must be available for immediate sale in its present condition subject only to terms that are usual and customary for sales of such assets, and its sale must be probable (US GAAP) or highly probable (IFRS). In addition, the appropriate level of management must be committed to a plan to sell and an active program to locate a buyer and complete the plan must have been initiated. Further, the disposal group must be actively marketed for sale at a price that is reasonable in relation to its current fair value, the sale should be expected to be completed within one year from the date the disposal group was classified as held for sale with limited exceptions, and the plan should indicate that it is unlikely that significant changes to the plan will be made or that the plan will be withdrawn. Although the “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10 use the term probable and IFRS 5 highly probable, the Basis for Conclusions in IFRS 5 states that the criteria for classification as held for sale is fully converged with the “Impairment or Disposal of Long-Lived Assets” Subsections of ASC 360-10. Further, the IASB notes that it “regards ‘highly probable’ as implying a significantly higher probability than ‘more likely than not’ (the definition of probable in IFRS) and as implying the same probability as the FASB’s phrase ‘likely to occur’.”

Non-current assets that are to be abandoned should continue to be classified as held and used and evaluated for impairment until the asset has ceased to be used.

Measurement of a disposal group
A disposal group that has been classified as held for sale should be carried at the lower of its carrying amount or fair value less costs to sell. If a newly acquired disposal group meets the criteria to be classified as held for sale at the acquisition date, it should be carried at fair value less costs to sell and not at fair value like the other assets and liabilities acquired. Assets in a disposal group are not depreciated while classified as held for sale.

Changes to a plan of sale
If circumstances arise that management previously considered unlikely and, as a result, a disposal group ceases to meet the criteria to be classified as held for sale, the disposal group should be reclassified as held and used in the period in which the held-for-sale criteria are no longer met.

A disposal group reclassified to held and used should be carried at the lower of:

► its carrying amount before the disposal group was classified as held for sale, adjusted for any depreciation, amortization or impairment losses (considering revaluations for IFRS) that would have been recognized had the disposal group not been classified as held for sale, or
► its fair value under US GAAP or its recoverable amount under IFRS.

Discontinued operations criteria
In 2014, the FASB issued ASU 2014-08, Reporting Discontinued Operations and Disclosures of Disposals of Components of an Entity, which more closely aligns the reporting of discontinued operations under US GAAP with IFRS. Although the criteria for what constitutes a discontinued operation under US GAAP (after the adoption of ASU 2014-08) is similar to IFRS, there are some differences that are described in detail below.
Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations

ASU 2014-08 is effective for annual periods beginning on or after 15 December 2014. The discussion on discontinued operation requirements discussed below reflect the US GAAP presentation requirements following the adoption of ASU 2014-08.

Presentation of discontinued operations

Both IFRS and US GAAP require separate presentation of discontinued operations on the face of the income statement. At a minimum, a single amount reflecting the results of operations, including any gain or loss on disposal, less applicable income taxes is required to be presented on the face of the income statement under both IFRS and US GAAP.

Primary US GAAP

- ASC 360, Property, Plant, and Equipment
- ASC 205-20, Presentation of Financial Statements — Discontinued Operations

Primary IFRS

- IFRS 5, Non-current Assets Held for Sale and Discontinued Operations

Discussion of IFRS 1:

IFRS 1 requires that entities apply IFRS 5 retrospectively.

1. Does the entity have long-lived assets or asset groups that have been or will be disposed of?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

US GAAP — 205-20-15-1 through 15-3

With the exception of oil and gas properties accounted for using the full cost method of accounting, all assets and liabilities may be presented as discontinued operations provided they meet the criteria for being presented as discontinued operations.

IFRS — IFRS 5.2 through 5

Provided that they meet the other criteria for being presented as discontinued operations, all noncurrent assets may be presented as discontinued operations.

Implications:

The scope of discontinued operations guidance under US GAAP and IFRS is slightly different. As a result, it is possible certain disposals may not result in similar presentation under US GAAP and IFRS.

Identified difference?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description:</th>
<th>Click here to enter text.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

IFRS 1 implications:

As part of its transition to IFRS, an entity will have to review components classified as held for sale or disposed of during the periods to be reported in order to determine whether they should be presented as discontinued operations under IFRS and make corresponding adjustments in its IFRS financial statements. For example, components that are presented as discontinued operations in the comparative financial statement periods under US GAAP prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-08 may not meet the discontinued operations criteria under IFRS.
2. Does the entity have a component that either has been disposed of or is classified as held for sale?

US GAAP — 205-20-45-1A through 45-1D, Master Glossary

Under US GAAP, a discontinued operation is (1) a component of an entity that has been disposed of (by sale or other than by sale) or is classified as held for sale and represents a strategic shift that has (or will have) a major effect on an entity's operations and financial results or (2) a newly acquired business or nonprofit activity that upon acquisition is classified as held for sale.

A strategic shift could include the disposal of (1) a major line of business, (2) a major geographical area, (3) a major equity method investment or (4) other major parts of an entity.

A component of an entity is defined as comprising operations and the cash flows that can be clearly distinguished, operationally and for financial reporting purposes, from the rest of the entity. A component of an entity may be a reportable segment or an operating segment, a reporting unit, a subsidiary or an asset group.

IFRS — IFRS 5.31 through 32

IFRS 5 defines a discontinued operation as a component of an entity that either has been disposed of or is classified as held for sale and (1) represents a separate line of business or geographical area of operations, (2) is part of a single coordinated plan to dispose of a separate major line of business or geographical area of operations, or (3) is a subsidiary acquired exclusively with a view to resale.

A component of an entity comprises operations and cash flows that can be clearly distinguished, operationally and for financial reporting purposes, from the rest of the entity. In other words, a component of an entity will have been a cash-generating unit or a group of cash-generating units while being held for use.

Implications:

Because the principles in ASC 205-20 and IFRS 5 are similar, we expect there will often be similar conclusions regarding whether a disposal group meets the criteria to be presented as a discontinued operation.

Identified difference?

Describe:
Click here to enter text.

IFRS 1 implications:

As part of its transition to IFRS, an entity will have to review components classified as held for sale or disposed of during the periods to be reported in order to determine whether they should be presented as discontinued operations under IFRS and make corresponding adjustments in its IFRS financial statements. For example, components that are presented as discontinued operations in the comparative financial statement periods under US GAAP prior to the adoption of ASU 2014-08 may not meet the discontinued operations criteria under IFRS.
### Question 3: Does an accumulated foreign currency translation adjustment exist that is associated with an asset or disposal group classified as held for sale?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 830-30-45-13 through 45-15</th>
<th>IFRS — IAS 21.48, IFRS 5.BC37 through BC38</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The guidance in ASC 830-30, <em>Foreign Currency Matters — Translation of Financial Statements</em>, requires that the accumulated foreign currency translation adjustments previously recognized in other comprehensive income that are expected to be “recycled” (reclassified) in income at the time of sale are included in the carrying amount of the long-lived asset being tested for impairment. As such, the accumulated foreign currency adjustment will affect the amount of the impairment loss.</td>
<td>When an asset or a disposal group held for sale is part of a foreign operation with a functional currency that is different from the presentation currency of the group, an exchange difference is recognized in equity as a result of translating the asset or disposal group into the presentation currency of the group. IAS 21, <em>The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates</em>, requires the exchange difference to be excluded from the carrying amount of the long-lived asset being tested for impairment, but to be “recycled” (reclassified) from equity to profit or loss once the asset is disposed. Accordingly, under IFRS exchange differences relating to an asset or disposal group classified as held for sale are not included as part of the carrying value of the assets and will not affect the impairment loss. The accumulated foreign currency adjustment is reflected in income when the long-lived asset is sold and not when the impairment loss is recorded.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Implications:

The amount of the impairment loss, as well as timing of the impairment loss, from the accumulated translation adjustment relating to a long-lived asset to be disposed of will differ between US GAAP and IFRS. Under US GAAP any accumulated foreign currency adjustment is reflected in the carrying value of the long-lived assets held for sale and will affect the amount of the impairment loss. Under IFRS any accumulated foreign currency adjustment is not included as part of the carrying value of the asset when assessing impairment but reflected in income upon sale of the long-lived assets.

### Identified difference?

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.

**IFRS 1 implications:**

As of an entity’s opening IFRS balance sheet, it will have to adjust impairment losses on non-current assets held for sale that included the accumulated foreign currency translation adjustment in the determination of the impairment loss unless the fair value as deemed cost election is used. See “IFRS 1 implications” in Question 1 in the “Property, plant and equipment” section for additional information on the deemed cost election.
4. **Has a subsequent increase in the fair value of an asset or disposal group held for sale occurred?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360-10-35-40 and 360-10-40-5</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 5.19-22, IAS 36.110</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A gain should be recognized for any subsequent increase in fair value less cost to sell but not in excess of the cumulative impairment loss previously recognized since classification as held for sale (for a write-down to fair value less cost to sell). The loss or gain should adjust only the carrying amount of a long-lived asset within the scope of ASC 360-10, whether classified as held for sale individually or as part of a disposal group. At the date of sale, a gain or loss not previously recognized is recognized.</td>
<td>A gain should be recognized for any subsequent increase in fair value less costs to sell, but not in excess of the cumulative impairment loss previously recognized either while held for sale or held for use, on the non-current assets that are within the scope of the measurement requirements of IFRS 5. At the date of sale any gain or loss not previously recognized, is recognized.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Implications:**

Although the methods for recognizing subsequent increases or decreases in the fair value less costs to sell for assets held for sale are similar, the underlying carrying amounts of the long-lived assets in the disposal group could differ. A difference in the carrying amount of the assets will exist, for example, if an impairment loss was recognized before the assets were classified as held for sale and the impairment indicators that gave rise to the impairment have been abated. This difference arises because IFRS requires the reversal of an impairment charge if the impairment indicators no longer exist whereas reversals of impairment charges are not permitted under US GAAP. Accordingly, IFRS 5 requires subsequent increases in fair value less costs to sell of a disposal group to be recognized, even if those increases exceed the impairment loss recognized since the disposal group was classified as held for sale.

For example, consider an asset acquired on 1 January 20X1 for $1,000 that has a useful life of 10 years. On 31 December 20X2, the asset has a carrying amount of $800, but is impaired (i.e., a held for use impairment), and the entity records an impairment loss of $250 (assume that the impairment loss is the same under both US GAAP and IFRS). As a result, the new carrying amount is $550. On 31 December 20X3, the carrying amount is $481 (net of depreciation), and the entity classifies the asset as held for sale. The fair value less cost to sell at that date is $400, so the entity records a further impairment loss of $81. On 30 June 20X4, the entity determines that the fair value less costs to sell has increased to $500. Under US GAAP, the entity may not record a recovery in the fair value less costs to sell in excess of the loss recognized when the assets were classified as held for sale, so the entity would record a gain of only $81. Under IFRS, the entity could record a gain up to the original cost of the asset less any depreciation that would have been recorded over the 3.5 years since acquisition (i.e., $1,000 — $350, or $650). Accordingly, the entity could record the full recovery up to the fair value less costs to sell of $500 as of 30 June 20X3 (i.e., a gain of $100).

**Identified difference?**

**Describe:**
Click here to enter text.
Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations

IFRS 1 implications:
As part of its transition to IFRS, an entity will have to determine whether increases in the fair value less costs to sell of disposal groups should be recognized in excess of amounts previously recognized under US GAAP due to differences in the underlying cost of the assets in the disposal group if the deemed cost election is not used. See “IFRS 1 implications” in Question 1 of the “Property, plant and equipment” section for additional information on the deemed cost election.

5. Does the entity plan to distribute a non-current asset or disposal group to its owners?

Yes ☐ No ☐

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>US GAAP — 360-10-45-15</th>
<th>IFRS — IFRS 5.5A, 12A, 15A, 25 and BC 81</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classification and measurement</strong></td>
<td><strong>Classification and measurement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A long-lived asset (or asset group) to be disposed of other than by sale (e.g. distributed to owners in a spinoff) is classified as held and used until it is disposed of. Accordingly, depreciation expense continues until the asset group is disposed of. If the asset group is tested for recoverability while it is classified as held and used, the estimates of future cash flows are based on the use of the asset for its remaining useful life, assuming that the disposal transaction will not occur.</td>
<td>A non-current asset (or disposal group) is classified as held for distribution to owners when the entity is committed to distribute the asset (or disposal group) to the owners. The entity is considered to be committed to distribute such assets when the assets are available for immediate distribution in their present condition and the distribution is highly probable. As discussed in the introduction to this section, “highly probable” under IFRS generally represents a high degree of certainty. For the distribution to be highly probable, actions to complete the distribution (without significant change to the plan) must have been initiated and should be expected to be completed within one year from the date of classification. The probability of shareholders’ approval, if required, should be considered as part of the assessment of whether the distribution is highly probable. An asset group classified as held for distribution to owners is carried at the lower of its carrying amount and fair value less costs to distribute. Costs to distribute are the incremental costs directly attributable to the distribution, excluding finance costs and income tax expense. Depreciation expense ceases while the disposal group is classified as held for distribution to owners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presentation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If an asset group is to be distributed to owners in a spinoff (and liabilities) as a group and that disposal group is a component of an entity, that component should be presented as a discontinued operation at the date it is disposed of provided the appropriate criteria are met. See Questions 1 and 2 above.</td>
<td>A disposal group is presented as a discontinued operation when classified as held for sale, held for distribution to owners, or disposed of, provided that the appropriate criteria are met. See Questions 1 and 2 above.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Implications:

Differences in the classification and measurement of assets or an asset group to be distributed to owners will exist. Additionally, the income statement presentation could differ. Under US GAAP an asset group to be distributed to owners is classified as held and used until it is distributed. The asset group also is depreciated and evaluated for impairment as held and used until it is distributed. Under IFRS, if the held for distribution criteria are met, the asset group is classified as held for distribution, which is similar to held for sale classification. Accordingly, depreciation ceases and the asset is carried at the lower of its carrying amount or fair value less costs to distribute. The asset group is presented as a discontinued operation under IFRS if and when the held for distribution asset group meets the criteria for discontinued operations presentation, whereas under US GAAP the asset group would be presented as discontinued only when it is distributed and meets the appropriate criteria.

### Identified difference?

#### Describe:

Click here to enter text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Depends on policy election</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### IFRS 1 implications:

As part of its transition to IFRS, an entity will have to determine whether any asset groups to be distributed to owners and still classified as held and used under US GAAP should be reclassified as held for distribution to owners under IFRS 5. If such a reclassification is required, the fair value less costs to distribute of any such asset group will need to be determined at the point in time that the held for distribution to owners criteria were met. Additionally, depreciation should be reversed and the asset group should be carried at the lower of is carrying amount or fair value less costs to distribute from the point in time that the held-for-distribution criteria are met under IFRS.
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