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**Statement of
Position**

85-3

**Accounting by
Agricultural Producers and
Agricultural Cooperatives**

April 30, 1985

**Issued by
Accounting Standards Division**

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Certified Public Accountants**

AICPA

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Accounting by Agricultural Producers and Agricultural Cooperatives

Introduction

1. This statement discusses accounting by agricultural producers and agricultural cooperatives that intend to present financial statements in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles. The issues discussed are —

- Accounting for inventories by producers
- Accounting for development costs of land, trees and vines, intermediate-life plants, and animals
- Accounting by patrons for product deliveries to cooperatives
- Accounting by cooperatives for products received from patrons
- Accounting for investments in and income from cooperatives

This statement does not apply to personal financial statements of agricultural producers or statements prepared on a comprehensive basis of accounting other than generally accepted accounting principles, for example, the income tax or the cash basis of accounting. This statement also does not apply to growers of timber; growers of pineapple and sugarcane in tropical regions; raisers of animals for competitive sports; or merchants or noncooperative processors of agricultural products that purchase commodities from growers, contract harvesters, or others serving agricultural producers.

Definitions

2. For purposes of this statement, the following definitions apply.

Advances. Generally used in marketing and pooling cooperatives to denote amounts paid to patrons prior to final settlement; for example, amounts paid to patrons on delivery of crops.

Agricultural cooperatives. See paragraphs 6 through 22.

Agricultural producers. See paragraphs 3 through 5.

Assigned amounts. Amounts used to record products delivered by patrons of a marketing cooperative operating on a pooling basis, and the related liability to patrons if the ultimate amounts to be paid to

patrons are determined when the pool is closed. These amounts may be established on the basis of current prices paid by other buyers (sometimes referred to as “field prices”), or they may be established by the cooperative’s board of directors. The assigned amounts are sometimes referred to as “established values.”

Cash advance method. A method of accounting for inventories of a marketing cooperative operating on a pooling basis. Under this method, inventories are accounted for at the amount of cash advances made to patrons. (This is sometimes referred to as the “cost advance method.”)

Commercial production. The point at which production from an orchard, vineyard, or grove first reaches a level that makes operations economically feasible, based on prices normally expected to prevail.

Crop development costs. Costs incurred up to the time crops are produced in commercial quantities, including the costs of land preparation, plants, planting, fertilization, grafting, pruning, equipment use, and irrigation.

Crops. Grains, vegetables, fruits, berries, nuts, and fibers grown by agricultural producers.

Exempt and nonexempt cooperatives. Cooperatives classified according to their federal income tax status. Both types are permitted to deduct from taxable income patronage distributed or allocated on a qualified basis to patrons to the extent that the distributions represent earnings of the cooperative derived from business done with or for the patrons. In addition, cooperatives meeting the requirements of Internal Revenue Code section 521 (exempt cooperatives) are permitted to deduct (1) limited amounts paid as dividends on capital stock and (2) distributions to patrons of income from business done with the U.S. government or its agencies and income from nonpatronage sources.

Farm price method. A method of accounting for inventories at the sales prices in the nearest local market for the quantities that the producer normally sells less the estimated costs of disposition.

Futures contract. A standard and transferable form of contract that binds the seller to deliver to the bearer a standard amount and grade of a commodity to a specific location at a specified time. It usually includes a schedule of premiums and discounts for quality variation.

Growing crop. A field, row, tree, bush, or vine crop before harvest.

Grove. Fruit or nut trees planted in geometric patterns to economically facilitate care of the trees and harvest of the fruit or nuts.

Harvested crop. An agricultural product, gathered but unsold.

Livestock. Registered and commercial cattle, sheep, hogs, horses, poultry, and small animals bred and raised by agricultural producers.

Market order prices. Prices for raw products established by federal or state agencies.

Marketing cooperative. A cooperative that markets the products (crops, livestock, and so on) produced by its patrons.

Member and nonmember (of a cooperative). A member is an owner-patron who is entitled to vote at corporate meetings of a cooperative. A nonmember patron is not entitled to voting privileges. A nonmember patron may or may not be entitled to share in patronage distributions, depending on the articles and bylaws of the cooperative or on other agreements.

Net realizable value. Valuation of inventories at estimated selling prices in the ordinary course of business, less reasonably predictable costs of completion, disposal, and transportation.

Orchard. Fruit trees planted in geometric patterns to economically facilitate care of the trees and harvest of the fruit.

Patron. Any individual, trust, estate, partnership, corporation, or cooperative with or for whom a cooperative does business on a cooperative basis, whether a member or nonmember of the cooperative association.

Patronage. The amount of business done with a cooperative by one of its patrons. Patronage is measured by either the quantity or value of commodities received from patrons by a marketing cooperative and the quantity or value of the goods and services sold to patrons by a supply cooperative.

Patronage allocations. Patronage earnings distributed, or allocated, to individual patrons on the basis of each patron's proportionate share of total patronage. Such allocations, which include notification to the patron, may be made on a qualified or nonqualified basis.

Patronage earnings. The excess of a cooperative's revenues over its costs arising from transactions done with or for its patrons. Generally a significant portion of those earnings is allocated to the cooperative's patrons in the form of cash, allocated equities, or both.

Pools. Accounting control centers used for determining earnings and patronage refunds due to particular patrons.

Open pools are accounting control centers that are not closed at the end of each accounting period. Open pools are sometimes used by marketing cooperatives for crops that may not be sold for two or more years after their receipt from patrons.

A single pool cooperative determines net proceeds or patronage refunds on the basis of overall operating results for all commodities marketed during an accounting period.

A multiple pool cooperative determines net proceeds or patronage refunds on the basis of separate commodities, departments, or accounting periods.

Progeny. Offspring of animals or plants.

Raised animals. Animals produced and raised from an owned herd, as opposed to purchased animals.

Recurring land development costs. Costs that do not result in permanent or long-term improvements to land, for example, maintenance costs that occur annually or periodically.

Retains. Amounts determined on a per-unit basis or as a percentage of patronage earnings that are withheld by cooperatives from distributions and allocated to patrons' capital accounts.

Supply cooperative. A cooperative that supplies to its patrons goods and services used by them in producing their products.

Unit livestock method. Accounting for livestock by using an arbitrary fixed periodic charge. For raised animals the amount is accumulated by periodic increments from birth to maturity or disposition. For purchased animals the arbitrary fixed periodic amount is added to the acquisition cost until maturity or disposition of the animal.

Vineyards. Grapevines planted in patterns for commercial cultivation and production.

Written notice of allocation. Any capital stock, revolving fund certificate, retain certificate, certificate of indebtedness, letter of

advice, or other written notice to the recipient that states the dollar amount allocated to the patron by the cooperative and the portion that constitutes a patronage dividend.

Agricultural Producers

3. In this statement, farmers and ranchers are referred to as “agricultural producers,” a term that includes, for example, those who raise crops from seeds or seedlings, breed livestock (whether registered or commercial), and feed livestock in preparation for slaughter. The term excludes, for example, merchants and processors of agricultural products who purchase commodities from growers, contract harvesters, or others serving agricultural producers, although they are covered by the term “agribusiness” as it is generally used. The term also excludes growers of timber and raisers of animals for competitive sports, although some of the accounting principles discussed in this statement may apply to such activities.

4. Agricultural producers use every form of business organization, from sole proprietorship to large publicly held corporation. They engage in numerous activities, for example:

- Growing wheat, milo, corn, and other grains
- Growing soybeans, vegetables, sugar beets, and sugarcane
- Growing citrus fruits, other fruits, grapes, berries, and nuts
- Growing cotton and other vegetable fibers
- Operating plant nurseries
- Breeding and feeding cattle, hogs, and sheep, including animals for wool production
- Operating dairies
- Operating poultry and egg production facilities
- Breeding horses
- Raising mink, chinchilla, and similar small animals

In addition, the operations of agricultural producers often involve various combinations of those activities. Agricultural practices and products may vary still further because of differences in temperature, soil, rainfall, and regional economics. Farm products may be used in related activities, such as the feeding of hay and grain to livestock, or they may be marketed directly by the producer. Producers

often sell products in accordance with government programs or through agricultural cooperatives. Marketing strategies may include forward contracts or commodity futures contracts to reduce the risks of fluctuations in market prices.

5. Agricultural producers often borrow to finance crop development costs and the costs of acquiring facilities and equipment.

Agricultural Cooperatives

6. About 7,500 agricultural cooperatives process, market, or purchase agricultural products or perform related services for producers. About 70 to 80 percent of the nation's farmers are patrons of one or more cooperatives.

7. Of the 7,500 cooperatives, about 1,700 have limited or sporadic operations. According to a 1976 study by the Cooperative Program of the Economics, Statistics, and Cooperatives Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, active cooperatives provide the following services.

Supply	2,164
Marketing	1,674
Combined	<u>1,957</u>
Total	<u>5,795</u>

8. In 1976 those cooperatives sold \$51.8 billion of products, had total equity of \$7.7 billion, and had total assets of \$18.6 billion. The 1979 list of *Fortune's* 1,000 largest industrial companies included fifteen cooperatives. Farmland Industries, Inc., the largest, was ninety-first on the list. At least fifty-five cooperatives not on the *Fortune* list had sufficient sales to be included.

9. Section 1141 (j) of the Agricultural Marketing Act of 1929, as amended, contains the following definition of a cooperative association:

The term "cooperative association" means any association in which farmers act together in processing, preparing for market, handling, and/or marketing the farm products of persons so engaged, and also means any association in which farmers act together in purchasing, testing, grading, processing, distributing, and/or furnishing farm supplies and/or farm business services. Provided, however, that such associations are operated for producers or purchasers and conform to one or both of the following requirements:

First. That no member of the association is allowed more than one vote because of the amount of stock or membership capital he may own therein; and

Second. That the association does not pay dividends on stock or membership capital in excess of 8 per centum per annum.

And in any case to the following:

Third. That the association shall not deal in farm products, farm supplies, and farm business services with or for nonmembers in an amount greater in value than the total amount of such business transacted by it with or for members. All business transacted by any cooperative association for or on behalf of the United States or any agency or instrumentality thereof shall be disregarded in determining the volume of member and nonmember business transacted by such association.

10. A cooperative typically has the following characteristics:

- a. Assets are distributed periodically to patrons on a patronage basis. In certain situations, however, assets in the amount of net-of-tax earnings may be accumulated by the cooperative and may or may not be allocated to patrons' accounts.
- b. Members control the organization in their capacity as patrons and not as equity investors.
- c. Membership is limited to patrons.
- d. The return that can be paid on capital investment is limited.
- e. At least 50 percent of the cooperative's business is done on a patronage basis.

11. Virtually all agricultural cooperatives meet the definition of cooperatives that is used to determine eligibility for borrowing from the banks for cooperatives and for exemption from the annual reporting requirements of the Securities and Exchange Act of 1934. Failure to meet the definition, however, does not necessarily prevent an entity from being considered as operating on a cooperative basis under subchapter T of the Internal Revenue Code.

12. The main difference between cooperatives and other business enterprises is that cooperatives and their patrons operate as single economic units to accomplish specific business purposes, such as the marketing of farm products, the purchase of supplies, or the performance of services for the benefit of the patrons. The aim is to reduce costs, increase sales proceeds, and share risks through the increased bargaining power that results from the patrons' combined resources and buying power.

13. The patron's role as an investor is secondary and incidental to his business relationship with the cooperative.

14. If certain requirements are met, the Internal Revenue Code permits cooperatives tax deductions for earnings allocated to their patrons. Earnings not so allocated are taxed at corporate income tax rates. Cooperatives may use other terms for earnings, such as "margins," "net proceeds," or "savings."

15. Another difference between cooperatives and other business corporations is that the cooperative's bylaws usually require it to distribute assets to patrons, or allocate to patrons' accounts amounts equal to its earnings, on the basis of their patronage. Distributions to patrons are different from dividend payments to stockholders in other corporations. The distribution of earnings on the basis of patronage has been termed the "price adjustment theory."

16. Under the price adjustment theory, a cooperative agrees to do business at cost. In a purchasing cooperative, for example, a patron may be charged more than cost at the time of purchase; however, the cooperative normally must return to the patron all amounts received in excess of cost, including costs of operation and processing.

17. Both exempt and nonexempt cooperatives are subject to federal income taxes on patronage earnings that are not distributed in cash or allocated on a qualified basis. Nonexempt cooperatives are subject to income taxes on earnings arising from sources other than patronage.

18. Cooperatives generally try to buy or sell at the current market price. Periodically, they determine total costs and make distributions to patrons in the form of cash, certificates, or other notices of allocation based on the excess of revenues over costs.

19. The two major types of cooperatives are supply cooperatives and marketing cooperatives. *Supply cooperatives* obtain or produce such items as building materials, equipment, feed, seeds, fertilizer, and petroleum products for their patrons. *Marketing cooperatives* provide means for agricultural producers to process and sell their products.

20. Services related to those functions are provided by some supply and marketing cooperatives; they are also provided by separate associations known as *service cooperatives*, which provide such

services as trucking, storage, accounting, and data processing. A special type of service cooperative is a *bargaining cooperative*, which serves its members by negotiating with processors on their behalf.

21. Many marketing cooperatives commingle patrons' fungible products in pools. The excess of revenues over costs for each pool is allocated to patrons on the basis of their pro rata contributions to the pool, which may be determined by the number of units delivered, the volume of product delivered, or another equitable method.

22. The members of *local cooperatives* are agricultural producers whose activities are generally centralized. The members of *federated cooperatives* are other cooperatives whose activities are regional. Some cooperatives have both individual producers and other cooperatives as members.

Accounting for Inventories of Crops by Agricultural Producers

23. Previously existing accounting literature does not specifically cover accounting by agricultural producers, and available material is predominantly tax oriented. Accounting Research Bulletin (ARB) 43, chapter 4, provides the following information about accounting for inventories:

STATEMENT 9

Only in exceptional cases may inventories properly be stated above cost. For example, precious metals having a fixed monetary value with no substantial cost of marketing may be stated at such monetary value; any other exceptions must be justifiable by inability to determine appropriate approximate costs, immediate marketability at quoted market price, and the characteristic of unit interchangeability. Where goods are stated above cost this fact should be fully disclosed.

Discussion

It is generally recognized that income accrues only at the time of sale, and that gains may not be anticipated by reflecting assets at their current sales prices. For certain articles, however, exceptions are permissible. Inventories of gold and silver, when there is an effective government-controlled market at a fixed monetary value, are ordinarily reflected at selling prices. A similar treatment is not uncommon for inventories representing agricultural, mineral, and other products, units of which are interchangeable and have an immediate marketability at quoted prices and for which appropriate costs may be difficult to obtain. Where such inventories are stated at sales prices, they

should of course be reduced by expenditures to be incurred in disposal, and the use of such basis should be fully disclosed in the financial statements.

24. Accounting Principles Board (APB) Statement 4, chapter 6, paragraph 16, states the following:

Revenue is sometimes recognized on bases other than the realization rule. For example, on long-term construction contracts revenue may be recognized as construction progresses. This exception to the realization principle is based on the availability of evidence of the ultimate proceeds and the consensus that a better measure of periodic income results. Sometimes revenue is recognized at the completion of production and before a sale is made. Examples include certain precious metals and farm products with assured sales prices. The assured price, the difficulty in some situations of determining costs of products on hand, and the characteristic of unit interchangeability are reasons given to support this exception.

25. Accounting Research Study (ARS) 13, chapter 9, page 156, states —

Market as the Accounting Basis of Inventories

Exceptional cases exist in which it is not practicable to determine an appropriate cost basis for products. A market basis is acceptable if the products (1) have immediate marketability at quoted market prices that cannot be influenced by the producer, (2) have characteristics of unit interchangeability, and (3) have relatively insignificant costs of disposal. The accounting basis of those kinds of inventories should be their realizable value, calculated on the basis of quoted market prices less estimated direct costs of disposal. Examples are precious metals produced as joint products or by-products of extractive processes and fresh dressed meats produced in meat packing operations.

Diversity in Practice

26. Published financial statements reveal several ways that agricultural producers account for growing crops:

- Charging costs to operations when they are incurred
- Including crop development costs in deferred charges and amortizing them
- Stating costs on the balance sheet at unchanging amounts substantially less than the costs incurred and charging all current costs to operations when they are incurred
- Deferring all costs and writing them off at harvest or, for perennial crops, over the estimated productive life of the planting

Agricultural producers report harvested crops using the farm price method, at cost (LIFO, FIFO, or average cost), and at the lower of cost or market.

Some producers use the farm price method (market) to account for inventories of harvested crops. Other agricultural producers, particularly those whose securities are publicly held, account for harvested crops at the lower of cost or market.

Pros and Cons

27. A study of accounting for producers' inventories involves an examination of chapter 4, statement 9, of ARB 43, which has been used as authority for accounting for producers' inventories at market.

28. Some accountants believe that many producers cannot determine costs, and some believe that market is an appropriate valuation, whether or not cost data are available. Many accountants believe that users of producers' financial statements would find them less useful if inventories were valued at the lower of cost or market.

29. Other reasons for the preference for market value are its long established use and the need to identify separately the gains and losses attributable to the production cycle and the marketing function, which is discussed in paragraph 35.

30. For most business activities, the accounting literature requires an exchange of goods or services before income is recognized. That precludes accounting for inventories of unsold goods at market unless market value is less than cost. The principal exceptions to that rule are identified in chapter 9 of ARS 13 as "metals produced as joint products or by-products of extractive processes and fresh dressed meats produced in meat packing operations." Those products have unique cost identification problems. Chapter 9 of ARS 13 further states that carrying products at market is acceptable if those products "(1) have immediate marketability at quoted market prices that cannot be influenced by the producer, (2) have characteristics of unit interchangeability, and (3) have relatively insignificant costs of disposal."

31. The first of the three conditions in ARB 43, statement 9, is the inability to determine costs. While many producers may not keep detailed cost records, costs usually either are available or can be determined with acceptable accuracy.

32. Accountants who favor accounting for producers' inventories at market recognize that ARB 43 requires an *inability* to determine appropriate approximate costs. They point out, however, that the discussion interprets the statement to apply when "appropriate costs may be *difficult* to obtain" [emphasis added]. They also note that APB Statement 4, chapter 6, refers to the "difficulty in some situations of determining costs of products" as a partial justification for the use of market price. Thus, they interpret statement 9 as allowing the use of market if costs are difficult to determine, not only if they are impossible to determine.

33. A major argument for accounting for inventories at market is the availability of established markets that provide quoted market prices for most agricultural commodities. However, because variations in grade and quantity, distance from central markets, shipping hazards, and other restrictions may affect the ultimate realization of quoted market prices for agricultural products, there are often serious difficulties in determining the market price for a given product in a given place. Also, many products have no central market with established prices, and determination of their market prices may be subjective and incapable of verification.

34. While ARS 13 does not cover inventories of agricultural products, it questions the appropriateness of accounting for inventories at market even if an established market exists. The study notes that present principles appear to allow the use of market price in accounting for inventories of precious metals if there is a fixed selling price and insignificant marketing cost regardless of whether it is practicable to determine costs. The study states —

The apparent preferential treatment may have originally been considered appropriate because metals having fixed monetary values clearly demonstrated the "immediate marketability at quoted market prices and the characteristic of interchangeability" required in the cases in which it is impracticable to determine costs. Further question as to why preferential treatment was originally accorded to precious metals might now be considered academic. Silver no longer has a fixed monetary price, and gold has a fluctuating free market price for nonmonetary purposes. That raises questions as to whether the inventory basis for gold and silver should now be considered the same as for other metals produced as by-products or joint products.

35. Some proponents of accounting for agricultural producers' inventories at market distinguish the production of a crop from its marketing; they believe that delays in the disposal of a harvested crop are due principally to the producer's desire to sell the commod-

ities later at a higher price. They contend that, in order to separate the results of the two functions, the inventories should be accounted for at market prices after they are harvested. They point out that both functions are likely to cause significant gains and losses. Some opponents counter that the same argument can be made for many nonagricultural enterprises that are not permitted to recognize income at the end of production.

36. The securities of most agricultural producers are not traded publicly, and their financial statements are prepared primarily for management and lenders. Advocates of the use of market prices contend that lenders are concerned with the market price of inventories to be used as collateral. Moreover, most producers are not required to use cost information for income tax purposes. Thus, some accountants argue that determining cost for financial statements is an unproductive additional burden to the producer. Conversely, cost advocates point out that both public and nonpublic producers require long-term financing, and cost-basis financial statements may provide better information for those purposes.

37. Some accountants believe that it is difficult to argue persuasively for charging the periodic costs of growing crops to expense as they are incurred since a valuable asset is being developed. Some contend that the use of a fixed amount less than cost violates existing principles of accounting for assets. Others believe it is acceptable and consistent with a market basis of accounting to account for growing crops at net realizable value or at no value.

Division Conclusions

38. All direct and indirect costs of growing crops should be accumulated and growing crops should be reported at the lower of cost or market.

39. An agricultural producer should report inventories of harvested crops held for sale at (a) the lower of cost or market or (b) in accordance with established industry practice, at sales price less estimated costs of disposal, when all the following conditions exist:

- The product has a reliable, readily determinable and realizable market price.
- The product has relatively insignificant and predictable costs of disposal.
- The product is available for immediate delivery.

Accounting for Development Costs of Land, Trees and Vines, intermediate-Life Plants, and Animals

40. Development costs of land, trees and vines, intermediate-life plants, and animals are different from costs incurred in raising crops for harvest, which were discussed in the previous section, "Accounting for Inventories of Crops by Agricultural Producers."

41. Land development generally includes improvements to bring the land into a suitable condition for general agricultural use and to maintain its productive condition. Some improvements are permanent; some have a limited life. Permanent land developments include, for example, clearing, initial leveling, terracing, and construction of earthen dams; they involve changes to the grade and contour of the ground and generally have an indefinite life if they are properly maintained. Limited-life developments usually include such items as water distribution systems and fencing and may also include the costs of wells, levees, ponds, drain tile, and ditches, depending on the climate, topography, soil conditions, and farming practices in the area.

42. Orchards, vineyards, and groves generally develop over several years before they reach commercial production. Production continues for varying numbers of years, depending on such influences as type of plant, soil, and climate. During development, the plants normally require grafting, pruning, spraying, cultivation, or other care.

43. Intermediate-life plants have growth and production cycles of more than one year but less than those of trees and vines. They include, for example, artichokes, various types of berries, asparagus, alfalfa, and grazing grasses. Development costs of intermediate-life plants include the cost of land preparation, plants, and cultural care until the plant, bush, or vine begins to produce in commercial quantities.

44. The terms *livestock* and *animals* are used interchangeably and are meant to include cattle, sheep, hogs, horses, poultry, and other small animals. The development of animals requires care and maintenance of the breeding stock and their progeny until their transfer from the brood herd. Animals purchased before maturity also require care and maintenance to ready them for productive use or sale. The animals are ultimately identified for transfer to breeding

herds, dairy herds, or other productive functions, are selected for sale, or are transferred to a feeding or other marketing operation.

Diversity in Practice

45. Development costs of land, trees and vines, intermediate-life plants, and animals are accounted for in the following ways:

- Charged to operations when they are incurred
- Included in deferred charges
- Included on the balance sheet at fixed amounts substantially less than the costs incurred, with all or a majority of the current costs charged to operations as they are incurred
- Capitalized and amortized over the estimated productive life of the animal, tree, vine, or plant
- Carried at market values

46. In the case of annual field crops that are planted and harvested in the same accounting period, producers generally match costs with revenues. When the growing cycle continues beyond the accounting period, costs often are not matched with revenues.

47. Few significant diversities of practice are apparent in the financial statements primarily because of lack of disclosure. However, some agricultural producers charge land development costs to expense based on provisions of the income tax laws.

48. In accounting for development costs of trees and vines, some producers agree that the costs should be capitalized and depreciated over the expected productive life, but the costs to be capitalized and those to be charged to expense are not identified uniformly. Income tax concepts have had a strong influence on accounting practices for those development costs.

49. Crops from intermediate-life plants have generally been accounted for in the same way as annual crops, with no distinctions for variations in the periods of development and productivity.

50. Many livestock producers charge the costs of developing animals to expense without regard to their productive lives or future use or sales value. Animals are sometimes reported at cost and other times at market values. Some producers use the unit livestock method, and in many instances, the annual unit cost increments are below market and probably below cost.

Pros and Cons

51. Some accountants believe that large-scale improvements that transform the land to new and better uses are permanent land improvements to be capitalized and that subsequent modifications and improvements are necessary and should be classified as period expenses.

52. Others believe that it is difficult, or nearly impossible, to distinguish between permanent, limited-life, and recurring land development costs. Land improvements that an owner has made over many years tend to lose their original characteristics. Such improvements are usually accompanied by increasingly intensive land use over relatively long periods. Prior improvements are modified, improved on, or eliminated, and the resulting land configuration and use are noticeably changed. The characteristics of continuing land improvements accomplished over long periods are given as justification for classifying those costs as recurring.

53. Many accountants believe that all direct and related indirect costs of land development, such as leveling, clearing of brush, terracing, and installation of drain tile, should be capitalized. They further believe that land development costs that waste away or diminish in efficiency through use, such as drainage tile, should be depreciated or amortized over the number of seasons that the land can reasonably be expected to produce without renovation or renewal of the particular development.

54. It is generally agreed that development costs of orchards, vineyards, and groves should be capitalized, but there is no agreement on the specific costs that should be capitalized. Many believe it necessary to capitalize only those costs that the income tax laws require to be capitalized.

55. Some accountants believe that all direct and indirect costs for orchards, vineyards, and groves incurred during the development period should be capitalized until commercial production is achieved. Others believe all such costs, except annual maintenance costs, should be capitalized. All agree that capitalized costs should be depreciated or amortized over the useful life of the plantings.

56. Accounting practices for development costs of intermediate-life plants are inconsistent. Producers who deduct expenses before revenues are realized for intermediate-life plants and orchardists and vineyardists who do not want to capitalize develop-

ment costs and depreciate them over the estimated productive life of the developed asset are motivated by the same reasons. The question of capitalization and depreciation is similar for producers of intermediate-life plants and for producers of trees and vines. The principal distinctions are in development period and productive life. For example, orchard trees may require four to seven years before nominal production, while limited production may occur during the first year of such crops as alfalfa, some berries, and asparagus.

57. Some accountants have resisted accumulating development costs for growing animals, based on the difficulty and expense of accumulating such information and, in some instances, the problem of identifying individual animals or groups and categories of animals. Instead of cost, the unit livestock method or a market value has been used for assigning amounts to the animals at each level of maturity in the belief that such accounting methods, if consistently applied, would not adversely affect income recognition.

58. Others believe that all direct and indirect development costs of raising livestock should be accumulated and capitalized until the livestock have reached maturity and have been selected for breeding or other productive purposes. Many believe that income-producing livestock should be depreciated on the basis of their expected productive lives.

Division Conclusions

59. Permanent land development costs should be capitalized and should not be depreciated or amortized, since they have, by definition, an indefinite useful life.

60. Limited-life land development costs and direct and indirect development costs of orchards, groves, vineyards, and intermediate-life plants should be capitalized during the development period and depreciated over the estimated useful life of the land development or that of the tree, vine or plant.

61. All direct and indirect costs of developing animals should be accumulated until the animals reach maturity and are transferred to a productive function. At that point the accumulated development costs, less any estimated salvage value, should be depreciated over the animals' estimated productive lives.

62. All direct and indirect development costs of animals raised for sale should be accumulated, and the animals should be

accounted for at the lower of cost or market until they are available for sale. Agricultural producers should report animals available and held for sale (a) at the lower of cost or market or (b) in accordance with established industry practice at sales price, less estimated costs of disposal, when all of the following conditions exist:

- There are reliable, readily determinable and realizable market prices for the animals.
- The costs of disposal are relatively insignificant and predictable.
- The animals are available for immediate delivery.

Accounting for Patrons' Product Deliveries to Marketing Cooperatives Operating on a Pooling Basis

63. Agricultural marketing cooperatives process and market their patrons' products. There are frequently good bases for recording transfers of products between cooperatives and their patrons. For example, dairy cooperatives record transfers of products on the basis of market order prices, and grain cooperatives record transfers of products on the basis of readily determined cash prices. Many cooperatives, therefore, transfer patrons' products at market prices, and the transactions are treated as purchases by the cooperatives and as sales by the patrons.

64. However, cooperatives operating on a pooling basis may receive products from their patrons without paying a fixed price to the patrons. A cooperative may assign amounts to products based on current prices paid by other buyers or on amounts established by the cooperative's board of directors, or it may assign no amount. The cooperative estimates a liability to patrons equal to the assigned amount for the delivered product, and it usually pays this liability on a short-term basis. The excess of revenues over the assigned amounts and operating costs at the end of a pool period, which may be a week, a month, a year, or longer, is paid or allocated to patrons. Assets equal to that excess may be distributed to the patrons or retained by the cooperative.

65. The different accounting methods used by pooling cooperatives have been developed to satisfy provisions of their bylaws and

contractual arrangements with patrons and to provide equitable methods of settlement from pool period to pool period, as well as among the various classes of patrons. For pooling cooperatives, accounting methods have been developed to allow the use of the single-pool or multiple-pool methods of accounting.

Diversity in Practice

66. Significant information about the accounting practices of patrons in recording the delivery of raw products to marketing cooperatives is scarce. Among the practices used are recognition (1) at the estimated net return, presumably at the time of delivery, and (2) at the time of sale by the cooperative to an outside party. Those two examples provide the extremes, one recognizing the delivery to the cooperative as a sale and the other continuing to carry the product as inventory of the producer until it is sold by the cooperative. Transfer prices for products delivered to cooperatives are established in diverse ways:

- At market order price or governmental support price
- At market price
- At an assigned amount determined by the cooperative's board of directors to approximate market price
- At the amount of advances
- At cost to the producer
- At no amount until the cooperative advises the producer of the expected proceeds from the ultimate disposition of the product

67. Cooperatives that receive products from patrons and pay their patrons a firm market price, at or shortly after delivery, treat the payments as purchases. In those situations the prices are paid regardless of the amount of the cooperatives' earnings. Those cooperatives normally report inventories at the lower of cost or market. However, pooling cooperatives estimate amounts due to patrons at the time of delivery, and those amounts are later adjusted on the basis of the pool's earnings. This presents a significant accounting problem. The following paragraphs discuss only the accounting issues that result from deliveries of products by patrons to cooperatives operating on a pooling basis.

68. In cooperatives operating on a pooling basis, products delivered by patrons are commingled with other patrons' products, processed, and marketed. Earnings from the sale of finished products are returned to patrons, either in cash or in some form of equity, whether or not those earnings were determined on the basis of current market prices at the time of delivery. Many cooperatives value patrons' products at assigned amounts (usually current market prices) set by the board of directors at delivery. A corresponding estimated liability is accrued for amounts due to patrons. At the end of the pool period, the pool's net earnings are credited to amounts due patrons on a patronage basis.

69. Some cooperatives cannot determine the market prices of patrons' products when they receive them because of limited cash purchases by other processors. They are usually cooperatives that process and market a high percentage of limited specialty crops. Many of those cooperatives account for inventories of goods in process and finished goods at net realizable value, determined by deducting estimated completion and disposition costs from the estimated sales value of the processed inventory, because a reliable price for the unprocessed product is not available to account for inventories at the lower of cost or market. Furthermore, many cooperatives must determine net realizable value to comply with bylaw provisions and contractual obligations and to facilitate equitable pool settlements from pool period to pool period and among various classes of patrons.

70. A 1973 survey by the National Council of Farmer Cooperatives indicated that many marketing cooperatives use net realizable value to account for inventories. An excerpt from an article on this subject prepared for the council's legal, tax, and accounting committee appears below.

The National Council of Farmer Cooperatives made a survey of the inventory valuation methods used by its marketing cooperatives. The results of this survey confirm what has been the private belief of most cooperative accountants, that the net realizable market value method is perhaps the most widely used and accepted method of inventory valuation by marketing cooperatives. This survey reflects the responses of 49 cooperatives and, in summary, indicates that the following inventory methods are in use.

<u>Method</u>	<u>Cooper- atives</u>	<u>Sales (In Thousands)</u>	<u>% of Total Sales</u>
Net realizable market value	24	\$2,310,938	48%
Lower of cost or market, using field price as the established value of raw product	8	630,898	13
Net realizable market value and lower of cost or market, using field price as the established value of raw product	5	802,867	17
Cost	2	53,400	1
Rev. Rul. 69-67*	7	367,469	8
Other	3	621,925	13
	<u>49</u>	<u>\$4,787,497</u>	<u>100%</u>

*Note: Rev. Rul. 69-67 refers to the cash advance method.

71. The net realizable value method of accounting for inventories permits the recognition of the pool's estimated net earnings at the end of the fiscal period in which the patrons supply their crops to the cooperative or when pools are closed. Inventories are stated at net realizable value, and the amounts due to patrons are credited with the earnings. The net realizable value method of accounting for inventories permits the closing of the pools and provides equitable treatment to patrons if the cooperative transfers the inventories forward to the next period's pool at estimated market value.

72. Some marketing cooperatives receive products from patrons without assigning amounts to them. During the year, cash is advanced to patrons on the basis of anticipated earnings. Inventories are recorded at amounts advanced plus costs of processing, and patrons' products are valued at the amount of advances made to the date of the financial statements. This is commonly called the "cash advance method."

Authoritative Literature

73. The primary source of authoritative guidance for accounting for inventories that result from deliveries of products by patrons to cooperatives has been ARB 43.

Pros and Cons

74. A transaction is usually completed when a patron delivers his product to a cooperative. The patron's product is commingled with that of other patrons, and title and individual risk of loss have passed. Some accountants believe that no accounting is necessary at the time of delivery because the transfer price is frequently not known until some later date. Nevertheless, accrual basis accounting calls for reporting the transaction according to the best information available at the time. While greater accuracy may be achieved by waiting for the cooperative to advise the patron of the net proceeds, the handicap of not having current financial information could outweigh the benefit of greater accuracy, and the lack of consistency in reporting could be confusing to the users of the financial statements.

75. Some accountants argue that pooling cooperatives should not use an assigned amount for products received from patrons for financial accounting and reporting purposes because the amounts may not be reliable and the patrons may be paid more or less than that amount at the end of the pool period. Others argue that the use of an assigned amount permits the establishment of a tentative liability due patrons and allows inventories to be stated at the lower of cost or market. The method also facilitates allocation of pool proceeds to patrons.

76. Some accountants believe that the net realizable value method of accounting for inventories is unacceptable because it anticipates cooperative earnings. Further, they believe that future selling prices and disposition costs are too uncertain to base accounting on them. Alternatively, those who favor the use of the net realizable value method believe that the problems of determining net realizable value do not differ from those of determining market under the lower of cost or market method. They also consider the method to be acceptable in accounting for pools because it enables the cooperative to settle pools annually and to comply with bylaw provisions and contractual obligations. In essence, they claim, the inventory is transferred to the next period's pool on an equitable basis.

77. Some accountants believe that cooperatives may record products received from patrons at assigned amounts and then account for the inventories at net realizable value. That method permits the closing of pools at least annually on an equitable basis. Others believe that, if assigned amounts are used on receipt of the

product, the inventories should be accounted for at the lower of cost or market.

78. Some accountants favor the cash advance method of accounting for inventories. They believe that the only product cost that should be accounted for is the total of cash advanced to patrons to the date of the financial statements, because the cooperative has no liability to pay more unless more is earned. Others favor the cash advance method because the Internal Revenue Service has held in several rulings that pooling cooperatives should use that method in tax computations. Others reject the cash advance method because advances to patrons are primarily determined on availability of cash, the percentage of the pool production sold to the date of the financial statements, and short-term inventory loan restrictions rather than on the value of products received. Further, they reject the method because the amount and timing of advances are generally subject to the board of directors' action and may vary from period to period.

Division Conclusions

Accounting by Patrons for Products Delivered to Pooling Cooperatives

79. If control over the future economic benefits relating to the product has passed, which ordinarily is evidenced by the transfer of title, and if a price is available by reference to contemporaneous transactions in the market, or if the cooperative establishes an assigned amount, a delivery to the cooperative should be recorded as a sale by the patron at that amount on the date of delivery. If there is a reasonable indication that the proceeds from the cooperative will be less than the market price or the assigned amount, the lower amount should be used.

80. If control over the future economic benefits relating to the product has passed, which ordinarily is evidenced by the transfer of title, and there are neither prices determined by other market buyers nor amounts assigned by the cooperative, or if such amounts are erratic, unstable, or volatile, the patron should record the delivery to the cooperative as a sale at the recorded amount of the inventory and should record an unbilled receivable. If there is a reasonable indication that the proceeds from the cooperative will be less than the receivable, the lower amount should be used.

81. If title has not passed, the identity of the individual patron's product is maintained by the cooperative, and the price to the

patron is to be based on the identified product's sale, the transaction is not complete, and the product should be included in the patron's inventory until it is sold by the cooperative, at which time the patron should record the sale.

82. Advances are financing devices and should be treated as reductions in the unbilled receivable and should not be used as amounts for recording sales.

Accounting by Pooling Cooperatives for Products Received From Patrons

83. If the boards of directors of agricultural marketing cooperatives operating on a pooling basis with no obligation to pay patrons fixed prices (pooling cooperatives) assign amounts that approximate estimated market to unprocessed products received from patrons, the assigned amounts are cost and should be charged to cost of goods sold and credited to amounts due patrons. The inventories should be accounted for at the lower of cost or market or, as described more fully in paragraph 84, at net realizable value. When assigned amounts are used, they should approximate estimated market of unprocessed products delivered by patrons (an example of inventories at lower of cost or market is provided in the Appendix, column A). The method used and the dollar amounts assigned to members' products should be disclosed.

84. If the boards of directors of pooling cooperatives assign amounts to products received from patrons, the cooperatives should use those assigned amounts in determining the estimated amounts due patrons. Such cooperatives may use net realizable value for determining pool proceeds, transferring inventory amounts to subsequent pools, or for other purposes (an example is provided in the Appendix, column B). The method used and the dollar amounts assigned to members' products should be disclosed.

85. If the boards of directors of pooling cooperatives do not assign amounts that approximate market to unprocessed products received from patrons, the cooperatives should account for inventories at net realizable value (an example is provided in the Appendix, column C). Because amounts that approximate estimated market are not assigned to products received from patrons, cost of goods sold will not include a charge for unprocessed products under this method.

86. Pooling cooperatives should not use the cash advance method to account for inventories.

Accounting for Investments in and Income From Cooperatives

87. Member patrons of cooperatives can be producers or other cooperatives. Member patrons provide most of the capital required by cooperatives. The capital usually represents long-term investments acquired through initial cash investments, retains, or non-cash patronage allocations. Voting rights for those investments are usually based on one-member-one-vote or limited weighted voting rather than on the number or amount of securities or other evidence of equity ownership held. The investments are made primarily to obtain an economical source of supply or marketing services and not on the expectation of a return on investment. The sale of such investments, other than back to the issuing cooperative, is usually restricted or prohibited.

Diversity in Practice

88. Investments in cooperatives are generally carried by producers at cost, at cost plus declared retains, at cost plus estimated retains, or at an amount less than cost.

89. Most cooperatives carry their investments in other cooperatives at cost if they are purchased or at face amount if they are received in other than purchase transactions (retains or noncash patronage allocations). However, they usually write the investments down to estimated net realizable value if evidence indicates they will be unable to recover the full carrying amount of the investments. That practice has been endorsed in Accounting Research Bulletin 2, issued by the National Society of Accountants for Cooperatives, which states —

Investments in cooperatives made by user patrons for the purpose of providing capital for operations of the investee cooperative should be carried at cost, if purchased, or at face value if received in transactions other than purchases such as non-cash patronage dividends. Such investments should be written down to an appropriate amount if reliable evidence indicates that their value has been permanently impaired.

It should be noted that in most instances accounting for investments in other cooperatives (including banks for cooperatives and other

cooperative financing organizations, such as the National Rural Utilities Cooperative Finance Corporation) on the basis outlined above results in investment carrying values equal to the equity values of the investing cooperative's interest in the investee cooperatives; therefore, it would appear that the basis outlined complies with APB Opinion No. 18, "The Equity Method of Accounting for Investments in Common Stock," to the extent that the intent of the opinion is applicable to investments of cooperatives. In the infrequent instances where the investor's share of unallocated retained earnings of an investee cooperative is material to the investor, the principles set forth in APB Opinion No. 18 should be applied.

90. Cooperatives that invest in other cooperatives usually recognize allocated equities in the cooperative investor's fiscal year within which written notice of allocation is received, and the investment is carried at cost plus allocated equities. That method of revenue recognition conforms with federal income tax requirements. It is the most practical method of reporting because many investee cooperatives issue financial statements and determine patronage allocations only at the close of their accounting years. Many cooperatives do that because they find determination of patronage allocations to be complex and time consuming, since their operations may include both marketing and supply functions, as well as several departments under each function.

91. Diversity in practice has developed in accounting for unallocated equities. Some patrons who hold at least a 20 percent ownership interest recognize their interest in unallocated equities in accordance with APB Opinion No. 18. Others do not recognize unallocated equities, primarily because the equity ownership percentage changes according to patronage and because voting is usually based on the one-member-one-vote principle, which does not necessarily provide significant influence. Interpretation and application of APB Opinion No. 18 may become more significant in financial reporting for cooperatives because 1978 changes in the Internal Revenue Code, relating to the investment tax credit, may encourage cooperatives to reduce distributions of assets to patrons and increase unallocated net after-tax earnings for the purchase of assets.

92. Most patrons recognize their patronage allocations when they are notified, which conforms with federal income tax reporting requirements. Other patrons accrue patronage allocations on the basis of the cooperatives' interim financial statements.

93. Presentation of patronage allocations in patrons' financial statements is also diverse. Some patrons recognize patronage allocations as reductions of purchase or interest costs on purchases from supply or financing cooperatives or as increases in sales for deliveries to marketing cooperatives. Other patrons recognize all patronage allocations as nonoperating income.

Authoritative Literature

94. Authoritative literature on marketable investments — Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 12, *Accounting for Certain Marketable Securities*, and FASB Interpretation No. 16, *Clarification of Definitions and Accounting for Marketable Equity Securities That Become Nonmarketable* — has little applicability to investments in cooperatives. Investments in cooperatives are not equity securities and usually are not readily marketable, and transfer or sale, other than back to the issuing cooperative, is usually restricted or prohibited. Current accounting literature supports the carrying of long-term investments, such as nonmarketable investments in agricultural cooperatives, at cost if the value of the investments is not impaired. Carrying amounts are reduced when the investor becomes unable to recover the full carrying amounts. APB Opinion No. 18 requires the equity method of accounting for investments in which the investor has significant influence over an investee's operating and financial policies.

95. The significance of investments by patrons results primarily from the purchasing or marketing rights and participation in the operating earnings. As such, the operations of cooperatives have many of the attributes of corporate joint ventures or partnerships.

Pros and Cons

96. Some accountants argue that the investment in a cooperative is in substance a long-term investment and, as such, should be carried at cost or at cost plus allocated equities. Others believe that the investments should be discounted to their present value. The carrying amounts would be adjusted downward as required by generally accepted accounting principles when the patron becomes unable to recover the full carrying amounts.

97. Those that support discounting of investments in cooperatives to present value believe that it results in satisfactory presentation in the financial statements because allocated equities are usually not redeemed or are redeemed over a long period. However, others believe that patrons contribute amounts to cooperatives not as investments but to obtain supply or marketing sources, and the allocated equities represent a proportionate share of the cooperative's earnings for the period of patronage. That is similar to accounting for equities in partnerships or corporate joint ventures, in which undistributed earnings are recognized for accounting purposes on the same basis as for federal income tax reporting. Proponents of the stated amount method also believe that it produces symmetry, since the investee records the issuance of securities or book credits at par or face amounts rather than on the basis of discounted values. They argue further that the method conforms with the underlying price-adjustment theory of cooperatives, which holds that such allocated equities are merely reductions of the cost of supply purchases or increases in the proceeds of products marketed through the cooperative and that they should therefore be reflected in the patrons' results of operations.

98. Accountants who believe that a cooperative's unallocated losses should not be recognized by the patrons base their contention on the premise that operating losses may indicate temporary rather than permanent declines in value because they may result from identifiable, isolated, or nonrecurring events. Accordingly, they should not be recognized. Furthermore, because many investor cooperatives determine patronage allocations on the basis of financial statement reporting rather than federal income tax reporting, some accountants argue that financial statement recognition by investor cooperatives of unallocated losses will cause the payment of federal income taxes by the investor cooperative that would not otherwise be payable and such taxes will not be recoverable if the losses are later allocated. That adverse effect is the result of federal income tax regulations that limit the patronage refund deduction to the lesser of the patronage refund "paid" and the patronage refund "allowable," as determined in accordance with federal income tax rules and regulations.

99. Those who believe that unallocated losses should be recognized argue that patrons must recognize allocated losses for consistent reporting, much as if the investment were in a corporate joint

venture or partnership rather than a cooperative. They further contend that failure to recognize unallocated losses permits manipulation of earnings because patrons often serve on the cooperative's board of directors or can influence the board of directors, which has the authority to determine the portions, if any, of the losses that will be allocated to patrons.

100. Accountants who believe that unallocated equities should not be recognized by the patrons generally contend that APB Opinion No. 18 does not apply because equity ownership generally does not convey voting control and because ownership interests in unallocated equities may be temporary, being subject to changes in patronage participation and the redemption of equities. However, others argue that APB Opinion No. 18 should apply to all investments in cooperatives in which the patrons hold at least 20 percent of the equity securities, regardless of the one-member-one-vote requirement and the fact that ownership interests may change. They believe that the patron frequently has significant influence due to patronage volume, assured representation on the board of directors, or other means.

101. Some accountants believe that patronage allocations should be recognized in the accounting period in which the supply is purchased or the product is marketed, since those transactions are the source of the patronage allocations and are adjustments of the price at which the supply is purchased or the product marketed. Others believe that the accrual of estimated patronage allocations is impractical because many cooperatives do not determine patronage allocations during interim periods and the amount of the allocations usually cannot be determined from the cooperatives' interim financial statements. Further, existing federal income tax rules and regulations, as well as the bylaws of most investee cooperatives, require the investee's patronage allocations to be included in taxable income in the period the investor is notified of the patronage allocation. This requirement may cause adverse tax effects for investors.

102. Some accountants argue that allocated and unallocated equities should be reflected in the statement of operations as reductions of costs or increases in proceeds because such amounts result from the transactions by which supplies are purchased, interest is paid, or products are sold. Accordingly, the proponents believe that the equities should be reported in the same manner as the original

transactions to report sales, cost of sales, and operating expenses. Other accountants believe that the allocations should be reported as other income rather than as increases or decreases in sales, cost of sales, or operating expenses; they argue that including the allocations in sales, cost of sales, or operating expenses could misstate gross profit or expenses.

Division Conclusions

103. Investments in cooperatives should be accounted for at cost, including allocated equities and retains. The carrying amount of an investment in a cooperative should be reduced if the patron is unable to recover the full carrying value of the investment. Losses unallocated by the investee may indicate such an inability, and, at a minimum, the excess of unallocated losses over unallocated equities should be recognized by the patron based on the patron's proportionate share of the total equity of the investee cooperative, or any other appropriate method, unless the patron demonstrates that it is probable that the carrying amount of the investment in the cooperative can be fully recovered.

104. Patrons should recognize patronage refunds either —

- a. When the related patronage occurs if it is then probable that (1) a patronage refund applicable to the period will be declared, (2) one or more future events confirming the receipt of a patronage refund are expected to occur, (3) the amount of the refund can be reasonably estimated, and (4) the accrual can be consistently made from year to year or
- b. On notification by the distributing cooperative.
The accrual should be based on the latest available reliable information and should be adjusted on notification of allocation.

105. Either (1) the classification of the allocations in the financial statements should follow the recording of the costs or proceeds or (2) the allocations should be presented separately.

Effective Date and Transition

106. The Accounting Standards Division recommends application of this statement to financial statements prepared for fiscal years, and interim periods in such fiscal years, beginning after June 15, 1985. Accounting changes to conform to the recommendations of this statement should be made prospectively for transactions or activities occurring on or after the effective date of this statement. Application for earlier years, including retroactive application, is encouraged for all transactions or activities regardless of when they occurred. Disclosures should be made in the financial statements in the period of change in accordance with APB Opinion No. 20.

APPENDIX

Accounting by Pooling Cooperatives for Products Received From Patrons

The following illustrates the statement of net earnings prepared under each of two possible methods of accounting for inventories (columns A and B), the statement of net proceeds prepared under the net realizable value method (column C), and the respective statements of amounts due patrons, if such latter statement is included in the financial statements. (See paragraphs 83, 84, and 85.) Column A demonstrates the lower of cost or market method with patrons' raw product being charged to cost of production at assigned amounts. Column B demonstrates the net realizable value method with patrons' raw product being charged to cost of production at assigned amounts. Column C demonstrates the net realizable value method when no amounts are assigned to patrons' raw product; therefore, there is no charge to cost of production for patrons' raw product. The assumed facts are as follows:

Sales	\$129,630
Beginning inventory	
Net realizable value	31,128
Lower of cost or market	28,380
Assigned value of patrons' raw product received	56,500
Ending inventory	
Net realizable value	35,596
Lower of cost or market	32,360
Income taxes	1,250
Other costs and expenses	56,580
Amounts paid to patrons, retains, and non-patronage earnings	74,430
Amounts due patrons at beginning of year	
Lower of cost or market method	8,910
Net realizable value method	11,748

**Statements of Net Earnings (columns A and B)
Statement of Net Proceeds (column C)**

	Inventories Valued At		
	Lower of Cost or Market—A	Net Realizable Value—B	Net Realizable Value—C
Sales	\$129,630	\$129,630	\$129,630
Costs and expenses (I)	109,100	108,702	52,202
Earnings before income taxes	20,530	20,928	—
Proceeds before income taxes	—	—	77,428
Income taxes	1,250	1,250	1,250
Net earnings	\$ 19,280	\$ 19,678	
Net proceeds			\$ 76,178
 I. Beginning inventory	 \$ 28,380	 \$ 31,218	 \$ 31,218
Assigned value of patrons' raw product received	56,500	56,500	—
Ending inventory	(32,360)	(35,596)	(35,596)
Other costs and expenses	56,580	56,580	56,580
	\$109,100	\$108,702	\$ 52,202

Statements of Amounts Due Patrons

	Inventories Valued At		
	Lower of Cost or Market—A	Net Realizable Value—B	Net Realizable Value—C
Amounts due patrons at beginning of year	\$ 8,910	\$ 11,748	\$ 11,748
Net earnings	19,280	19,678	—
Net proceeds	—	—	76,178
Assigned value of patrons' raw product received	56,500	56,500	—
	84,690	87,926	87,926
Less amounts paid to patrons, retains, and non-patronage earnings	74,430	74,430	74,430
Amounts due patrons at end of year	\$ 10,260	\$ 13,496	\$ 13,496

Under the two inventory methods presented, the difference in amounts due patrons at the end of the year results from the difference in the ending inventory valuations, illustrated as follows:

Inventories of finished goods and goods in process at:	
Net realizable value	\$35,596
Lower of cost or market	<u>(32,360)</u>
	3,236
Amounts due patrons at end of year on lower of cost or market basis	<u>10,260</u>
Amounts due patrons at end of year on net realizable value basis	<u><u>\$13,496</u></u>

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