Deposit Accounts
Effective date April 2011

Deposits are funds that customers place with a bank and that the bank is obligated to repay on demand, after a specific period of time or after expiration of some required notice period. Deposits are the primary funding source for most banks and, as a result, have a significant effect on a bank’s liquidity. Banks use deposits in a variety of ways, primarily to fund loans and investments. Management should establish a procedure for determining the volatility and composition of the deposit structure to ensure that funds are employed profitably, while allowing for their potential withdrawal. Therefore, a bank’s management should implement programs to retain and prudently expand the bank’s deposit base.

Bankers place great significance on the deposit structure because favorable operating results depend, in part, on a core deposit base. Because of competition for funds, the need for most individuals and corporations to minimize idle funds, and the effect of disintermediation (the movement of deposits to other higher-yielding markets) on a bank’s deposit base, bank management should adopt and implement a development and retention program for all types of deposits.

DEPOSIT DEVELOPMENT AND RETENTION PROGRAM

Important elements of the examination process are the review of a bank’s deposit development and retention program and the methods used to determine the volatility and composition of the deposit structure. A bank’s deposit development and retention program should include—

• a marketing strategy,
• projections of deposit structure and associated costs, and
• a formula for comparing results against projections.

To structure a deposit program properly, bank management must consider many factors, some of which include—

• the composition of the market-area economic base,
• the ability to employ deposits profitably,
• the adequacy of current operations (staffing and systems) and the location and size of banking quarters relative to the bank’s volume of business,
• the degree of competition from banks and nonbank financial institutions and their programs to attract deposit customers, and
• the effects of the national economy and the monetary and fiscal policies of the federal government on the bank’s service area.

The bank’s size and the composition of its market determine how formal its deposit program should be. After a bank develops its deposit program, management must continue to monitor the above factors and correlate any findings to determine if adjustments are needed. The long-term success of any deposit program relates directly to the ability of management to make adjustments at the earliest possible time.

DEPOSIT STRUCTURE

Management should look not only at deposit growth but also at the nature of the deposit structure. To invest deposited funds properly in view of anticipated or potential withdrawals, management must be able to determine what percentage of the overall deposit structure is centered in core deposits, in fluctuating or seasonal deposits, and in volatile deposits. It is important that internal reports with information concerning the composition of the deposit structure be provided to management periodically. Management’s lack of such knowledge could lead to an asset-liability mismatch, causing problems at a later date.

In analyzing the deposit structure, information gathered by the various examination procedures should be sufficient to allow the examiner to evaluate the composition of both volatile and core deposits. Ultimately, the examiner should be satisfied with management’s efforts to plan for the bank’s future.

Examiners must analyze the present and potential effect deposit accounts have on the financial condition of the bank, particularly with regard to the quality and scope of management’s planning. The examiner’s efforts should be directed to the various types of deposit accounts that the bank uses for its funding base. The
the basis on which service charges on dormant accounts are assessed and should document the review. There have been occasions when excessive servicing charges have resulted in no proceeds being remitted at the time the account became subject to escheat requirements. In these cases, courts have required banks to reimburse the state. (See also the “Dormant Accounts” discussion later in this section.)

Bank Secrecy Act

Examiners should be aware of the Bank Secrecy Act when examining the deposit area and should follow up on any unusual activities or arrangements noted. The act was implemented by the Treasury Department’s Financial Recordkeeping and Reporting of Currency and Foreign Transactions Regulation. For further information, see the FFIEC Bank Secrecy Act Examination Manual, section 208.63 of the Federal Reserve’s Regulation H, and the Financial Crimes Enforcement Network (FinCEN)’s Bank Secrecy Act regulations at 31 CFR Chapter X. Prior to March 1, 2011, “FINCEN’s regulation was at 31 CFR 103.

Banking Hours and Processing of Demand Deposits

The Board’s Regulation CC (12 CFR 229), “Availability of Funds and Collection of Checks,” and the Uniform Commercial Code (UCC) govern banking-day cutoff hours and the processing of deposits. A “banking day” is that part of a day on which an office of the bank is open to the public for carrying out substantially all of its banking functions. Saturdays, Sundays, and certain specified holidays are not banking days under Regulation CC, although such days might be banking days under the UCC if a bank is open for substantially all of its functions on those days.

Regulation CC requires a bank to make deposited funds available for withdrawal within a certain period after the banking day on which they are received. Cash deposits, wire transfers, and certain check deposits that pose little risk to the depositary bank (such as Treasury checks and cashier’s checks) generally are to be made available for withdrawal by the business day
after the day of deposit. The time when the depositary bank must make other check deposits available for withdrawal depends on whether the check is local or nonlocal to the depositary bank. As of September 1, 1990, proceeds of local and nonlocal checks must be available for withdrawal by the second and fifth business day following deposit, respectively. However, Regulation CC allows a bank to set, within certain limits, cutoff hours, after which the bank will deem funds to be received on the next banking day for purposes of calculating the availability date (12 CFR 229.19). Different cutoff-hour limits apply to different types of deposits.

For the purpose of allowing banks to process checks, the UCC provides that a bank may set a cutoff hour of 2 p.m. or later and that items received after that time will be considered received as of the next banking day (UCC section 4-108). Under both the UCC and Regulation CC, both the banking day on which a bank is deemed to have received a check and the cutoff hour affect the time frames within which a bank must send the check through the forward-collection and return processes.

A bank that fails to set its cutoff hour appropriately, does not make funds available within the appropriate time frames, or processes checks in an untimely manner may be subject to civil liability for not performing its duties in accordance with various provisions of Regulation CC and the UCC.

Banking Accounts for Foreign Governments, Embassies, Missions, and Political Figures

On June 15, 2004, an interagency advisory concerning the embassy banking business and related banking matters was issued by the federal banking and thrift agencies (the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency, the Office of Thrift Supervision, and the National Credit Union Administration (the agencies)). The advisory was issued in coordination with the U.S. Department of the Treasury’s Financial Crimes Enforcement Network. The purpose of the advisory is to provide general guidance to banking organizations regarding the treatment of accounts for foreign governments, foreign embassies, and foreign political figures.

The joint interagency statement advises banking organizations that the decision to accept or reject an embassy or foreign government account is theirs alone to make. The statement advises that financial institutions should be aware that there are varying degrees of risk associated with such accounts, depending on the customer and the nature of the services provided. Institutions should take appropriate steps to manage such risks consistent with sound practices and applicable anti-money-laundering laws and regulations. The advisory also encourages banking organizations to direct questions about embassy banking to their primary federal bank regulators. (See SR-04-10.)

On March 24, 2011, an interagency advisory was issued to supplement SR-04-10, “Banking Accounts for Foreign Governments, Embassies, and Political Figures.” The supplemental advisory provides information to financial institutions regarding the provision of account services to foreign embassies, consulates and to foreign missions in a manner that fulfills the needs of those foreign governments while complying with the provisions of the Bank Secrecy Act (BSA). It advises that financial institutions are expected to demonstrate the capacity to conduct appropriate risk assessments and implement the requisite controls and oversight systems to effectively manage the risk identified in these relationships with foreign missions. The advisory also confirms that it is the financial institution’s decision to accept or reject a foreign mission account. (See SR-11-6 and the attached supplemental interagency advisory.)

Interagency Advisory on Accessing Accounts from Foreign Governments, Embassies, and Foreign Political Figures

The 2004 interagency advisory answers questions on whether financial institutions should conduct business with foreign embassies and whether institutions should establish account services for foreign governments, foreign embassies, and foreign political figures. As it would with any new account, an institution should evaluate whether or not to accept a new account for a foreign government, embassy, or political figure. That decision should be made by the institution’s management, under standards and guidelines established by the board of directors, and should be based on the institution’s own business objectives, its assessment of the risks
associated with particular accounts or lines of business, and its capacity to manage those risks. The agencies will not, in the absence of extraordinary circumstances, direct or encourage any institution to open, close, or refuse a particular account or relationship.

Providing financial services to foreign governments and embassies and to foreign political figures can, depending on the nature of the customer and the services provided, involve varying degrees of risk. Such services can range from account relationships that enable an embassy to handle the payment of operational expenses, for example, payroll, rent, and utilities, to ancillary services or accounts provided to embassy staff or foreign government officials. Each of these relationships potentially poses different levels of risk. Institutions are expected to assess the risks involved in any such relationships and to take steps to ensure both that such risks are appropriately managed and that the institution can do so in full compliance with its obligations under the BSA, as amended by the USA Patriot Act, and the regulations promulgated thereunder.

When an institution elects to establish financial relationships with foreign governments, embassies, or foreign political figures, the agencies, consistent with their usual practice of risk-based supervision, will make their own assessment of the risks involved in such business. As is the case with all accounts, the institution should expect appropriate scrutiny by examiners that is commensurate with the level of risk presented by the account relationship. As in any case where higher risks are presented, the institution should expect an increased level of review by examiners to ensure that the institution has in place controls and compliance oversight systems that are adequate to monitor and manage such risks, as well as personnel trained in the management of such risks and in the requirements of applicable laws and regulations.

Institutions that have or are considering taking on relationships with foreign governments, embassies, or political figures should ensure that such customers are aware of the requirements of U.S. laws and regulations to which the institution is subject. Institutions should, to the maximum extent feasible, seek to structure such relationships in order to conform them to conventional U.S. domestic banking relationships so as to reduce the risks that might be presented by such relationships.

Foreign-Currency Deposits

Domestic depository institutions are permitted to accept deposits denominated in foreign currency. Institutions should notify customers that such deposits are subject to foreign-exchange risk. The bank should convert such accounts to the U.S. dollar equivalent for purposes of reporting to the Federal Reserve. Examination staff should ascertain that all reports are in order and should evaluate the bank’s use of such funds and its management of the accompanying foreign-exchange risk. Accounts denominated in foreign currency are not subject to the requirements of Regulation CC. (See SR-90-03 (IB), “Foreign (Non-U.S.) Currency Denominated Deposits Offered at Domestic Depository Institutions.”)

International Banking Facilities

An international banking facility (IBF) is a set of asset and liability accounts segregated on the books of a depository institution. IBF activities are essentially limited to accepting deposits from and extending credit to foreign residents (including banks), other IBFs, and the institutions establishing the IBF. IBFs are not required to maintain reserves against their time deposits or loans. The examiner should follow the special examination procedures in the international section of this manual when examining an IBF.

Deposits Insured by the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation

The Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) is an independent agency of the U.S. government. The FDIC protects depositors against the loss of their insured deposits due to the failure of an insured bank, savings bank, savings association, insured branch of a foreign bank, or other depository institution whose deposits are insured pursuant to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation Act. If a depositor’s accounts at one FDIC-insured depository institution total up to $250,000 (or the standard maximum deposit insurance amount [SMDIA]), the funds are fully insured and protected. A depositor can have more than the SMDIA at one insured depository institution and still be fully insured provided the accounts meet certain requirements. In addition, federal law currently
provides for insurance coverage of up to $250,000 or the SMDIA.

The FDIC insurance covers all types of deposits received at an insured depository institution, including deposits in checking, negotiable order of withdrawal (NOW), and savings accounts; money market deposit accounts; and time deposits such as certificates of deposit (CDs). FDIC deposit insurance covers the balance of each depositor’s account, dollar-for-dollar, up to the SMDIA, including the principal and any accrued interest through the date of an insured depository institution’s closing.

Deposits in separate branches of an insured depository institution are not separately insured. Deposits in one insured institution are insured separately from deposits in another insured institution. Deposits maintained in different categories of legal ownership at the same depository institution can be separately insured. Therefore, it is possible to have deposits of more than the SMDIA at one insured institution and still be fully insured.

Deposit Insurance Reform Acts

On March 14, 2006, the FDIC amended its deposit insurance regulations (effective April 1, 2006) by issuing an interim rule with a request for public comment on or before May 22, 2006. (See 71 Fed. Reg. 14631, 71 Fed. Reg. 53550 (Sept. 12, 2006) and 12 CFR Part 330.) The interim rule implemented applicable revisions to the Federal Deposit Insurance Act made by the Federal Deposit Insurance Reform Act of 2005 (Reform Act) and the Federal Deposit Insurance Reform Conforming Amendments Act of 2005 (the Conforming Amendments Act). The Reform Act provided for consideration of inflation adjustments (cost-of-living adjustment) to increase the current SMDIA on a five-year cycle beginning on April 1, 2010.

Second, the Reform Act increased the deposit insurance limit for accounts up to $250,000, also subject to inflation adjustments. The types of accounts included are individual retirement accounts (IRAs), eligible deferred compensation plan accounts, and individual account plan accounts, and any plan described in section 401(d) of the IRC, to the extent that participants and beneficiaries under such plans have a right to direct the investment of assets held in individual accounts maintained on their behalf by the plans.

Third, the Reform Act provided per-participant insurance coverage to employee benefit plan accounts, even if the depository institution at which the deposits are placed is not authorized to accept employee benefit plan deposits. The cost-of-living adjustment is to be calculated according to the Personal Consumption Expenditures Chain-type Price Index published by the U.S. Department of Commerce and rounded down to the nearest $10,000.

The Conforming Amendments Act created the term government depositor in connection with public funds described in and insured pursuant to section 11(a)(2) of the Federal Deposit Insurance Act (FDIA). (See 12 USC 1821(a)(2).) The Conforming Amendments Act provides that the deposits of a government depositor are insured in an amount up to the SMDIA, subject to the inflation adjustment described previously.

Deposit Insurance Rule Amendments

Retirement and Employee Benefit Plan Accounts

When deposits from a retirement or employee benefit plan (EBP)—such as a 401(k) retirement account, Keogh plan account, corporate pension plan, or profit-sharing program—are entitled to pass-through insurance, the SMDIA on FDIC insurance does not apply to the entire EBP account balance. Rather, the FDIC insurance coverage “passes through” to each owner or beneficiary, and the deposited funds of each individual EBP participant are insured up to the SMDIA.

The Reform Act and the Conforming Amendments Act, and the FDIC’s March 23, 2006, interim rule eliminated the previous requirement that pass-through coverage for employee benefit plan accounts be dependent on the capital level of a depository institution where such deposits are placed. Pass-through coverage for employee benefit plan deposits was not available if the

1. IRAs described in section 408(a) of the Internal Revenue Code (IRC). (See 26 USC 408(a).)

2. Eligible deferred compensation plan accounts described in section 457 of the IRC. (See 26 USC 457.)

3. Individual account plan accounts such as those defined in section 3(34) of the Employee Retirement Income Security Act.
deposits were placed with an institution that was not permitted to accept brokered deposits because of the capital requirements. Insured institutions that are not “well capitalized” or “adequately capitalized” are now prohibited by the Reform Act from accepting employee benefit plan deposits. Under the Reform Act, employee benefit plan deposits accepted by an insured depository institution, even those prohibited from accepting such deposits, are nonetheless eligible for pass-through deposit insurance coverage. The rule’s amendment (see 12 CFR 330.14) applies to all employee benefit plan deposits, including employee benefit plan deposits placed before April 1, 2006. The rule’s other requirements in section 330.14 continue to apply. In particular, only the “noncontingent” interests of plan participants in an applicable plan are eligible for pass-through coverage. A “noncontingent interest” is an interest that can be determined without the evaluation of contingencies other than life expectancy. The maximum coverage for accounts is up to $250,000 or the SMDIA. These accounts continue to be made up of individual retirement accounts (the traditional IRAs and the Roth IRAs); section 457 deferred compensation plan accounts, “self-directed” Keogh plan accounts (or HR 10 accounts); and “self-directed” defined contribution plan accounts, which are primarily 401(k) plan accounts. The term self-directed means that the plan participants have the right to direct how their funds are invested, including the ability to direct that the funds be invested at an FDIC-insured institution.

Reserve Requirements

The Monetary Control Act of 1980 and the Federal Reserve’s Regulation D, “Reserve Requirements of Depository Institutions,” establish two categories of deposits for reserve-requirement purposes. The first category is the transaction account, which represents a deposit or account from which the depositor or account holder is permitted to make orders of withdrawals by negotiable instrument, payment orders of withdrawal, telephone transfer, or similar devices for making payments to a third party or others. Transaction accounts include demand deposits, NOW accounts, automatic transfer (ATS) accounts, and telephone or preauthorized transfer accounts. The second category is the non-transaction deposit account, which includes all deposits that are not transaction accounts, such as (1) savings deposits, that is, money market deposit accounts and other savings deposits, and (2) time deposits, that is, time certificates of deposit and time deposits, open account. See Regulation D for specific definitions of the various deposit accounts.

Treasury Tax and Loan Accounts

Member banks may select either the “remittance-option” or the “note-option” method to forward deposited funds to the U.S. Treasury. With the remittance option, the bank remits the Treasury Tax and Loan (TT&L) account deposits to the Federal Reserve Bank the next business day after deposit. The remittance portion is not interest-bearing.

The note option permits the bank to retain the TT&L deposits. With the note option, the bank debits the TT&L remittance account for the amount of the previous day’s deposit and simultaneously credits the note-option account. Thus, TT&L funds are now purchased funds evidenced by an interest-bearing, variable-rate, open-ended, secured note callable on demand by Treasury. Rates paid are 1/4 of 1 percent less than the average weekly rate on federal funds. Interest is calculated on the weekly average daily closing balance in the TT&L note-option account. Although there is no required maximum note-option ceiling, banks may establish a maximum balance by providing written notice to the Federal Reserve Bank. As per 31 CFR 203.24, the TT&L balance requires the bank to pledge collateral to secure these accounts, usually from its investment portfolio. The note option is not included in reserve-requirement computations and is not subject to deposit insurance because it is classified as a demand note issued to the U.S. Treasury, a type of borrowing.

POTENTIAL PROBLEM AREAS

The following types of deposit accounts and related activities have above-average risk and, therefore, require the examiner’s special attention.
Bank-Controlled Deposit Accounts

Bank-controlled deposit accounts, such as suspense, official checks, cash-collateral, dealer reserves, and undisbursed loan proceeds, are used to perform many necessary banking functions. However, the absence of sound administrative policies and adequate internal controls can cause significant loss to the bank. To ensure that such accounts are properly administered and controlled, the directorate must ensure that operating policies and procedures are in effect that establish acceptable purpose and use; appropriate entries; controls over posting entries; and the length of time an item may remain unrecorded, unposted, or outstanding. Internal controls that limit employee access to bank-controlled accounts, determine the responsibility for frequency of reconcilement, discourage improper posting of items, and provide for periodic internal supervisory review of account activity are essential to efficient deposit administration.

The deposit suspense account is used to process unidentified, unposted, or rejected items. Characteristically, items posted to such accounts clear in one business day. The length of time an item remains in control accounts often reflects on the bank’s operational efficiency. This deposit type has a higher risk potential because the transactions are incomplete and require manual processing to be completed. As a result of the need for human interaction and the exception nature of these transactions, the possibility of misappropriation exists.

Official checks, a type of demand deposit, include bank checks, cashier’s checks, expense checks, interest checks, dividend-payment checks, certified checks, money orders, and traveler’s checks. Official checks reflect the bank’s promise to pay a specified sum upon presentation of the bank’s check. Because accounts are controlled and reconciled by bank personnel, it is important that appropriate internal controls are in place to ensure that account reconcilement is segregated from check origination. Operational inefficiencies, such as unrecorded checks that have been issued, can result in a significant understatement of the bank’s liabilities. Misuse of official checks may result in substantial losses through theft.

Cash-collateral, dealer differential or reserve, undisbursed loan proceeds, and various loan escrow accounts are also sources of potential loss. The risk lies in inefficiency or misuse if the accounts become overdrawn or if funds are diverted for other purposes, such as the payment of principal or interest on bank loans. Funds deposited to these accounts should be used only for their stated purposes.

Brokered Deposits

As defined in Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) regulations, brokered deposits are funds a depository institution obtains, directly or indirectly, from or through the mediation or assistance of a deposit broker, for deposit into one or more deposit accounts (12 CFR 337.6). Thus, brokered deposits include both those in which the entire beneficial interest in a given bank deposit account or instrument is held by a single depositor and those in which the deposit broker pools funds from more than one investor for deposit in a given bank deposit account.

Section 29 of the Federal Deposit Insurance Act (the FDI Act) (12 USC 1831f(g)(1)) and the FDIC’s regulations (12 CFR 337.6 (a)(5)) define deposit broker to mean—

- any person engaged in the business of placing deposits, or facilitating the placement of deposits, of third parties with insured depository institutions or the business of placing deposits with insured depository institutions for the purpose of selling interests in those deposits to third parties; and
- an agent or a trustee who establishes a deposit account to facilitate a business arrangement with an insured depository institution to use the proceeds of the account to fund a prearranged loan.

The term deposit broker does not include —

- an insured depository institution, with respect to funds placed with that depository institution;
- an employee of an insured depository institution, with respect to funds placed with the employing depository institution;
- a trust department of an insured depository institution, if the trust or other fiduciary relationship in question has not been established for the primary purpose of placing funds with insured depository institutions;
- the trustee of a pension or other employee benefit plan, with respect to funds of the plan;
• a person acting as a plan administrator or an investment adviser in connection with a pension plan or other employee benefit plan provided that person is performing managerial functions with respect to the plan;
• the trustee of a testamentary account;
• the trustee of an irrevocable trust, as long as the trust in question has not been established for the primary purpose of placing funds with insured depository institutions;
• a trustee or custodian of a pension or profit-sharing plan qualified under section 401(d) or 403(a) of the Internal Revenue Code of 1986 (26 USC 401(d), 503(a)); or
• an agent or a nominee whose primary purpose is not the placement of funds with depository institutions; or
• an insured depository institution acting as an intermediary or agent of a U.S. government department or agency for a government-sponsored minority or women-owned depository institution deposit program.

A small- or medium-sized bank’s dependence on the deposits of customers who reside or conduct their business outside of the bank’s normal service area should be closely monitored by the bank and analyzed by the examiner. Such deposits may be the product of personal relationships or good customer service; however, large out-of-area deposits are sometimes attracted by liberal credit accommodations or significantly higher interest rates than competitors offer. Deposit growth that is due to liberal credit accommodations generally proves costly in terms of the credit risks taken relative to the benefits received from corresponding deposits, which may be less stable. Banks outside dynamic metropolitan areas are limited in growth because they usually can maintain stable deposit growth only as a result of prudent reinvestment in the bank’s service area. Deposit development and retention policies should recognize the limits imposed by prudent competition and the bank’s service area.

Historically, most banking organizations have not relied on funds obtained through deposit brokers to supplement their traditional funding sources. A concern regarding the activities of deposit brokers is that the ready availability of large amounts of funds through the issuance of insured obligations undercuts market discipline.

The use of brokered deposits by sound, well-managed banks can play a legitimate role in the asset-liability management of a bank and enhance the efficiency of financial markets. However, the use of brokered deposits also can contribute to the weakening of a bank by allowing it to grow at an unmanageable or imprudent pace and can exacerbate the condition of a troubled bank. Consequently, without proper monitoring and management, brokered and other highly rate-sensitive deposits, such as those obtained through the Internet, certificate of deposit (CD) listing services, and similar advertising programs, may be unstable sources of funding for an institution.

Deposits attracted over the Internet, through CD listing services, or through special advertising programs offering premium rates to customers without another banking relationship, require special monitoring. Although these deposits may not fall within the technical definition of "brokered" in 12 USC 1831f and 12 CFR 337.6, their inherent risk characteristics are similar to brokered deposits. That is, such deposits are typically attractive to rate-sensitive customers who may not have significant loyalty to the bank. Extensive reliance on funding products of this type, especially those obtained from outside a bank’s geographic market area, has the potential to weaken a bank’s funding position.

Some banks have used brokered and Internet-based funding to support rapid growth in loans and other assets. In accordance with the safety-and-soundness standards, a bank’s asset growth should be prudent and its management must consider the source, volatility, and use of the funds generated to support asset growth. (See 12 CFR 208 appendix D-1.)

To compensate for the high rates typically offered for brokered deposits, institutions holding them tend to seek assets that carry commensurately high yields. These assets can often involve excessive credit risk or cause the bank to take on undue interest-rate risk through a mismatch in the maturity of assets and liabilities. The FDI Act (12 USC 1831f) includes certain restrictions on the use of brokered deposits to prohibit undercapitalized insured depository institutions from accepting funds obtained, directly or indirectly, by or through any deposit broker for deposit into one or more deposit accounts.

4. This exception does not apply to an agent or a trustee who establishes a deposit account to facilitate a business arrangement with an insured depository institution to use the proceeds of the account to fund a prearranged loan.
Capital Categories

For the purposes of section 29 of the FDI Act, the regulations of the FDIC and the Federal Reserve (for the FDIC, 12 CFR 325.103 and for the Federal Reserve, 12 CFR 208.43) provide the definitions of well-capitalized, adequately capitalized, and undercapitalized financial institutions (banks). These definitions are tied to percentages of leverage and risk-based capital. Section 29 of the FDI Act limits the rates of interest on brokered deposits that may be offered by insured depository institutions that are adequately capitalized or undercapitalized.

Well-capitalized bank. A bank is deemed to be well capitalized if it—

- has a total risk-based capital ratio of 10.0 percent or greater;
- has a tier 1 risk-based capital ratio of 6.0 percent or greater;
- has a leverage ratio of 5.0 percent or greater; and
- is not subject to any written agreement, order, capital directive, or prompt-corrective-action directive issued by the Board pursuant to section 8 of the FDI Act (12 USC 1818), the International Lending Supervision Act of 1983 (12 USC 3907), or section 38 of the FDI Act (12 USC 1831o), or any regulation thereunder, to meet and maintain a specific capital level for any capital measure.

A well-capitalized insured depository institution may solicit and accept, renew, or roll over any brokered deposit without restriction.

Adequately capitalized bank. A bank is deemed to be adequately capitalized if it—

- has a total risk-based capital ratio of 8.0 percent or greater;
- has a tier 1 risk-based capital ratio of 4.0 percent or greater;
- has a leverage ratio of 4.0 percent or greater; and
- is not subject to any written agreement, order, capital directive, or prompt-corrective-action directive issued by the Board pursuant to section 8 of the FDI Act (12 USC 1818), the International Lending Supervision Act of 1983 (12 USC 3907), or section 38 of the FDI Act (12 USC 1831o), or any regulation thereunder, to meet and maintain a specific capital level for any capital measure.

An adequately capitalized insured depository institution may not accept, renew, or roll over any brokered deposit unless it has applied for and been granted a waiver of this prohibition by the FDIC. If the insured depository institution has been granted a waiver by the FDIC, the institution may accept, renew, or roll over a brokered deposit. The institution may not pay an effective yield on the deposit that exceeds, by more than 75 basis points: (1) the effective yield paid on deposits of comparable size and maturity, and for deposits accepted, within the institution’s normal market area or (2) the “national rate” paid on deposits of comparable size and maturity for deposits accepted outside the institution’s normal market area. The national rate is 120 or 130 basis points of the current yield on similar-maturity U.S. Treasury obligations, depending on whether the deposit is FDIC insured or more than half uninsured (the portion of the deposit that is in excess of the FDIC-insured limit, as detailed in the rule).

If an FDIC-insured bank is adequately capitalized and does not have a waiver from the FDIC, it may not use a broker to obtain deposits. The following rate restrictions on deposits also apply: (1) the deposit rates may be no more than 75 basis points over the effective yield on deposits of comparable size and maturity within the bank’s normal market area and (2) the deposit rates may not be based on a “national” rate.

Undercapitalized bank. A bank is deemed to be undercapitalized if it—

- has a total risk-based capital ratio that is less than 8.0 percent;
- has a tier 1 risk-based capital ratio that is less than 4.0 percent;
- has a leverage ratio that is less than 4.0 percent; or
- has a leverage ratio that is less than 3.0 percent.

5. For deposits obtained through Internet solicitations, the determination of the bank’s “normal market area” is particularly problematic and difficult.

6. An exception is available when (1) the bank has a leverage ratio of 3.0 percent or greater, (2) the bank is rated composite 1 under the CAMELS rating system following its most-recent bank examination, and (3) the bank is not experiencing or anticipating significant growth.
cent, if the bank is rated composite 1 under the CAMELS rating system in the most recent examination of the bank and is not experiencing or anticipating significant growth.

An undercapitalized insured depository institution may not accept, renew, or roll over any brokered deposit. Also, an undercapitalized insured depository institution (and any employee of the institution) may not solicit deposits by offering an effective yield that exceeds by more than 75 basis points the prevailing effective yields on insured deposits of comparable maturity in the institution’s normal market area or in the market area in which such deposits are being solicited.

Each examination should include a review for compliance with the FDIC’s limitations on the acceptance of brokered deposits and guidelines on interest payments. The use of brokered deposits should be reviewed during all on-site examinations, even in those institutions not subject to the FDIC’s restrictions. Given the potential risks involved in using brokered deposits, the examination should focus on the—

• rate of growth and the credit quality of the loans or investments funded by brokered deposits;
• corresponding quality of loan files, documentation, and customer credit information;
• ability of bank management to adequately evaluate and administer these credits and manage the resulting growth;
• degree of interest-rate risk involved in the funding activities and the existence of a possible mismatch in the maturity or rate sensitivity of assets and liabilities;
• composition and stability of the deposit sources and the role of brokered deposits in the bank’s overall funding position and strategy; and
• effect of brokered deposits on the bank’s financial condition and whether the use of brokered deposits constitutes an unsafe and unsound banking practice.

The examiner should identify relevant concerns in the examination report when brokered deposits amount to 5 percent or more of the bank’s total deposits.

Risk-Management Expectations for Brokered Deposits

On May 11, 2001, the Federal Reserve Board and the other federal banking agencies (the agencies) issued a Joint Agency Advisory on Brokered and Rate-Sensitive Deposits. The advisory sets forth the following risk-management guidelines for brokered deposits. The bank’s management is expected to implement risk-management systems that are commensurate in complexity with the liquidity and funding risks that the bank undertakes. (See SR-01-14.) Such systems should incorporate the following principles:

• Proper funds-management policies. A good policy should generally provide for forward planning, establish an appropriate cost structure, and set realistic limitations and business strategies. It should clearly convey the board’s risk tolerance and should not be ambiguous about who holds responsibility for funds-management decisions.

• Adequate due diligence when assessing deposit brokers. Bank management should implement adequate due diligence procedures before entering any business relationship with a deposit broker. The agencies do not regulate deposit brokers.

• Due diligence in assessing the potential risk to earnings and capital associated with brokered or other rate-sensitive deposits, and prudent strategies for their use. Bankers should manage highly sensitive funding sources carefully, avoiding excessive reliance on funds that may be only temporarily available or which may require premium rates to retain.

• Reasonable control structures to limit funding concentrations. Limit structures should consider typical behavioral patterns for depositors or investors and be designed to control excessive reliance on any significant source(s) or type of funding. This includes brokered funds and other rate-sensitive or credit-sensitive deposits obtained through the Internet or other types of advertising.

• Management information systems (MIS) that clearly identify nonrelationship or higher-cost funding programs and allow management to track performance, manage funding gaps, and monitor compliance with concentration and...
other risk limits. At a minimum, MIS should include a listing of funds obtained through each significant program, rates paid on each instrument and an average per program, information on maturity of the instruments, and concentration or other limit monitoring and reporting. Management also should ensure that brokered deposits are properly reported in the bank’s Consolidated Reports of Condition and Income.  

- Contingency funding plans that address the risk that these deposits may not “roll over” and provide a reasonable alternative funding strategy. Contingency funding plans should factor in the potential for changes in market acceptance if reduced rates are offered on rate-sensitive deposits. The potential for triggering legal limitations that restrict the bank’s access to brokered deposits under Prompt Corrective Action (PCA) standards, and the effect that this would have on the bank’s liability structure, should also be factored into the plan.

Examiners should assess carefully the liquidity-risk management framework at all banks. Banks with meaningful reliance on brokered or other rate-sensitive deposits should receive the appropriate level of supervisory attention. Examiners should not wait for PCA provisions to be triggered or the viability of the bank to come into question, before raising relevant safety-and-soundness issues with regard to the use of these funding sources. If a determination is made that a bank’s use of these funding sources is not safe and sound, or that these risks are excessive or that they adversely affect the bank’s condition, then the examiner or central point of contact should recommend to the Reserve Bank management that it consider taking immediate appropriate supervisory action. The following represent potential red flags that may indicate the need to take such action to ensure the risks associated with brokered or other rate-sensitive funding sources are managed appropriately:

- ineffective management or the absence of appropriate expertise
- a newly chartered institution with few rela-
- tionship deposits and an aggressive growth strategy
- inadequate internal audit coverage
- inadequate information systems or controls
- identified or suspected fraud
- high on- or off-balance-sheet growth rates
- use of rate-sensitive funds not in keeping with the bank’s strategy
- inadequate consideration of risk, with management focus exclusively on rates
- significant funding shifts from traditional funding sources
- the absence of adequate policy limitations on these kinds of funding sources
- high loan delinquency rate or deterioration in other asset-quality indicators
- deterioration in the general financial condition of the institution
- other conditions or circumstances warranting the need for administrative action

Check Kiting

Check kiting occurs when—

- a depositor with accounts at two or more banks draws checks against the uncollected balance at one bank to take advantage of the float—that is, the time required for the bank of deposit to collect from the paying bank, and
- the depositor initiates the transaction with the knowledge that sufficient collected funds will not be available to support the amount of the checks drawn on all of the accounts.

The key to this deceptive practice, the most prevalent type of check fraud, is the ability to draw against uncollected funds. However, drawing against uncollected funds in and of itself does not necessarily indicate kiting. Kiting only occurs when the aggregate amount of drawings exceeds the sum of the collected balances in all accounts. Nevertheless, since drawing against uncollected funds is the initial step in the kiting process, management should closely monitor this activity. The requirements of Regulation CC, Availability of Funds and Collection of Checks, increased the risk of check kiting, and should be addressed in a bank’s policies and procedures.

By allowing a borrower to draw against uncollected funds, the bank is extending credit that should be subject to an appropriate approval

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7. See the FFIEC bank Call Report and Instructions for Consolidated Reports of Condition and Income, Schedule RC-E—Deposit Liabilities.
process. Accordingly, management should promptly investigate unusual or unauthorized activity since the last bank to recognize check kiting and pay on the uncollected funds suffers the loss. Check kiting is illegal and all suspected or known check kiting operations should be reported pursuant to established Federal Reserve policy. Banks should maintain internal controls to preclude loss from kiting, and the examiner should remember that in most cases kiting is not covered under Blanket Bond Standard Form 24.

Delayed Disbursement Practices

Although Regulation CC, Availability of Funds and Collection of Checks, stipulates time frames for funds availability and return of items, delayed disbursement practices (also known as remote disbursement practices) can present certain risks, especially concerning cashier’s checks, which have next-day availability. Delayed disbursement is a common cash management practice that consists of arrangements designed to delay the collection and final settlement of checks by drawing checks on institutions located substantial distances from the payee or on institutions located outside the Federal Reserve cities when alternate and more efficient payment arrangements are available. Such practices deny depositors the availability of funds to the extent that funds could otherwise have been available earlier. A check drawn on an institution remote from the payee often results in increased possibilities of check fraud and in higher processing and transportation costs for return items.

Delayed disbursement arrangements could give rise to supervisory concerns because a bank may unknowingly incur significant credit risk through such arrangements. The remote location of institutions offering delayed disbursement arrangements often increases the collection time for checks by at least a day. The primary risk is payment against uncollected funds, which could be a method of extending unsecured credit to a depositor. Absent proper and complete documentation regarding the creditworthiness of the depositor, paying items against uncollected funds could be considered an unsafe or unsound banking practice. Furthermore, such loans, even if properly documented, might exceed the bank’s legal lending limit for loans to one customer.

Examiners should routinely review a bank’s practices in this area to ensure that such practices are conducted prudently. If undue or undocumented credit risk is disclosed or if lending limits are exceeded, appropriate corrective action should be taken.

Deposit Sweep Programs or Master-Note Arrangements

Deposit sweep programs or master-note arrangements (sweep programs) can be implemented on a bank level or on a parent bank holding company (BHC) level. On a bank level, these sweep programs exist primarily to facilitate the cash-management needs of bank customers, thereby retaining customers who might otherwise move their account to an entity offering higher yields. On a BHC level, the sweep programs are maintained with customers at the bank level, and the funds are upstreamed to the parent as part of the BHC’s funding strategy. Sweep programs use an agreement with the bank’s deposit customers (typically corporate accounts) that permits these customers to reinvest amounts in their deposit accounts above a designated level in overnight obligations of the parent bank holding company, another affiliate of the bank, or a third party. These obligations include instruments such as commercial paper, program notes, and master-note agreements. (See SR-90-31.)

The disclosure agreement regarding the sale of the nondeposit debt obligations should include a statement indicating that these instruments are not federally insured deposits or obligations of or guaranteed by an insured depository institution. In addition, banks and their subsidiaries that have issued or plan to issue nondeposit debt obligations should not market or sell these instruments in any public area of the bank where retail deposits are accepted, including any lobby area of the bank. This requirement exists to convey the impression or understanding that the purchase of such obligations by retail depositors of the subsidiary bank can, in the event of default, result in losses to individuals who believed they had acquired federally insured or guaranteed obligations.

Bank Policies and Procedures

Banking organizations with sweep programs should have adequate policies, procedures, and internal controls in place to ensure that the
activity is conducted in a manner consistent with safe and sound banking principles and in accordance with all banking laws and regulations. Bank policies and procedures should further ensure that deposit customers participating in a sweep program are given proper disclosures and information. When a sweep program is used as part of a funding strategy for a BHC or a nonbank affiliate, examiners should ensure that liquidity and funding strategies are carried out in a prudent manner.

Application of Deposit Proceeds

In view of the extremely short-term maturity of most swept funds, banks and BHCs are expected to exercise great care when investing the proceeds. Banks, from whom deposit funds are swept, have a fiduciary responsibility to their customers to ensure that such transactions are conducted properly. Appropriate uses of the proceeds of deposit sweep funds are limited to short-term bank obligations, short-term U.S. government securities, or other highly liquid, readily marketable, investment-grade assets that can be disposed of with minimal loss of principal. When deposit sweep funds are invested in U.S. government securities, appropriate agreements must be in place, required disclosures must be made, and daily confirmations must be provided to the customer in accordance with the requirements of the Government Securities Act of 1986. Use of such proceeds to finance mismatched asset positions, such as those involving leases, loans, or loan participations, can lead to liquidity problems and are not considered appropriate. The absence of a clear ability to redeem overnight or extremely short-term liabilities when they become due should generally be viewed as an unsafe and unsound banking activity.

Funding Strategies

A key principle underlying the Federal Reserve’s supervision of banking organizations is that BHCs operate in a way that promotes the soundness of their subsidiary banks. BHCs are expected to avoid funding strategies or practices that could undermine public confidence in the liquidity or stability of their banks. Any funding strategy should maintain an adequate degree of liquidity at both the parent level and the subsidiary bank level. Bank management should avoid, to the extent possible, allowing sweep programs to serve as a source of funds for inappropriate uses at the BHC or at an affiliate. Concerns exist in this regard because funding mismatches can exacerbate an otherwise manageable period of financial stress and, in the extreme, undermine public confidence in a banking organization’s viability.

Funding Programs

In developing and carrying out funding programs, BHCs should give special attention to the use of overnight or extremely short-term liabilities, since a loss of confidence in the issuing organization could lead to an immediate funding problem. Thus BHCs relying on overnight or extremely short-term funding sources should maintain a sufficient level of superior-quality assets (at a level at least equal to the amount of the funding sources’) that can be immediately liquidated or converted to cash with minimal loss.

Dormant Accounts

A dormant account is one in which customer-originated activity has not occurred for a predetermined period of time. Because of this inactivity, dormant accounts are frequently the target of malfeasance and should be carefully controlled by a bank. Bank management should establish standards that specifically outline the bank’s policy for the effective control of dormant accounts, addressing—

- the types of deposit categories that could contain dormant accounts, including demand, savings, and official checks;
- the length of time without customer-originated activity that qualifies an account to be identified as dormant;

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8. Some banking organizations have interpreted language in a 1987 letter signed by the secretary of the Board as condoning funding practices that may not be consistent with the principles set forth in a subsequent supervisory letter dated September 21, 1990, as well as with prior Board rulings. The 1987 letter involved a limited set of facts and circumstances that pertained to a particular banking organization; it did not establish or revise Federal Reserve policies on the proper use of the proceeds of short-term funding sources. In any event, banking organizations should no longer rely on the 1987 letter to justify the manner in which they use the proceeds of sweep programs. Banking organizations employing sweep programs are expected to ensure that these programs conform with the policies in this manual section.
Employee Deposit Accounts

Historically, examiners have discovered various irregularities and potential malfeasance through review of employee deposit accounts. As a result, bank policy should establish standards that segregate or specially encode employee accounts and should encourage periodic internal supervisory review. In light of these concerns, examiners should review related bank procedures and practices, taking appropriate measures when warranted.

Overdrafts

The size, frequency, and duration of deposit-account overdrafts are matters that should be governed by bank policy and controlled by adequate internal controls, practices, and procedures. Overdraft authority should be approved in the same manner as lending authority and should never exceed the employee’s lending authority. Systems for monitoring and reporting overdrafts should emphasize a secondary level of administrative control that is distinct from other lending functions so account officers who are less than objective do not allow influential customers to exploit their overdraft privileges. A bank’s payment of overdrafts of executive officers and directors of the bank is generally prohibited under Regulation O. (See 12 CFR 215.4(e).) It is the board of directors’ responsibility to review overdrafts as they would any other extension of credit. Overdrafts outstanding for more than 60 days, lacking mitigating circumstances, should be considered for charge-off. See SR-05-3/CA-05-2 and section 2130.1 on the February 18, 2005, Interagency Joint Guidance on Overdraft Protection Programs.

Payable-Through Accounts

A payable-through account is an accommodation offered to a correspondent bank or other customer by a U.S. banking organization whereby drafts drawn against client subaccounts at the correspondent are paid upon presentation by the U.S. banking institution. The subaccount holders of the payable-through bank are generally non-U.S. residents or owners of businesses located outside of the United States. Usually the contract between the U.S. banking organization and the payable-through bank purports to create a contractual relationship solely between the two parties to the contract. Under the contract, the payable-through bank is responsible for screening subaccount holders and maintaining adequate records with respect to such holders. The examiner should be aware of the potential effect of money laundering.

Public Funds

Public funds generally represent deposits of the U.S. government, as well as state and political subdivisions, and typically require collateral in the form of securities to be pledged against them. A bank’s reliance upon public funds can cause potential liquidity concerns if the aggregate amount, as a percentage of total deposits, is material relative to the bank’s asset-liability management practices. Another factor that can cause potential liquidity concerns relates to the volatile nature of these deposits.

This volatility occurs because the volume of public funds normally fluctuates on a seasonal basis due to timing differences between tax collections and expenditures. A bank’s ability to attract public funds is typically based upon the government entity’s assessment of three key points:

- the safety and soundness of the institution with which the funds have been placed
- the yield on the funds being deposited
- that such deposits are placed with a bank that can provide or arrange the best banking service at the least cost

Additionally, banks that offer competitive interest rates and provide collection, financial advisory, underwriting, and data processing services at competitive costs are frequently chosen as depositories. Public funds deposits acquired
through political influence should be regarded as particularly volatile. As a result, an examiner should pay particular attention to assessing the volatility of such funds in conjunction with the review of liquidity.

Zero-Balance Accounts

Zero-balance accounts (ZBAs) are demand deposit accounts used by a bank’s corporate customers through which checks or drafts are received for either deposit or payment. The total amount received on any particular day is offset by a corresponding debit or credit to the account before the close of business to maintain the balance at or near zero. ZBAs enable a corporate treasurer to effectively monitor cash receipts and disbursements. For example, as checks arrive for payment, they are charged to a ZBA with the understanding that funds to cover the checks will be deposited before the end of the banking day.

Several common methods used to cover checks include—

- wire transfers;
- depository transfer checks, a bank-prepared payment instrument used to transfer money from a corporate account in one bank to another bank;
- concentration accounts, a separate corporate demand deposit account at the same bank used to cover deficits or channel surplus funds relative to the ZBA; or
- extended settlement, a cash-management arrangement that does not require the corporate customer to provide same-day funds for payment of its checks.

Because checks are covered before the close of business on the day they arrive, the bank’s exposure is not reflected in the financial statement. The bank, however, assumes risk by paying against uncollected funds, thereby creating unsecured extensions of credit during the day (which is referred to as a daylight overdraft between the account holder and the bank). If these checks are not covered, an overdraft occurs, which will be reflected on the bank’s financial statement.

The absence of prudent safeguards and a lack of full knowledge of the creditworthiness of the depositor may expose the bank to large, unwarranted, and unnecessary risks. Moreover, the magnitude of unsecured credit risk may exceed prudent limits. Examiners should routinely review cash-management policies and procedures to ensure that banks do not engage in unsafe and unsound banking practices, making appropriate comments in the report of examination, as necessary.
Deposit Accounts
Examination Objectives
Effective date November 2006

1. To determine if the policies, practices, procedures, and internal controls regarding deposit accounts are adequate.
2. To determine if the bank’s management implemented adequate risk-management systems for brokered and rate-sensitive deposits that are commensurate with the liquidity and funding risks the bank has undertaken.
3. To determine if the bank’s policies, practices, procedures, and internal controls (including compliance oversight, management reporting, and staff training) for account relationships involving foreign governments, foreign embassies, and foreign political figures (as well as foreign-currency customer deposit accounts) are adequate for the varied risks posed by these accounts.
4. To determine if bank officers and employees are operating in conformance with the bank’s established guidelines.
5. To evaluate the deposit structure and determine its characteristics and volatility.
6. To determine the scope and adequacy of the audit function.
7. To determine compliance with applicable laws and regulations.
8. To initiate corrective action when policies, practices, procedures, or internal controls are deficient, or when violations of laws or regulations are noted.
Deposit Accounts
Examination Procedures
Effective date April 2012
Section 3000.3

1. Determine the scope of the examination of the deposit-taking function. In so doing, consider the findings of prior examinations, related work prepared by internal and external auditors, deficiencies in internal controls noted within other bank functions, and the requirements of examiners assigned to review the asset/liability management and interest-rate risk aspects of the bank.

2. If required by the scope, implement the “Deposit Accounts” internal control questionnaire.

3. Test the deposit function for compliance with policies, procedures, and internal controls in conjunction with performing the remaining examination procedures. Also, obtain a listing of any deficiencies noted in the latest internal or external audit review, then determine if appropriate corrections have been made.

4. In conducting the examination, use available bank copies of printouts plus transactions journals or other visual media to minimize expense to the bank. However, if copies of these reports are not available, determine what information is necessary to complete the examination procedures and request that information from the bank.

   Obtain or prepare, as applicable, the reports indicated below, which are used for a variety of purposes, including the assessment of deposit volatility and liquidity, the assessment of the adequacy of internal controls, the verification of information on required regulatory reports, and the assessment of loss.

   a. For demand deposits and other transaction accounts:
      - trial balance
      - overdrafts
      - unposted items
      - nonsufficient-funds (NSF) report
      - dormant accounts
      - public funds
      - uncashed checks
      - due to banks
      - trust department funds
      - significant activity
      - suspected kiting report
      - matured certificates of deposit without an automatic renewal feature
      - large-balance report

   b. For official checks:
      - trial balance(s)
      - exception list

   c. For savings accounts:
      - trial balance
      - unposted items
      - overdrafts
      - dormant accounts
      - public funds
      - trust department funds
      - large-balance report

   d. For other time deposits:
      - trial balance(s)
      - large-balance report
      - unposted items
      - public funds
      - trust department funds
      - money market accounts

   e. For certificates of deposit:
      - trial balance(s)
      - unposted items
      - public funds
      - certificates of $100,000 or more
      - negotiable certificates of deposit
      - maturity reports
      - matured certificates of deposit

   f. For deposit sweep programs or master-note arrangements, list individually by deposit type and amount.

   g. For brokered deposits, list individually by deposit type, including amount and rate.

   h. For bank-controlled accounts:
      - reconcilement records for all such accounts
      - names and extensions of individuals authorized to make entries to such accounts
      - name and phone extension of reconcile clerk(s)

   i. For the bank’s foreign-currency customer deposit accounts and the deposit accounts for foreign governments, embassies, and political figures:
      - list of accounts and currency type
      - list of currency transactions over $10,000 for each account, and the copies of their Currency Transaction...
Report or its equivalent, since the previous examination (See 31 CFR 1010.330 and its examples.)

• the most recent internal audit report covering the review of those accounts, the risks associated with the accounts, the internal controls over those accounts, and the staff’s completion of the Currency Transaction Report
• the completed copies of the Report of Foreign (Non-U.S.) Currency Deposits, Form 2915, that have been submitted since the previous examination

5. Review the reconcilement of all types of deposit accounts. Verify the balances to department controls and the general ledger.
   a. Determine if reconciliation items are legitimate and if they clear within a reasonable time frame.
   b. Retain custody of all trial balances until items outstanding are resolved.

6. Review the reconciliation process for bank-controlled accounts, such as official checks and escrow deposits, by—
   a. determining if reconciling items are legitimate and if they clear within a reasonable time frame;
   b. scanning activity in such accounts to determine the potential for improper diversion of funds for various uses, such as—
      • political contributions,
      • loan payments (principal and interest), or
      • personal use; and
   c. determining if checks are being processed before their related credits.

7. Review the bank’s operating procedures and reconciliation process relative to suspense accounts. Determine if—
   a. the disposition process of unidentified items is completed in a timely fashion;
   b. reports are generated periodically to inform management of the type, age, and amount of items in such accounts; and
   c. employees responsible for clearing suspense-account items are not shifting the items between accounts.

8. Evaluate the effectiveness of the written policies and procedures and of management’s reporting methods regarding overdrafts and drawings against uncollected funds.
   a. Concerning overdrafts, determine if—
      • officer-approval limits have been established, and
      • a formal system of review and approval is in effect.
   b. Determine whether the depository institution has an overdraft-protection program and if it has adequate written policies and procedures to address the credit, operational, and other risks associated with those programs. See the February 18, 2005, interagency Joint Guidance on Overdraft Protection Programs (SR-05-3/CA-05-2). If the bank provides overdraft protection, perform the following procedures:
      • Obtain a master list of all depositors with formal overdraft protection.
      • Obtain a trial balance indicating advances outstanding and compare it with the master list to ensure compliance with approved limits.
      • Cross-reference the trial balance or master list to examiner loan line sheets.
      • Review credit files on significant formal agreements not cross-referenced above.
      • Ascertain whether there is ongoing monitoring of overdrafts to identify customers who may pose an undue credit risk to the bank.
      • Find out if the bank has incorporated into its overdraft-protection program prudent risk-management practices pertaining to account repayment and the suspension of a customer’s overdraft-protection services when the customer does not satisfy repayment and eligibility requirements.
      • Determine whether overdrafts are properly and accurately reported according to generally accepted accounting principles on the bank’s financial statements and on its Reports of Condition and Income (Call Reports). Verify that overdrafts are reported as loans on the Report of Condition.
      • Verify the existence of the bank’s loss-estimation procedures for overdraft and fee balances. Determine if the procedures are adequately rigorous and if losses are properly accounted for as part of (1) the allowance for loan and lease losses (ALLL) or (2) the loss allowance for uncollectible fees (alternatively, the bank may recognize only
that portion of earned fees estimated to be collectible, if applicable.1

• When applicable, validate (1) whether the bank’s overdraft commitments have been assigned the correct conversion factor, (2) whether they are accurately risk-weighted by obligor, and (3) if the commitment terms comply with the risk-based capital guidelines.

• Determine whether the bank has obtained assurances from its legal counsel that its overdraft-protection program is fully compliant with all applicable federal and state laws and regulations, including the Federal Trade Commission Act.

• When the bank contracts with third-party vendors to do information technology work, determine if the bank conducted proper due diligence before entering into the contract and that it followed the November 28, 2000, guidance on the Risk Management of Outsourced Technology Services. (See SR-00-17.)

c. Concerning drawings against uncollected funds, determine if—

• the uncollected-funds report reflects balances as uncollected until they are actually received;

• management is comparing reports of significant changes in balances and activity volume with uncollected-funds reports;

• management knows the reasons why a depositor is frequently drawing against uncollected funds;

• a reporting system to inform senior management of significant activity in the uncollected-funds area has been instituted; and

• appropriate employees clearly understand the mechanics of drawing against uncollected funds and the risks involved, especially in the area of potential check-kiting operations.

d. After completing steps 8.a., 8.b., and 8.c.—

• cross-reference overdraft and uncollected-funds reports to examiner loan line sheets;

• review the credit files of depositors with significant overdrafts, if available, or the credit files of depositors who frequently draw significant amounts against uncollected funds, for those depositors not cross-referenced in the preceding step;

• request management to charge off overdrafts deemed to be uncollectible; and

• submit a list of the following items to the appropriate examiner:

— overdrafts considered loss, indicating borrower and amount
— aggregate amounts overdrawn 30 days or more past due, for inclusion in past-due statistics

9. Review the bank’s deposit development and retention policy, which is often included in the funds-management policy.

a. Determine if the policy addresses the deposit structure and related interest costs, including the percentages of time deposits and demand deposits of—

• individuals,

• corporations, and

• public entities.

b. Determine if the policy requires periodic reports to management comparing the accuracy of projections with results.

c. Assess the reasonableness of the policy, and ensure that it is routinely reviewed by management.

10. If a deposit sweep program or master-note arrangement exists, review the minutes of the board of directors for approval of related policies and procedures.

11. For banks with deposit sweep programs or master-note arrangements (sweep programs), compare practices for adherence to approved policies and procedures. Review the following:

a. The purpose of the sweep program: Is it strictly a customer-accommodation transaction, or is it intended to fund certain assets at the holding company level or at an affiliate? Review funding transactions in light of liquidity and funding needs of the banking organization by referring to section 4020.1.

b. The eligibility requirements used by the bank to determine the types of customers and accounts that may participate in a sweep program, including—

• a list of customers participating in

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1. Institutions may charge off uncollectible overdraft fees against the ALLL if such fees are recorded with overdraft balances as loans and if estimated credit losses on the fees are provided for in the ALLL.
sweep programs, with dollar amounts of deposit funds swept on the date of examination, and

• the name of the recipient(s) of swept funds.
  — If the recipient is an affiliate of the bank, include a schedule of the instruments into which the funds were swept, including the effective maturity of these instruments.
  — If the recipient is an unaffiliated third party, determine if the bank adequately evaluates the third party’s financial condition at least annually. Also, verify if a fee is received by the bank for the transaction. If so, determine that the fee is disclosed in customer documentation.

c. Whether the proceeds of sweep programs are invested only in short-term bank obligations; short-term U.S. government securities; or other highly liquid, readily marketable, investment-grade assets that can be disposed of with minimal loss of principal.

d. Whether the bank and its subsidiaries have issued or plan to issue nondeposit debt obligations in any public area of the bank where retail deposits are accepted, including any lobby area of the bank.

e. Completed sweep-program documents to determine the following:
  • Signed documents boldly disclose that the instrument into which deposit funds will be swept is not insured by the FDIC and is not an obligation of, or guaranteed by, the bank.
  • Proper authorization for the instrument exists between the customer and an authorized representative of the bank.
  • Signed documents properly disclose the name of the obligor and the type of instrument into which the depositor’s funds will be swept. If funds are being swept into U.S. government securities held by the banking organization, verify that adequate confirmations are provided to customers in accordance with the Government Securities Act of 1986. (This act requires that all transactions subject to a repurchase agreement be confirmed in writing at the end of the day of initiation and that the confirmation confirms specific securities. If any other securities are substituted that result in a change of issuer, maturity date, par amount, or coupon rate, another confirmation must be issued at the end of the day during which the substitution occurred. Because the confirmation or safekeeping receipt must list specific securities, “pooling” of securities for any type of sweep program involving government securities is not permitted. Additionally, if funds are swept into other instruments, similar confirmation procedures should be applied.)
  • Conditions of the sweep program are stated clearly, including the dollar amount (minimum or maximum amounts and incremental amounts), time frame of sweep, time of day the sweep transaction occurs, fees payable, transaction confirmation notice, prepayment terms, and termination notice.
  • The length of any single transaction under sweep programs in effect has not exceeded 270 days and the amount is $25,000 or more (as stipulated by SEC policy). Ongoing sweep-program disclosures should occasionally be sent to the customer to ensure that the terms of the program are updated and the customer understands the terms.

f. Samples of advertisements (newspaper, radio, television spots, etc.) by the bank for sweep programs to determine if the advertisements—
  • boldly disclose that the instrument into which deposit funds are swept is not insured by the FDIC and is not an obligation of, or guaranteed by, the bank, and
  • are not enclosed with insured deposit statements mailed to customers.

g. Whether the sweep program has had a negative effect on bank liquidity or has the potential to undermine public confidence in the bank.
  • Review the bank’s federal funds and borrowing activities to ascertain whether borrowings appear high. If so, compare the bank’s borrowing activity with daily balances of aggregate sweep transactions on selected dates to see if a correlation exists.
• If sweep activity is significant, compare the rates being paid on swept deposits with the yields received on the invested funds and with the rates on other overnight funding instruments, such as federal funds, to determine if they are reasonable.

12. Forward the following to the examiner assigned to asset/liability management:
   a. the amount of any deposit decline or deposit increase anticipated by management (the time period will be determined by the examiner performing asset/liability management)
   b. a listing by name and amount of any depositor controlling more than 1 percent of total deposits
   c. a listing, if available, by name and amount of any deposits held solely because of premium rates paid (brokered deposits)
   d. the aggregate amount of brokered deposits
   e. a maturity schedule of certificates of deposit, detailing maturities within the next 30, 60, 90, 180, and 360 days
   f. an assessment of the overall characteristics and volatility of the deposit structure

13. Analyze UBPR data on deposits and related expense ratios, and compare with peer-group norms to determine—
   a. variations from the norm, and
   b. trends in the deposit structure with respect to—
      • growth patterns, and
      • shifts between deposit categories.

14. Assess the volatility and the composition of the bank’s deposit structure.
   a. Review the list of time certificates of deposit of $100,000 or more and related management reports, including those on brokered deposits, to determine—
      • whether concentrations of maturing deposits exist;
      • whether a concentration of deposits to a single entity exists;
      • the aggregate dollar volume of accounts of depositors outside the bank’s normal service area, if significant, and the geographic areas from which any significant volume emanates;
      • the aggregate dollar volume of CDs that have interest rates higher than current publicly quoted rates within the market;
      • If the bank is undercapitalized, as defined in the FDIC’s regulation on brokered deposits, ensure that it is not accepting brokered deposits. (See 12 CFR 337.6.)
      • If the bank is only adequately capitalized, as defined in the FDIC’s regulation and is accepting brokered deposits, ensure that a waiver authorizing acceptance of such deposits has been obtained from the FDIC and that the bank is in compliance with the interest-rate restrictions. (See 12 CFR 337.6(b)(2) and (3).)
   c. Determine if the bank has risk-management systems to monitor and control its liquidity and funding risks that are associated with the bank’s brokered and rate-sensitive deposits.
   d. Ascertain if the bank’s risk-management systems for its brokered and rate-sensitive deposits are adequate and if they are commensurate with the complexity of its liquidity and funding risks. Determine if the bank has the following:
      • proper funds-management policies;
      • adequate due diligence when assessing the risks associated with deposit brokers;
      • due diligence in assessing the potential risk to earnings and capital associated with brokered or other rate-sensitive deposits, and prudent strategies for their use;
      • reasonable control structures to limit funding concentrations;
      • management information systems (MIS) that clearly identify nonrelationship or higher-cost funding programs that allow management to track performance, manage funding gaps, and monitor compliance with concentration and other risk limits; and
      • contingency funding plans that address the risk that these deposits may
not “roll over” and provide a reasonable alternative funding strategy.

e. Review public funds and the bank’s method of acquiring such funds to assess whether the bank uses competitive bidding in setting the interest rate paid on public deposits. If so, does the bank consider variables in addition to rates paid by competition in determining pricing for bidding on public deposits?

f. Review appropriate trial balances for all other deposits (demand, savings, and other time deposits). Review management reports that relate to large deposits for individuals, partnerships, corporations, and related deposit accounts to determine whether a deposit concentration exists.

• Select, at a minimum, the 10 largest accounts to determine if the retention of those accounts depends on—
  — criticizable loan relationships;
  — liberal service accommodations, such as permissive overdrafts and drawings against uncollected funds;
  — interbank correspondent relationships;
  — deposits obtained as a result of special promotions; and
  — a recognizable trend with respect to—
    • frequent significant balance fluctuations,
    • seasonal fluctuations, and
    • nonseasonal increases or decreases in average balances.

g. Elicit management’s comments to determine, to the extent possible—

• the potential renewal of large CDs that mature within the next 12 months;
• if public fund deposits have been obtained through political influence;
• if a significant dollar volume of accounts is concentrated in customers engaged in a single business or industry; and
• if there is a significant dollar volume of deposits from customers who do not reside within the bank’s service area.

15. Obtain information on competitive pressures and economic conditions and evaluate that information, along with current deposit trends, to estimate its effect on the bank’s deposit structure.

16. Perform the following procedures to test for compliance with the applicable laws and regulations listed below:

a. Regulation O (12 CFR 215), Loans to Executive Officers, Directors, and Principal Shareholders of Member Banks. Review the overdraft listing to ensure that the bank has not paid an overdraft on any account of an executive officer or director, unless the payment is made according to—

• a written, preauthorized, interest-bearing extension of a credit plan that provides a method of repayment, or
• a written, preauthorized transfer from another account of that executive officer or director.

Payment of inadvertent overdrafts in an aggregate amount of $1,000 or less is not prohibited, provided the account is not overdrawn more than five business days and the executive officer or director is charged the same fee charged to other customers in similar circumstances. Overdrafts are extensions of credit and must be included when considering each insider’s lending limits and other extension-of-credit restrictions, as well as when considering the aggregate lending limit for all outstanding extensions of credit by the bank to all insiders and their related interests.

b. 12 USC 1972(2), Loans to Executive Officers, Directors, and Principal Shareholders of Correspondent Banks. Review the overdraft listing to ensure that no preferential overdrafts exist from the bank under examination to the executive officers, directors, or principal shareholders of the correspondent bank.

c. Section 22(e) of the Federal Reserve Act (12 USC 376), Interest on Deposits of Directors, Officers, and Employees. Obtain a list of deposit accounts, with account numbers, of directors, officers, attorneys, and employees. Review the accounts for any exceptions to standard policies on service charges and interest rates paid that would suggest self-dealing or preferential treatment.

d. Sections 23A and 23B of the Federal Reserve Act (12 USC 371c), and Regulation W. Determine the existence of any non-intraday overdrawn affiliate accounts. If such overdrawn accounts are identified, review for compliance with
sections 23A and 23B of the act and with Regulation W.
e. Regulation D (12 CFR 204), Reserve Requirements of Depository Institutions. Review the accuracy of the deposit data used in the bank’s reserve-requirement calculation for the examination date. When a bank issues nondeposit, uninsured obligations that are classified as “deposits” in the calculation of reserve requirements, examiners should determine if these items are properly categorized. Ascertain that the TT&L remittance option is included in the computations for reserve requirements.
f. 12 USC 501 and 18 USC 1004, False Certification of Checks. Compare several certified checks by date, amount, and purchaser with the depositors’ names appearing on uncollected-funds and overdraft reports of the same dates to determine that the checks were certified against collected funds.
g. Uniform Commercial Code 4-108, Banking Hours and Processing of Items.
   • Determine the bank’s cutoff hour, after which items received are included in the processing for the next “banking day,” to ensure that the cutoff hour is not earlier than 2:00 p.m.
   • If the bank’s cutoff hour is before 2:00 p.m., advise management that failure to process items received before a 2:00 p.m. cutoff may result in civil liability for delayed handling of those items.

h. Local escheat laws. Determine if the bank is adhering to the local escheat laws with regard to all forms of dormant deposits, including official checks.

17. If applicable, determine if the bank is appropriately monitoring and limiting the foreign-exchange risk associated with foreign-currency deposits.
18. For a bank that accepts accounts from foreign governments, embassies, and political figures, evaluate—
   a. the existence and effectiveness of the bank’s policies, procedures, compliance oversight, and management reporting with regard to such foreign accounts;
   b. whether the bank and its staff have the necessary controls, as well as the ability, to manage the risks associated with such foreign accounts;
   c. whether the bank’s board of directors and staff can ensure full compliance with its obligations under the Bank Secrecy Act, as amended by the USA Patriot Act, and its regulations;
   d. the adequacy of the level of training of the bank’s personnel responsible for managing the risks associated with such foreign accounts and for ensuring that the bank is and remains in compliance with the requirements of the applicable laws and regulations; and
   e. the effectiveness of the bank’s program that communicates its policies and procedures for such foreign accounts to ensure that foreign government, embassy, and political-figure customers are fully informed of the requirements of applicable U.S laws and regulations.

19. Discuss overall findings with bank management. Prepare report comments on—
   a. policy deficiencies,
   b. noncompliance with policies,
   c. weaknesses in supervision and reporting,
   d. violations of laws and regulations, and
   e. possible conflicts of interest.
20. Update workpapers with any information that will facilitate future examinations.
Review the bank’s internal controls, policies, practices, and procedures for demand and time deposit accounts. The bank’s systems should be documented completely and concisely and should include, where appropriate, narrative descriptions, flow charts, copies of forms used, and other pertinent information.

For large institutions or those institutions that have individual demand and time deposit book-keeping functions, the examiner should consider administering this questionnaire separately for each function, as applicable.

Questions pertain to both demand and time deposits unless otherwise indicated. Negative responses to the questions in this section should be explained, and additional procedures deemed necessary should be discussed with the examiner-in-charge. Items marked with an asterisk require substantiation by observation or testing.

OPENING DEPOSIT ACCOUNTS

*1. Are new-account documents prenumbered?
   a. Are new-account documents issued in strict numerical sequence?
   b. Are the opening of new accounts and access to unused new-account records and certificate of deposit (CD) forms handled by an employee who is not a teller or who cannot make internal entries to customer accounts or the general ledger?

*2. Does the institution have a written “know-your-customer” policy?
   a. Do new-account applications require sufficient information to clearly identify the customer?
   b. Are “starter” checks issued only after the verification of data on new transaction-account applications?
   c. Are checkbooks and statements mailed only to the address of record? If not, is a satisfactory explanation and description obtained for any other mailing address (post office boxes, a friend or relative, etc.)?
   d. Are the employees responsible for opening new accounts trained to screen depositors for signs of check kiting?

*3. Does the bank perform periodic inventories of new-account documents and CDs, and do the inventories include an accountability of numbers issued out of sequence or canceled prior to issuance?

*4. Are CDs signed by a properly authorized individual?

5. Are new-account applications and signature cards reviewed by an officer?

CLOSING DEPOSIT ACCOUNTS

1. Are signature cards for closed accounts promptly pulled from the active-account file and placed in a closed file?

2. Are closed-account lists prepared? If so, how frequently?

3. Is the closed-account list circulated to appropriate management?

4. Is verification of closed accounts, in the form of statements of “goodwill” letters, required? Are such letters mailed under the control of someone other than a teller or an individual who can make internal entries to an account (such as a private banker or branch manager)?

*5. For redeemed CDs:
   a. Are the CDs stamped paid?
   b. Is the disposition of proceeds documented to provide a permanent record as well as a clear audit trail?
   c. Are penalty calculations on CDs and on other time deposits that are redeemed before maturity rechecked by a second employee?

*6. Except for deposit-account agreements that authorize the transfer of deposited funds to other nondemand deposit accounts, are matured CDs that are not automatically renewable classified as demand deposits on the Call Report and on the Report of Transaction Accounts, Other Deposits and Vault Cash (FR 2900)?

DEPOSIT-ACCOUNT RECORDS

*1. Does the institution have documentation supporting a current reconciliation of each deposit-account category recorded on its general ledger, including customer accounts
and bank-controlled accounts such as dealer reserves, escrow, Treasury tax and loan, etc.? (Prepare separate workpapers for demand and time accounts, listing each account and the date and frequency of reconcilement, the general-ledger balance, the subsidiary-ledger balance, adjustments, and unexplained differences.)

*2. Are reconciliations performed by an individual or group not directly engaged in accepting or preparing transactions or in data entry to customers’ accounts?

*3. If the size of the bank precludes full separation of duties between data entry and reconcilement, are reconcilement duties rotated on a formal basis, and is a record maintained to support such action?

*4. Are reconciliations reviewed by appropriate independent management, especially in circumstances when full separation of duties is not evident?

*5. Are periodic reports prepared for management, and do the reports provide an aging of adjustments and differences and detail the status of significant adjustments and differences?

*6. Has management adequately addressed any significant or long-outstanding adjustments or differences?

*7. Is the preparation of input and the posting of subsidiary demand deposit records performed or adequately reviewed by persons who do not also—
   a. accept or generate transactions?
   b. issue official checks or handle funds-transfer transactions?
   c. prepare or authorize internal entries (return items, reversals, and direct charges, such as loan payments)?
   d. prepare supporting documents required for disbursements from an account?
   e. perform maintenance on the accounts, such as changes of address, stop payments, holds, etc.?

*8. Are in-process, suspense, interoffice, and other accounts related to deposit accounts controlled or closely monitored by persons who do not have posting or reconcilement duties?

*9. Are periodic reports prepared for management on open items in suspense and on in-process, interoffice, overdrawn, and other deposit accounts, and do the reports include aging of items and the status of significant items?

10. If the bank’s bookkeeping system is not automated, are deposit bookkeepers rotated?

11. Does the bank segregate the deposit account files of—
   a. employees and officers?
   b. directors?
   c. the business interests of employees and officers, or interests controlled by employees and officers?
   d. the business interests of directors, or interests controlled by directors?
   e. foreign governments, embassies, and political figures?

*12. Are posting and check filing separated from statement preparation?

13. Are statements mailed or delivered to all customers as required by the bank’s deposit-account agreement?

*14. Are customer transaction and interest statements mailed in a controlled environment that precludes any individual from receiving any statement not specifically authorized by the customer or the institution’s policy (for example, dormant-account statements)?

DORMANT ACCOUNTS AND RETURNED MAIL

*1. Does the bank have formal policies and procedures for the handling of customers’ transaction and interest statements that are returned as undeliverable? Does the policy—
   a. require that statements be periodically mailed on dormant accounts? If so, how often?
   b. prohibit the handling of dormant-account statements by (1) employees of the branch where the account is assigned, (2) the account officer, and (3) other individuals with exclusive control of accounts?
   c. require positive action to follow up on obtaining new addresses?
   d. place statements and signature cards for accounts for which contact cannot be re-established (the mail is returned more than once or is marked “deceased”) into a controlled environment?
   e. require the bank to change the address on future statements to the department?
of the bank (the controlled environment) designated to receive returned mail?
f. require a written request from the customer and verification of the customer’s signature before releasing an account from the controlled environment?

*2. Are accounts for which contact cannot be re-established and that do not reflect recent activity removed from active files and clearly classified as dormant?

*3. Before returning a dormant account to active status, are transactions reactivating the account verified, and are independent confirmations obtained directly from the customer?

*4. Does transfer from dormant to active status require the approval of an officer who cannot approve transactions on dormant accounts?

INACTIVE ACCOUNTS

1. Are demand accounts that have been inactive for one year, and time accounts that have been inactive for three years, classified as inactive? If not, state the time period for classifying a demand or time account as inactive?

2. Does the bank periodically review the inactive accounts to determine if they should be placed in a dormant status, and are decisions to keep such accounts in active files documented?

HOLD MAIL

*1. Does the institution have a formal policy and procedure for handling statements and documents that a customer requests not to be mailed but that will be picked up at a location within the institution? Does the policy—
   a. require that statements will not be held by an individual (an account officer, branch manager, bookkeeper, etc.) who could establish exclusive control over entries to and the delivery of statements for customer accounts?
   b. discourage such pickup arrangements and grant them only after the customer provides a satisfactory reason for the arrangement?
   c. require the customer to sign a statement describing the purpose of the request and the proposed times for pickup, and designate the individuals authorized to pick up the statement?
   d. require the maintenance of signature cards for individuals authorized to pick up statements, and compare the authorized signatures with those who sign for statements held for pickup?
   e. prohibit the delivery of statements to officers and employees requiring special attention unless it is part of the formal “hold-mail” function?

*2. Is a central record of hold-mail arrangements maintained in a control area that does not originate entries to customers’ accounts? Does the record identify each hold-mail arrangement, the designated location for pickup, and the scheduled pickup times? Does the control area—
   a. maintain current signature cards of individuals authorized to pick up statements?
   b. obtain signed receipts showing the date of pickup, and compare the receipts with the signature cards?
   c. follow up on the status of statements not picked up as scheduled?

*3. Does management review activity in hold-mail accounts that have not been picked up for extended periods of time (for example, one year), and, when there is no activity, place the accounts in a dormant status?

OVERDRAFTS

*1. Are overdraft authorization limits for officers formally established?

*2. Does the bank require an authorized officer to approve overdrafts?

*3. Is an overdraft listing prepared daily for demand deposit and time transaction accounts?

4. For banks processing overdrafts that are not automatically approved (a “pay none” system), is the nonsufficient-funds report circulated among bank officers?

*5. Are overdraft listings circulated among the officers?

6. Are the statements of accounts with large overdrafts reviewed for irregularities and prompt repayment?
7. Is an aged record of large overdrafts included in the monthly report to the board of directors or its committee, and does the report include the overdraft origination date?
8. Is there an established schedule of service charges?

UNCOLLECTED FUNDS

*1. Does the institution generate a daily report of drawings against uncollected funds for demand deposit and time transaction accounts?
   a. Is the computation of uncollected funds positions based on reasonable check-collection criteria?
   b. Can the reports, or a separate account activity report, be used to detect potential kiting conditions?
   c. If reports are not generated for time transaction accounts, is a system in place to control drawings against uncollected funds?
*2. Do authorized officers review the uncollected-funds reports and approve drawings against uncollected funds within established limits?
*3. Are accounts that frequently appear on the uncollected-funds or kite-suspect reports reviewed regardless of account balances? (For example, accounts with simultaneous large debits and credits can reflect low balances.)

ACCOUNTS FOR FOREIGN GOVERNMENTS, EMBASSIES, AND POLITICAL FIGURES

1. For bank relationships with a foreign government, embassy, or political figure:
   a. Has the board of directors established standards and guidelines for management to use when evaluating whether or not the bank should accept such new accounts?
   b. Are the standards and guidelines consistent with the bank’s—
      • own business objectives,
      • assessment of the varying degrees of risks associated with particular foreign accounts or lines of business, and
      • capacity to manage those risks?
   c. Does the bank have adequate internal controls and compliance oversight systems to monitor and manage the varying degrees of risks associated with such foreign accounts? Do these internal controls and compliance systems ensure full compliance with the Bank Secrecy Act, as amended by the USA Patriot Act, and its respective regulations?
   d. Does the bank have personnel that are sufficiently trained in the management of such risks and in the requirements of applicable laws and regulations?
   e. Does the bank have policies and procedures for ensuring that such foreign-account customers receive adequate communications from the bank? Communications should ensure that these customers are made fully aware of the requirements of U.S laws and regulations to which the bank is subject.
   f. Does the bank seek to structure its relationships with such foreign-account customers so as to minimize the varying degrees of risks these customers may pose?

OTHER MATTERS

*1. Are account-maintenance activities (changes of address, status changes, rate changes, etc.) separated from data entry and reconciling duties?
*2. Do all internal entries other than service charges require the approval of appropriate supervisory personnel?
*3. If not included in the internal or external audit program, are employees’ and officers’ accounts, accounts of employees’ and officers’ business interests, and accounts controlled by employees and officers periodically reviewed for unusual or prohibited activity?
*4. For unidentified deposits:
   a. Are deposit slips kept under dual control?
   b. Is the disposition of deposit slips approved by an appropriate officer?
*5. For returned checks, unposted items, and
other rejects:
a. Are daily listings of such items prepared?
b. Are all items reviewed daily, and is disposition of items required within a reasonable time period? If so, indicate the time period.
c. Are reports prepared for management that show items not disposed of within the established time frames?
6. Are customers immediately notified in writing of deposit errors?
7. Does the bank require a customer’s signature for stop-payment orders?
8. For automatic transfer accounts:
a. Are procedures in effect that require officer approval for transfers in excess of the savings balance?
b. For nonautomated systems, are transfers made by employees who do not also handle cash, execute external funds transfers, issue official checks singly, or post subsidiary records?
9. For telephone transfer accounts:
a. Do depositors receive an individual identification code for use in making transfers?
b. Are transfers made by employees who do not also handle cash, execute external funds transfers, issue official checks singly, or post subsidiary records?
10. If not included in the internal or external audit program, are accrual balances for the various types of deposits verified periodically by an authorized official? If so, indicate how often.
11. Are accounts with a “hold-balance” status—those accounts on which court orders have been placed, those pledged as security to customers’ loans, those pending the clearing of a large check, those for which the owner is deceased, and those for which the passbook has been lost—“locked out” for transactions unless the transaction is approved by appropriate management?
12. For passbook accounts:
a. Do all entries to passbooks contain teller identification?
b. Under a window-posting system, are recording media and passbooks posted simultaneously?
c. Are tellers prohibited from holding customers’ savings passbooks?
d. If customers’ passbooks are held, are they maintained under the institution’s “hold-mail” program and kept under dual control?
e. Are customers prohibited from withdrawing funds without a passbook? If not, state the policy.
13. For withdrawals from savings or other time accounts:
a. Are withdrawal canceled daily?
b. Are procedures in place to preclude overdrafts?
c. Are procedures in effect to place holds on, and to check for holds on, withdrawals over a stated amount? If so, indicate the amount.
14. For signature cards on demand and time accounts:
a. Are procedures in effect to guard against the substitution of false signatures? Describe the procedures.
b. Are signature cards stored to preclude physical damage?
c. Are signatures compared for withdrawals and cashed checks? Describe the procedures.

OFFICIAL CHECKS, MONEY ORDERS, AND CERTIFIED CHECKS

*1. Are separate general-ledger accounts maintained for each type of official check?
*2. For each type of check issued:
a. Are multicopy checks and certified-check forms used? If not, are detailed registers of disbursed checks maintained?
b. Are all checks prenumbered and issued in sequence?
c. Is check preparation and issuance separate from recordkeeping?
d. Is the signing of checks in advance prohibited?
e. Do procedures prohibit the issuance of a check before the credit is processed?
*3. Is the list authorizing bank personnel to sign official checks kept current? Does the list include changes in authorization limits, delete employees who no longer work at the bank, and indicate employees added to the list?
*4. Are appropriate controls in effect over check-signing machines (if used) and certification stamps?
5. Are voided checks and voided certified-check forms promptly defaced and filed with paid checks?

6. If reconciliations are not part of the overall deposit-reconciliation function—
   a. are outstanding checks listed and reconciled regularly to the general ledger?
   If so, state how often.
   b. is permanent evidence of reconciliations maintained?
   c. is there clear separation between the preparation of checks, data entry, and check reconciliation?
   d. are the reconciliations reviewed regularly by an authorized officer?
   e. are reconciliation duties rotated on a formal basis in institutions where size precludes the full separation of duties between data entry and reconciliation?
   f. are authorized signatures and endorsements checked by the filing clerk?

7. For supplies of official checks:
   a. Are records of unissued official checks maintained centrally and at each location storing them?
   b. Are periodic inventories of unissued checks independently performed?
   c. Do the inventories include a description of all checks issued out of sequence?
   d. If users are assigned a supply, is that supply replenished on a consignment basis?

8. Are procedures in effect to preclude certification of checks drawn against uncollected funds?

TREASURY TAX AND LOAN ACCOUNTS (31 CFR 203)

1. Do transfers from the remittance-option account to the Federal Reserve Bank occur the next business day after deposit?
2. When the note option is used, do transfers from the Treasury Tax and Loan (TT&L) demand deposit account occur the next business day after deposit?
3. Has the TT&L-account reconciliation been completed in a timely manner and approved by a supervisor?
4. Has adequate collateral been pledged to secure the TT&L account?

AUDIT

1. Are deposit-account activities audited on a sufficiently frequent basis?
2. Does the scope of the audit program require, and do audit records support, substantive testing or quantitative measurements of deposit-account activities that, at a minimum, include the matters set forth in this questionnaire?
3. Does the audit program include a comprehensive confirmation program with the customers of each deposit category maintained by the institution?
4. Do audit department records support the execution of the confirmation program, and do the records reflect satisfactory follow-up of responses and of requests returned as undeliverable?
5. Are audit and prior-examination recommendations for deposit-account activities appropriately addressed?

CONCLUSION

1. Does the foregoing information provide an adequate basis for evaluating internal control in that deficiencies in areas not covered by this questionnaire do not significantly impair any controls? Explain negative answers briefly, and indicate any additional examination procedures deemed necessary.
2. Are internal controls adequate on the basis of a composite evaluation, as evidenced by answers to the foregoing questions?
Borrowed Funds

Effective date October 2008

Section 3010.1

Borrowed funds are a common and practical method for banks of all sizes to meet customers’ needs and enhance banking operations. For the purposes of this section, borrowings exclude long-term subordinated debt, such as capital notes and debentures (discussed in “Assessment of Capital Adequacy,” section 3020.1). Borrowings may exist in a number of forms, both on a direct and indirect basis. Common sources of direct bank borrowings include Federal Home Loan Bank credit lines, federal funds purchased, loans from correspondent banks, repurchase agreements, negotiable certificates of deposit, and borrowings from the Federal Reserve discount window. These are discussed in some detail below. Other borrowings include bills payable to the Federal Reserve, interest-bearing demand notes issued to the U.S. Treasury (the Treasury tax and loan note option account), mortgages payable, due bills, and other types of borrowed securities. Indirect forms of borrowings include customer paper rediscounted and assets sold with the bank’s endorsement or guarantee or subject to a repurchase agreement.

The primary reasons a bank may borrow include the following:

• To meet the temporary or seasonal loan or deposit withdrawal needs of its customers, if the borrowing period is temporary and the bank is quickly restored to a position in which the quantity of its principal earning assets and cash reserves is in proper relation to the requirements of its normal deposit volume.

• To meet large and unanticipated deposit withdrawals that may arise during periods of economic distress. The examiner should distinguish between “large and unanticipated deposit withdrawals” and a predeterminable contraction of deposits, such as the cessation of activities in a resort community or the withdrawal of funds on which the bank received adequate prior withdrawal notice. Those situations should be met through ample cash reserves and readily convertible assets rather than borrowing.

• To manage liabilities effectively. Generally, the effective use of this type of continuous borrowing is limited to money-center or large regional banks.

It is important to analyze each borrowing on its own merit to determine its purpose, effectiveness, and stability. Some of the more frequently used sources of borrowings are discussed below.

COMMON SOURCES OF BORROWINGS

Federal Home Loan Bank Borrowings

The Federal Home Loan Bank (FHLB) originally served solely as a source of borrowings to savings and loan companies. With the implementation of the Financial Institutions Reform, Recovery, and Enforcement Act of 1989 (FIRREA), FHLB’s lending capacity was expanded to include banks.

Compared with borrowings from the discount window of the Reserve Banks, borrowings from the FHLB have fewer conditions. Both short-term and long-term borrowings, with maturities ranging from overnight to 30 years, are available to institutions at generally competitive interest rates. The flexibility of the facility enables bank management to use this source of funds for the purpose of asset/liability management, and it allows management to secure a favorable interest-rate spread. For example, FHLB borrowings may provide a lower-cost alternative to the conventional deposit, particularly in a highly competitive local market.

Management should be capable of explaining the purpose of the borrowing transaction. The borrowing transaction should then be analyzed to determine whether the arrangement achieved the stated purpose or whether the borrowings are a sign of liquidity deficiencies. Further, the borrowing agreement between the institution and the FHLB should be reviewed to determine the asset collateralizing the borrowings and the potential risks presented by the agreement. In some instances, the borrowing agreement may provide for collateralization by all assets not already pledged for other purposes.

The types of collateral necessary to obtain an FHLB loan include residential mortgage loans and mortgage-backed securities. The composite rating of an institution is a factor in both the approval for obtaining an FHLB loan and the level of collateral required.
Federal Funds Purchased

The day-to-day use of federal funds is a rather common occurrence, and federal funds are considered an important money market instrument. Many regional and money-center banks, acting in the capacity of correspondents to smaller community banks, function as both providers and purchasers of federal funds and, in the process of these transactions, often generate a small return.

A brief review of bank reserves is essential to a discussion of the federal funds market. As a condition of membership in the Federal Reserve System, member banks are required to maintain a portion of their deposits as reserves. Reserves can take the form of vault cash and deposits in the Reserve Bank. The amount of these reserve balances is reported weekly or quarterly and computed on the basis of the daily average deposit balances. For institutions that report their reserves on a weekly basis, required reserves are computed on the basis of daily average balances of deposits and Eurocurrency liabilities during a 14-day period ending every second Monday. Institutions that report their reserves on a quarterly basis compute their reserve requirement on the basis of their daily average deposit balances during a seven-day computation period that begins on the third Tuesday of March, June, September, and December. (See 12 CFR 204.3(c)–(d).)

Since member banks do not receive interest on the reserves, banks prefer to keep excess balances at a minimum to achieve the maximum utilization of funds. To accomplish this goal, banks carefully analyze and forecast their daily reserve position. Changes in the volume of required reserves occur frequently as the result of deposit fluctuations. Deposit increases require member banks to maintain more reserves; conversely, deposit decreases require less reserves.

The most frequent type of federal funds transaction is unsecured for one day and repayable the following business day. The rate is usually determined by overall money market rates as well as by the available supply of and demand for funds. In some instances, when the selling and buying relationship between two banks is quite continuous, something similar to a line of credit may be established on a funds-availability basis. Although the most common federal funds transaction is unsecured, the selling of funds can also be secured and for longer periods of time. Agency-based federal funds transactions are discussed in “Bank Dealer Activities,” section 2030.1.

Loans from Correspondent Banks

Small and medium-sized banks often negotiate loans from their principal correspondent banks. The loans are usually for short periods and may be secured or unsecured.

Repurchase Agreements

The terms “repurchase agreement” (repo) and “reverse repurchase agreement” refer to a type of transaction in which a money market participant acquires immediately available funds by selling securities and simultaneously agreeing to repurchase the securities after a specified time at a given price, which typically includes interest at an agreed-on rate. Such a transaction is called a repo when viewed from the perspective of the supplier of the securities (the borrower), and a reverse repo or matched sale-purchase agreement when described from the point of view of the supplier of funds (the lender).

Frequently, instead of resorting to direct borrowings, a bank may sell assets to another bank or some other party and simultaneously agree to repurchase the assets at a specified time or after certain conditions have been met. Bank securities as well as loans are often sold under a repo to generate temporary working funds. These kind of agreements are often used because the rate on this type of borrowing is less than the rate on unsecured borrowings, such as federal funds purchased.

The usual terms for the sale of securities under a repo require that, after a stated period of time, the seller repurchase the securities at a predetermined price or yield. A repo commonly includes a near-term maturity (overnight or a few days) and is usually arranged in large-dollar amounts. The lender or buyer is entitled to receive compensation for use of the funds provided to its counterparty. The interest rate paid on a repo is negotiated based on the rates on the underlying securities. U.S. government and agency securities are the most common type of

instruments sold under repurchase agreements, since those types of repos are exempt from reserve requirements.

Although standard overnight and term repo arrangements in Treasury and federally related agency securities are most prevalent, market participants sometimes alter various contract provisions to accommodate specific investment needs or to provide flexibility in the designation of collateral. For example, some repo contracts allow substitutions of the securities subject to the repurchase commitment. These are called “dollar repurchase agreements” (dollar rolls), and the initial seller’s obligation is to repurchase securities that are substantially similar, but not identical, to the securities originally sold. Another common repo arrangement is called a “flex repo,” which, as implied by the name, provides a flexible term to maturity. A flex repo is a term agreement between a dealer and a major customer in which the customer buys securities from the dealer and may sell some of them back before the final maturity date.

Bank management should be aware of certain considerations and potential risks of repurchase agreements, especially when entering into large-dollar-volume transactions with institutional investors or brokers. Both parties in a term repo arrangement are exposed to interest-rate risk. It is a fairly common practice to have the collateral value of the underlying securities adjusted daily to reflect changes in market prices and to maintain the agreed-on margin. Accordingly, if the market value of the repo securities declines appreciably, the borrower may be asked to provide additional collateral. Conversely, if the market value of the securities rises substantially, the lender may be required to return the excess collateral to the borrower. If the value of the underlying securities exceeds the price at which the repurchase agreement was sold, the bank could be exposed to the risk of loss if the buyer is unable to perform and return the securities. This risk would obviously increase if the securities are physically transferred to the institution or broker with which the bank has entered into the repurchase agreement. Moreover, if the securities are not returned, the bank could be exposed to the possibility of a significant write-off, to the extent that the book value of the securities exceeds the price at which the securities were originally sold under the repurchase agreement. For this reason, banks should avoid pledging excessive collateral and obtain sufficient financial information on and analyze the financial condition of those institutions and brokers with whom they engage in repurchase transactions.

“Retail repurchase agreements” (retail repos) for a time were a popular vehicle for some commercial banks to raise short-term funds and compete with certain instruments offered by nonbanking competitors. For booking purposes, a retail repo is a debt incurred by the issuing bank that is collateralized by an interest in a security that is either a direct obligation of or guaranteed as to principal and interest by the U.S. government or an agency thereof. Retail repos are issued in amounts not exceeding $100,000 for periods of less than 90 days. With the advent of money market certificates issued by commercial banks, the popularity of the retail repo declined.

Both retail and large-denomination, wholesale repurchase agreements are in many respects equivalent to short-term borrowings at market rates of interest. Therefore, banks engaging in repurchase agreements should carefully evaluate their interest-rate-risk exposure at various maturity levels, formulate policy objectives in light of the institution’s entire asset and liability mix, and adopt procedures to control mismatches between assets and liabilities. The degree to which a bank borrows through repurchase agreements also should be analyzed with respect to its liquidity needs, and contingency plans should provide for alternative sources of funds.

**Negotiable Certificates of Deposit**

Certificates of deposit (CDs) have not been legally defined as borrowings and continue to be reflected as deposits for reporting purposes. However, the fundamental distinction between a negotiable money market CD as a deposit or as a borrowing is nebulous at best; in fact, the negotiable money market CD is widely recognized as the primary borrowing vehicle for many banks. Dependence on CDs as sources of funds is discussed in “Deposit Accounts,” section 3000.1.

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Borrowings from the Federal Reserve

In accordance with the Board’s Regulation A (12 CFR 201), the Federal Reserve Banks generally make credit available through the primary, secondary, and seasonal credit programs to any depository institution that maintains transaction accounts or nonpersonal time deposits. However, the Federal Reserve expects depository institutions to rely on market sources of funds for their ongoing funding needs and to use these credit programs as a backup source of funding rather than a routine one. An institution that borrows primary credit may use those funds to finance sales of federal funds, but secondary and seasonal credit borrowers may not act as the medium or agent of another depository institution in receiving Federal Reserve credit except with the permission of the lending Federal Reserve Bank.

A Federal Reserve Bank is not obligated to extend credit to any depository institution but may lend to a depository institution either by making an advance secured by acceptable collateral or by discounting certain types of paper described in the Federal Reserve Act. Although Reserve Banks now always extend credit in the form of an advance, the Federal Reserve’s credit facility nonetheless is known colloquially as the “discount window.” Before lending to a depository institution, a Reserve Bank can require any information it believes is appropriate to ensure that the assets tendered as collateral are acceptable. A Reserve Bank also should determine prior to lending whether the borrowing institution is undercapitalized or critically undercapitalized. Operating Circular No. 10, “Lending,” establishes the credit and security terms for borrowings from the Federal Reserve.

Primary Credit

Reserve Banks may extend primary credit on a very short term basis (typically overnight) to depository institutions that the Reserve Banks judge to be in generally sound financial condition. Reserve Banks extend primary credit at a rate above the target federal funds rate of the Federal Open Market Committee. Minimal administrative requirements apply to requests for overnight primary credit, unless some aspect of the credit request appears inconsistent with the conditions of primary credit (for example, if a pattern of behavior indicates strongly that an institution is using primary credit other than as a backup source of funding). Reserve Banks also may extend primary credit to eligible institutions for periods of up to several weeks if such funding is not available from other sources. However, longer-term extensions of primary credit will be subject to greater administration than are overnight loans.

Reserve Banks determine eligibility for primary credit according to a uniform set of criteria that also is used to determine eligibility for daylight credit under the Board’s Policy Statement on Payments System Risk. These criteria are based mainly on examination ratings and capitalization, although Reserve Banks also may use supplementary information, including market-based information when available. Specifically, an institution that is at least adequately capitalized and rated CAMELS 1 or 2 (or SOSA 1 and ROCA 1, 2, or 3) almost certainly would be eligible for primary credit. An institution that is at least adequately capitalized and rated CAMELS 3 (or SOSA 2 and ROCA 1, 2, or 3) generally would be eligible. An institution that is at least adequately capitalized and rated CAMELS 4 (or SOSA 1 or 2 and ROCA 4 or 5) would be eligible only if an ongoing examination indicated a substantial improvement in condition. An institution that is not at least adequately capitalized, or that is rated CAMELS 5 (or SOSA 3 regardless of the ROCA rating), would not be eligible for primary credit.

Secondary Credit

Secondary credit is available to institutions that do not qualify for primary credit. Secondary credit is available as a backup source of liquidity on a very short term basis, provided that the loan is consistent with a timely return to a reliance on...
market sources of funds. Longer-term secondary credit is available if necessary for the orderly resolution of a troubled institution, although any such loan would have to comply with additional requirements for lending to undercapitalized and critically undercapitalized institutions. Unlike the primary credit program, secondary credit is not a minimal administration facility because Reserve Banks must obtain sufficient information about a borrower’s financial situation to ensure that an extension of credit complies with the conditions of the program. Secondary credit is available at a rate above the primary credit rate.

**Seasonal Credit**

Seasonal credit is available under limited conditions to meet the needs of depository institutions that have seasonal patterns of movement in deposits and loans but that lack ready access to national money markets. In determining a depository institution’s eligibility for seasonal credit, Reserve Banks consider not only the institution’s historical record of seasonal fluctuations in loans and deposits, but also the institution’s recent and prospective needs for funds and its liquidity conditions. Generally, only very small institutions with pronounced seasonal funding needs will qualify for seasonal credit. Seasonal credit is available at a flexible rate that takes into account the rate for market sources of funds.

**Collateral Requirements**

All loans advanced by the Reserve Bank must be secured to the satisfaction of the Reserve Bank. Collateral requirements are governed by Operating Circular No. 8. Reserve Banks require a perfected security interest in all collateral pledged to secure loans. Satisfactory collateral generally includes U.S. government and federal-agency securities, and, if they are of acceptable quality, mortgage notes covering one-to four-family residences; state and local government securities; and business, consumer, and other customer notes. Traditionally, collateral is held in the Reserve Bank vault. Under certain circumstances, collateral may be retained on the borrower’s premises under a borrower-in-custody arrangement, or it may be held on the borrower’s premises under the Reserve Bank’s exclusive custody and control in a field warehousing arrangement. Collateral may also be held at the borrowing institution’s correspondent or another third party. All book-entry collateral must be held at the Federal Reserve Bank. Definitive collateral, not in bearer form, must be properly assigned and endorsed.

**Lending to Undercapitalized and Critically Undercapitalized Depository Institutions**

Credit from any Reserve Bank to an institution that is “undercapitalized” may be extended or outstanding for no more than 60 days during which the institution is undercapitalized in any 120-day period. An institution is considered undercapitalized if it is not critically undercapitalized under section 38 of the Federal Deposit Insurance Act (the FDI Act) but is either deemed undercapitalized under that provision and its implementing regulations or has received a composite CAMELS rating of 5 as of the most recent examination. A Reserve Bank may make or have outstanding advances or discounts to an institution that is deemed “critically undercapitalized” under section 38 of the FDI Act and its implementing regulations only during the five-day period beginning on the date the institution became critically undercapitalized or after consultation with the Board.

**INTERNATIONAL BORROWINGS**

International borrowings may be direct or indirect. Common forms of direct international borrowings include loans and short-term call money from foreign banks, borrowings from the Export-Import Bank of the United States, and overdrawn nostro (due from foreign banks—demand) accounts. Indirect forms of borrowing include notes and trade bills rediscounted with the central banks of various countries; notes, acceptances, import drafts, or trade bills sold with the bank’s endorsement or guarantee; notes and other obligations sold subject to repurchase agreements; and acceptance pool participations.

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4. Generally, a Reserve Bank also may lend to an undercapitalized institution during 60 calendar days after receipt of a certificate of viability from the Chairman of the Board of Governors or after consultation with the Board.
ANALYZING BORROWINGS

If a bank borrows extensively or in large amounts, the examiner should thoroughly analyze the borrowing activity. An effective analysis includes a review of the bank’s reserve records, both required and maintained, to determine the frequency of deficiencies at the closing of reserve periods. The principal sources of borrowings, range of amounts, frequency, length of time indebted, cost, and reasons for the borrowings should be explored. The actual use of the funds should be verified.

Examiners should also analyze changes in a bank’s borrowing position for signs of deterioration in its borrowing ability and overall creditworthiness. One indication of deterioration is the payment of large fees to money brokers to obtain funds because the bank is having difficulty obtaining access to conventional sources of borrowings. These “brokered deposits” are usually associated with small banks since they do not generally have ready access to alternative sources of funds available to larger institutions through the money and capital markets. Brokered deposits generally carry higher interest rates than alternative sources, and they tend to be particularly susceptible to interest-rate changes in the overall financial market. For further discussion of brokered deposits, see “Deposit Accounts,” section 3000.1.

Other indicators of deterioration in a bank’s borrowing ability and overall creditworthiness include, but are not limited to, requests for collateral on previously unsecured credit lines or increases in collateral margins, the payment of above-market interest rates, or a shortening of maturities that is inconsistent with management’s articulated balance-sheet strategies. If the examiner finds that a bank’s borrowing position is not properly managed, appropriate comments should be included in the report of examination.
Borrowed Funds
Examination Objectives
Effective date May 1996
Section 3010.2

1. To determine if the policies, practices, procedures, and internal controls for borrowed funds are adequate.
2. To determine if bank officers are operating in conformance with the established guidelines.
3. To determine the scope and adequacy of the audit function.
4. To determine compliance with laws and regulations.
5. To initiate corrective action when policies, practices, procedures, or internal controls are deficient or when violations of laws or regulations have been noted.
1. If selected for implementation, complete or update the Borrowed Funds section of the Internal Control Questionnaire.

2. Based on the evaluation of internal controls and the work performed by the internal/external auditors, determine the scope of the examination.

3. Test for compliance with policies, practices, procedures, and internal controls in conjunction with performing the remaining examination procedures. Also obtain a listing of any audit deficiencies noted in the latest review done by internal/external auditors from the examiner assigned to “Internal Control” and determine if appropriate corrections have been made.

4. Obtain the listing of accounts related to domestic and international borrowed funds from the examiner assigned to “Examination Strategy.”

5. Prepare or obtain a listing of borrowings, by type, and—
   a. agree or reconcile balances to department controls and general ledger, and
   b. review reconciling items for reasonableness.

6. From consultation with the examiners assigned to the various loan areas, determine that the following schedules were reviewed in the lending departments and that there was no endorsement, guarantee, or repurchase agreement which would constitute a borrowing:
   a. participations sold
   b. loans sold in full since the preceding examination

7. Based on the information obtained in steps 5 and 6, and through observation and discussion with management and other examining personnel, determine that all borrowings are properly reflected on the books of the bank.

8. If the bank engages in any form of borrowing which requires written borrowing agreement(s), complete the following:
   a. Prepare or update a carry-forward workpaper describing the major terms of each borrowing agreement, and determine that the bank is complying with those terms.
   b. Review terms of past and present borrowing agreements for indications of deteriorating credit position by noting—
      • recent substantive changes in borrowing agreements,
      • increases in collateral to support borrowing transactions,
      • general shortening of maturities,
      • interest rates exceeding prevailing market rates,
      • frequent changes in lenders, and
      • large fees paid to money brokers.

9. If the bank has obtained funds from money brokers (brokered deposits), determine—
   a. why such deposits were originally obtained,
   b. who the deposits were obtained from,
   c. what the funds are used for,
   d. the relative cost of brokered deposits in comparison to alternate sources of funds, and
   e. the overall effect of the use of brokered deposits on the bank’s condition and whether there appear to be any abuses related to the use of such deposits.

10. If there is an indication that the bank’s credit position has deteriorated, ascertain why.

9. If the bank engages in the issuance of retail repurchase agreements (retail repos), check for compliance with section 4170.1; also 2015.1 and 2020.1.

10. Determine the purpose of each type of borrowing and conclude whether the bank’s borrowing posture is justified in light of its financial condition and other relevant circumstances.

11. Provide the examiner assigned to “Asset/Liability Management” the following information:
   a. A summary and an evaluation of the bank’s borrowing policies, practices, and procedures. The evaluation should give consideration to whether the bank—
      • evaluates interest-rate-risk exposure at various maturity levels;
      • formulates policy objectives in light of the entire asset and liability mix, and liquidity needs;
      • has adopted procedures to control mis-
matches between assets and liabilities; and
• has contingency plans for alternate sources of funds in the event of a run-off of current funding sources.
b. An evaluation of the bank’s adherence to established policies and procedures.
c. A repricing maturity schedule of borrowings.
d. A listing of prearranged federal funds lines and other lines of credit. Indicate the amount currently available under those lines, i.e., the unused portion of the lines.
e. The amount of any anticipated decline in borrowings over the next day period. (The time period will be determined by the examiner assigned to “Asset/Liability Management.”)

12. Prepare a list of all borrowings by category, on a daily basis for the period since the last examination. Also, include on the list short-term or overnight money market lending activities such as federal funds sold and securities purchased under resale agreement. For each category on the list, compute for the period between examinations—
a. high point
b. low point
c. average amounts outstanding
d. frequency of borrowing and lending activity, expressed in terms of number of days

13. Prepare, in appropriate report form, and discuss with appropriate management—
a. the adequacy of written policies regarding borrowings;
b. the manner in which bank officers are operating in conformance with established policy;
c. the existence of any unjustified borrowing practices;
d. any violation of laws or regulations; and
e. recommended corrective action when policies, practices, or procedures are deficient; violations of laws or regulations exist; or when unjustified borrowing practices are being pursued.

14. Update the workpapers with any information that will facilitate future examinations.

15. Review the market value of collateral and collateral-control arrangements for repurchase agreements to ensure that excessive collateral has not been pledged and that the bank is not exposed to excessive credit risks.
Borrowed Funds
Internal Control Questionnaire
Effective date March 1984

Review the bank’s controls, policies, practices and procedures for obtaining and servicing borrowed funds. The bank’s system should be documented in a complete and concise manner and should include, where appropriate, narrative descriptions, flowcharts, copies of forms used and other pertinent information. Items marked with an asterisk require substantiation by observation or testing.

POLICY

1. Has the board of directors approved a written policy which:
   a. Outlines the objectives of bank borrowings?
   b. Describes the bank’s borrowing philosophy relative to risk considerations, i.e., leverage/growth, liquidity/income?
   c. Provides for risk diversification in terms of staggered maturities rather than solely on cost?
   d. Limits borrowings by amount outstanding, specific type or total interest expense?
   e. Limits or restricts execution of borrowings by bank officers?
   f. Provides a system of reporting requirements to monitor borrowing activity?
   g. Requires subsequent approval of transactions?
   h. Provides for review and revision of established policy at least annually?

RECORDS

*2. Does the bank maintain subsidiary records for each type of borrowing, including proper identification of the obligee?

*3. Is the preparation, addition and posting of the subsidiary borrowed funds records performed or adequately reviewed by persons who do not also:
   a. Handle cash?
   b. Issue official checks and drafts?

*4. Are subsidiary borrowed funds records reconciled with the general ledger accounts at an interval consistent with borrowing activity, and are the reconciling items investigated by persons, who do not also:
   a. Handle cash?
   b. Prepare or post to the subsidiary borrowed funds records?

INTEREST

*5. Are individual interest computations checked by persons who do not have access to cash?

6. Is an overall test of the total interest paid made by persons who do not have access to cash?

7. Are payees on the checks matched to related records of debt, note or debenture owners?

8. Are corporate resolutions properly prepared as required by creditors and are copies on file for reviewing personnel?

9. Are monthly reports furnished to the board of directors reflecting the activity of borrowed funds, including amounts outstanding, interest rates, interest paid to date and anticipated future activity?

CONCLUSION

10. Is the foregoing information an adequate basis for evaluating internal control in that there are no significant deficiencies in areas not covered in this questionnaire that impair any controls? Explain negative answers briefly, and indicate any additional examination procedures deemed necessary.

11. Based on a composite evaluation, as evidenced by answers to the foregoing questions, internal control is considered (adequate/inadequate).
Complex Wholesale Borrowings

Commercial banks rely on wholesale borrowings obtained from a number of financial intermediaries, including Federal Home Loan Banks, other commercial banks, and securities firms. These borrowings frequently have attractive features and pricing. If properly assessed and prudently managed, they can enhance a bank’s funding options and assist in controlling interest-rate and liquidity risks. Some of the reasons that banks use these types of borrowings include the initial low cost of funds when compared with other liabilities with similar maturities. At the same time, certain wholesale borrowings have become more complex, and some structures include various types of embedded options.\(^1\) If not thoroughly assessed and prudently managed, these more complex funding instruments have the potential over time to significantly increase a bank’s sensitivity to market and liquidity risks. Maturity mismatches or the embedded options themselves can, in some circumstances, adversely affect a bank’s financial condition, especially when the terms and conditions of the borrowings are misunderstood.

A growing use of wholesale borrowings, combined with the risks associated with the complex structures of some of these borrowings, makes it increasingly important for bank supervisors to assess the risks and risk-management processes associated with these sources of funds. The supervisory guidance provided below supplements and expands upon existing general guidance on bank funding and borrowings.\(^2\) Where appropriate, examiners should (1) review the provisions of each significant borrowing agreement between the bank and the wholesale institution, (2) determine what assets collateralize the borrowing (or borrowings), and (3) identify the potential risks presented by the agreement. (See SR-01-8.)

In addition to determining if a bank follows the sound-practice guidance for bank liability management and funding in general, supervisors should take the following steps, as appropriate, when assessing a bank that has material amounts of wholesale borrowings:

- Review the bank’s borrowing contracts for embedded options or other features that may affect the bank’s liquidity and sensitivity to market risks. In addition, examiners should review the collateral agreements for fees, collateral-maintenance requirements (including triggers for increases in collateral), and other features that may affect the bank’s liquidity and earnings.
- Assess the bank’s management processes for identifying and monitoring the risks of the various terms of each borrowing contract, including penalties and option features over the expected life of the contract. Examiners should review for evidence that the bank’s management, or an independent third party, completed stress tests (1) before the bank entered into the borrowing agreement (or agreements) and (2) periodically thereafter. If the bank relies on independent third-party testing, examiners should verify that management reviewed and accepted the underlying assumptions and test results. In any case, management should not be relying solely on the wholesaler’s stress-test results. Also, the stress tests employed should cover a reasonable range of contractual triggers and external events. Such triggers or events include interest-rate changes that may result in the exercise of embedded options or the bank’s termination of the agreement, which may entail prepayment penalties. In general, stress-test results should depict the potential impact of these variables on the individual borrowing facility, as well as on the overall earnings and liquidity position of the bank.
- Evaluate management processes for controlling risks, including interest-rate risks arising from the borrowings and liquidity risks. Proper controls include (1) hedges or other plans for minimizing the adverse effects of penalties or interest-rate changes and other triggers for embedded options and (2) contingent funding strategies.

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1. Wholesale borrowings with embedded options may have variable interest payments or average lives or redemption values that depend on external measures such as reference rates, indexes, or formulas. Embedded options include puttable, callable, convertible, and variable rate advances with caps, floors, collars, step-ups, or amortizing features. In addition, these types of borrowings may contain prepayment penalties.
2. See the supervisory guidance for “Borrowed Funds,” section 3012.1; “Asset/Liability Management,” section 4020.1; and “Interest-Rate Risk Management,” section 4090.1. See also the Trading and Capital-Markets Activities Manual, sections 2030.1, “Liquidity Risk,” and 3010.1, “Interest-Rate Risk Management.” In general, this guidance collectively calls for supervisors to analyze the purpose, effectiveness, concentration exposure, and stability of borrowings and to assess bank management’s understanding of liquidity and interest-rate risks associated with borrowing and funding strategies.
plans if borrowings or lines are terminated before the original expected maturity.

• Determine whether the asset/liability management committee or board of directors, as appropriate, is fully informed of the risks and ramifications of complex wholesale-borrowing agreements before engaging in the transactions and on an ongoing basis.

• Determine whether funding strategies for wholesale borrowings, especially those with embedded options, are consistent with both the portfolio objectives of the bank and the level of sophistication of the bank’s risk management. Banks without the technical knowledge and whose risk-management systems are insufficient to adequately identify, assess, monitor, and control the risks of complex wholesale borrowings should not be using this funding.

Reliance on wholesale borrowings is consistent with safe and sound banking when management understands the risks of these activities and has systems and procedures in place to properly monitor and control the risks. Supervisors and examiners, however, should take appropriate steps to follow up on institutions that use complex funding instruments without adequately understanding their risks or without proper risk-management systems and controls. Examiners should also seek corrective action when funding mechanisms or strategies are inconsistent with prudent funding needs and objectives.
Complex Wholesale Borrowings
Examination Objectives
Effective date May 2001

1. To review the terms of wholesale-borrowing contracts to identify embedded options or other features that may affect the bank’s liquidity and sensitivity to market risks.
2. To assess management’s technical knowledge, systems, and processes for identifying, assessing, monitoring, and controlling the risks (including liquidity risk and interest-rate risk) associated with wholesale borrowing, and to assess the bank’s stress-testing practices and contingency-funding plans.
3. To determine if the bank’s board of directors or its asset/liability management committee is fully aware of the risks associated with and ramifications of engaging in complex wholesale-borrowing agreements.
4. To ascertain whether the bank’s wholesale-borrowing funding and hedging strategies are consistent with its portfolio objectives and the level of management’s sophistication.
Complex Wholesale Borrowings
Examination Procedures
Effective date May 2001

Section 3012.3

1. Review the bank’s borrowing contracts to identify embedded options or other features that may affect the bank’s liquidity and sensitivity to market risks. Also review the collateral agreements to determine what fees, collateral-maintenance requirements (including triggers for increases in collateral), and other agreed-upon features may affect the bank’s liquidity and earnings.

2. Assess the bank’s management processes for identifying and monitoring the risks of the various terms of each borrowing contract, including penalties and option features over the expected life of the contract.
   a. Obtain and examine evidence to determine whether the bank’s management, or an independent third party, completed stress tests before the bank entered into the borrowing agreement (or agreements) and periodically thereafter.
   b. If the bank relies on independent third-party testing, verify that management reviewed and accepted the underlying assumptions and test results.

3. Evaluate the management processes for controlling risks, including (1) interest-rate risks arising from the borrowings and (2) liquidity risks.

4. Determine if the asset/liability management committee or board of directors, as appropriate, is fully informed of the risks and ramifications of complex wholesale-borrowing agreements both before engaging in the transactions and on an ongoing basis.

5. Determine if funding strategies for wholesale borrowings, especially those with embedded options, are consistent with both the portfolio objectives of the bank and the level of sophistication of the bank’s risk management.

6. Seek the corrective action taken by the institution when funding mechanisms or strategies are inconsistent with prudent funding needs and objectives.
Deferred Compensation Agreements
Effective date May 2005

As part of their executive compensation and retention programs, banks and other financial institutions (collectively referred to in this section as “institutions”) often enter into deferred compensation agreements with selected employees. These agreements are generally structured as nonqualified retirement plans for federal income tax purposes and are based on individual agreements with selected employees.

Institutions often purchase bank-owned life insurance (BOLI) in connection with many of their deferred compensation agreements. (See sections 4042.1 and 2210.1 for an explanation of the accounting for BOLI transactions). BOLI may produce attractive tax-equivalent yields that offset some or all of the costs of the agreements.

Deferred compensation agreements are commonly referred to as indexed retirement plans (IRPs) or as revenue-neutral plans. The institution’s designated management and accounting staff that is responsible for the institution’s financial reporting must regularly review the accounting for deferred compensation agreements to ensure that the obligations under the agreements are appropriately measured and reported in accordance with generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP). In so doing, the management and accounting staff should apply and follow Accounting Principles Board Opinion No. 12, “Omnibus Opinion—1967,” as amended by Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 106 (FAS 106), “Employers’ Accounting for Postretirement Benefits Other Than Pensions” (hereafter referred to as APB 12).

IRPs are one type of deferred compensation agreement that institutions enter into with selected employees. IRPs are typically designed so that the spread each year, if any, between the tax-equivalent earnings on the BOLI covering an individual employee and a hypothetical earnings calculation is deferred and paid to the employee as a post-retirement benefit. This spread is commonly referred to as excess earnings. The hypothetical earnings are computed on the basis of a predefined variable index rate (for example, the cost of funds or the federal funds rate) times a notional amount. The notional amount is typically the amount the institution initially invested to purchase the BOLI plus subsequent after-tax benefit payments actually made to the employee. By including the after-tax benefit payments and the amount initially invested to purchase the BOLI in the notional amount, the hypothetical earnings reflect an estimate of what the institution could have earned if it had not invested in the BOLI or entered into the IRP with the employee. Each employee’s IRP may have a different notional amount on which the index is based. The individual IRP agreements also specify the retirement age and vesting provisions, which can vary from employee to employee.

An IRP agreement typically requires the excess earnings that accrue before an employee’s retirement to be recorded in a separate liability account. Once the employee retires, the balance in the liability account is generally paid to the employee in equal, annual installments over a set number of years (for example, 10 or 15 years). These payments are commonly referred to as the primary benefit or pre-retirement benefit.

An employee may also receive the excess earnings that are earned after his or her retirement. This benefit may continue until the employee’s death and is commonly referred to as the secondary benefit or post-retirement benefit. The secondary benefit is paid annually, once the employee has retired, and is in addition to the primary benefit.

Examiners should be aware that some institutions may not be correctly accounting for the obligations under an IRP. Because many institutions were incorrectly accounting for IRPs, the federal banking and thrift agencies issued on February 11, 2004, an Interagency Advisory on Accounting for Deferred Compensation Agreements and Bank-Owned Life Insurance. (See SR-04-4.) The guidance is stated here, except for the information on the reporting of deferred compensation agreement obligations in the bank Call Reports and on changes in accounting for those agreements. Examiners should determine whether an institution’s deferred compensation agreements are correctly accounted for. If the accounting is incorrect, assurance should be obtained from the institution’s management that corrections will be made in accordance with GAAP and the advisory’s instructions for changes in accounting. The examiner’s findings should be reported in the examination report. Also report the nature of the accounting errors and the estimated financial impact that correcting the errors will have on the institution’s
financial statements, including its earnings and capital position.

ACCOUNTING FOR DEFERRED COMPENSATION AGREEMENTS, INCLUDING IRPs

Deferred compensation agreements with select employees under individual contracts generally do not constitute post-retirement income plans (that is, pension plans) or post-retirement health and welfare benefit plans. The accounting for individual contracts that, when taken together, do not represent a post-retirement plan should follow APB 12. If the individual contracts, taken together, are equivalent to a plan, the plan should be accounted for under Statement of Financial Accounting Standards No. 87, “Employers’ Accounting for Pensions,” or under FAS 106.

APB 12 requires that an employer’s obligation under a deferred compensation agreement be accrued according to the terms of the individual contract over the required service period to the date the employee is fully eligible to receive the benefits, or the full eligibility date. Depending on the individual contract, the full eligibility date may be the employee’s expected retirement date, the date the employee entered into the contract, or a date between these two dates. APB 12 does not prescribe a specific accrual method for the benefits under deferred compensation contracts, stating only that the “cost of those benefits shall be accrued over that period of the employee’s service in a systematic and rational manner.” The amounts to be accrued each period should result in a deferred compensation liability at the full eligibility date that equals the then-present value of the estimated benefit payments to be made under the individual contract.

APB 12 does not specify how to select the discount rate to measure the present value of the estimated benefit payments. Therefore, other relevant accounting literature must be considered in determining an appropriate discount rate. An institution’s incremental borrowing rate\(^1\) and the current rate of return on high-quality fixed-income debt securities\(^2\) should be the acceptable discount rates to measure deferred compensation agreement obligations. An institution must select and consistently apply a discount-rate policy that conforms with GAAP.

For each IRP, an institution should calculate the present value of the expected future benefit payments under the IRP at the employee’s full eligibility date. The expected future benefit payments can be reasonably estimated. They should be based on reasonable and supportable assumptions and should include both the primary benefit and, if the employee is entitled to excess earnings that are earned after retirement, the secondary benefit. The estimated amount of these benefit payments should be discounted because the benefits will be paid in periodic installments after the employee retires. The number of periods the primary and any secondary benefit payments should be discounted may differ because the discount period for each type of benefit payment should be based on the length of time during which each type of benefit will be paid, as specified in the IRP.

After the present value of the expected future benefit payments has been determined, the institution should accrue an amount of compensation expense and a liability each year from the date the employee enters into the IRP until the full eligibility date. The amount of these annual accruals should be sufficient to ensure that a deferred compensation liability equal to the present value of the expected benefit payments is recorded by the full eligibility date. Any method of deferred compensation accounting that does not recognize some expense for the primary benefit and any secondary benefit in each year from the date the employee enters into the IRP until the full eligibility date is not considered to be systematic and rational.

Vesting provisions should be reviewed to ensure that the full eligibility date is properly determined because this date is critical to the measurement of the liability estimate. Because APB 12 requires that the present value of the expected benefit payments be recorded by the full eligibility date, institutions also need to consider changes in market interest rates to appropriately measure deferred compensation.

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1. Accounting Principles Board Opinion No. 21, “Interest on Receivables and Payables,” paragraph 13, states in part that “the rate used for valuation purposes will normally be at least equal to the rate at which the debtor can obtain financing of a similar nature from other sources at the date of the transaction.”

2. FAS 106, paragraph 186, states that “[t]he objective of selecting assumed discount rates is to measure the single amount that, if invested at the measurement date in a portfolio of high-quality debt instruments, would provide the necessary future cash flows to pay the accumulated benefits when due.”
liabilities. Therefore, to comply with APB 12, institutions should periodically review both their estimates of the expected future benefits under IRPs and the discount rates used to compute the present value of the expected benefit payments, and revise those estimates and rates, when appropriate.

Deferred compensation agreements, including IRPs, may include noncompete provisions or provisions requiring employees to perform consulting services during post-retirement years. If the value of the noncompete provisions cannot be reasonably and reliably estimated, no value should be assigned to the noncompete provisions in recognizing the deferred compensation liability. Institutions should allocate a portion of the future benefit payments to consulting services to be performed in post-retirement years only if the consulting services are determined to be substantive. Factors to consider in determining whether post-retirement consulting services are substantive include but are not limited to (1) whether the services are required to be performed, (2) whether there is an economic benefit to the institution, and (3) whether the employee forfeits the benefits under the agreement for failure to perform such services.

APPENDIX—EXAMPLES OF ACCOUNTING FOR DEFERRED COMPENSATION AGREEMENTS

The following are examples of the full-eligibility-date accounting requirements for a basic deferred compensation agreement. The assumptions used in these examples are for illustrative purposes only. An institution must consider the terms of its specific agreements, the current interest-rate environment, and current mortality tables in determining appropriate assumptions to use in measuring and recognizing the present value of the benefits payable under its deferred compensation agreements.

Institutions that enter into deferred compensation agreements with employees, particularly more-complex agreements (such as IRPs), should consult with their external auditors and their respective Federal Reserve Bank to determine the appropriate accounting for their specific agreements.

Example 1: Fully Eligible at Agreement Inception

A company enters into a deferred compensation agreement with a 55-year-old employee who has worked five years for the company. The agreement states that, in exchange for the employee’s past and future services and for his or her service as a consultant for two years after retirement, the company will pay an annual benefit of $20,000 to the employee, commencing on the first anniversary of the employee’s retirement. The employee is fully eligible for the deferred compensation benefit payments at the inception of the agreement, and the consulting services are not substantive.

Other key facts and assumptions used in determining the benefits payable under the agreement and in determining the liability and expense the company should record in each period are summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expected retirement age</th>
<th>60</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of years to expected retirement age</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discount rate (%)</td>
<td>6.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected mortality age based on present age</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the employee’s expected retirement date, the present value of a lifetime annuity of $20,000 that begins on that date is $142,109 (computed as $20,000 times 7.10545, the factor for the present value of 10 annual payments at 6.75 percent). At the inception date of the agreement, the present value of that annuity of $102,514 (computed as $142,109 times 0.721375, the factor for the present value of a single payment in five years at 6.75 percent) is recognized as compensation expense because the employee is fully eligible for the deferred compensation benefit at that date.

The following table summarizes one systematic and rational method of recognizing the expense and liability under the deferred compensation agreement:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Benefit payment ($)</th>
<th>Service component ($)</th>
<th>Interest component ($)</th>
<th>Compensation expense ($)</th>
<th>Beginning-of-year liability ($)</th>
<th>End-of-year liability ($)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>102,514</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>102,514</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>102,514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6,920</td>
<td>6,920</td>
<td>102,514</td>
<td>109,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7,387</td>
<td>7,387</td>
<td>109,434</td>
<td>116,821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7,885</td>
<td>7,885</td>
<td>116,821</td>
<td>124,706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>8,418</td>
<td>8,418</td>
<td>124,706</td>
<td>133,124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>8,985</td>
<td>8,985</td>
<td>133,124</td>
<td>142,109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>9,593</td>
<td>9,593</td>
<td>142,109</td>
<td>131,702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>8,890</td>
<td>8,890</td>
<td>131,702</td>
<td>120,592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>8,140</td>
<td>8,140</td>
<td>120,592</td>
<td>108,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7,339</td>
<td>7,339</td>
<td>108,732</td>
<td>96,071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6,485</td>
<td>6,485</td>
<td>96,071</td>
<td>82,556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>5,572</td>
<td>5,572</td>
<td>82,556</td>
<td>68,128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>4,599</td>
<td>4,599</td>
<td>68,128</td>
<td>52,727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3,559</td>
<td>3,559</td>
<td>52,727</td>
<td>36,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2,449</td>
<td>2,449</td>
<td>36,286</td>
<td>18,735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1,265</td>
<td>1,265</td>
<td>18,735</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td><strong>102,514</strong></td>
<td><strong>97,486</strong></td>
<td><strong>200,000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following entry would be made at the inception date of the agreement (the final day of year 0) to record the service component of the compensation expense and related deferred compensation agreement liability:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation expense $102,514</td>
<td>Deferred compensation liability $102,514</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column B service component]

In each period after the inception date of the agreement, the company would adjust the deferred compensation liability for the interest component and any benefit payment. In addition, the company would reassess the assumptions used in determining the expected future benefits under the agreement and the discount rate used to compute the present value of the expected benefits in each period after the inception of the agreement, and revise the assumptions and rate, as appropriate.

Assuming that no changes were necessary to the assumptions used to determine the expected future benefits under the agreement or to the discount rate used to compute the present value of the expected benefits, the following entry would be made in year 1 to record the interest component of the compensation expense:
Deferred Compensation Agreements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation expense</td>
<td>$6,920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deferred compensation liability</td>
<td>$6,920</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column C interest component (computed by multiplying the prior-year column F balance by the discount rate)]

Similar entries (but for different amounts) would be made in year 2 through year 15 to record the interest component of the compensation expense.

The following entry would be made in year 6 to record the payment of the annual benefit:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deferred compensation liability</td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column A benefit payment]

Similar entries would be made in year 7 through year 15 to record the payment of the annual benefit.

Example 2: Fully Eligible at Retirement Date

If the terms of the contract described in example 1 had stated that the employee is only entitled to receive the deferred compensation benefit if the sum of the employee’s age and years of service equals 70 or more at the date of retirement, the employee would be fully eligible for the deferred compensation benefit at age 60, after rendering five more years of service. At the employee’s expected retirement date, the present value of a lifetime annuity of $20,000 that begins on the first anniversary of that date is $142,109 (computed as $20,000 times 7.10545, the factor for the present value of 10 annual payments at 6.75 percent). The company would accrue this amount in a systematic and rational manner over the five-year period from the date it entered into the agreement to the date the employee is fully eligible for the deferred compensation benefit. Under one systematic and rational method, the annual service component accrual would be $24,835 (computed as $142,109 divided by 5.72213, the factor for the future value of five annual payments at 6.75 percent).

Other key facts and assumptions used in determining the benefits payable under the agreement and in determining the liability and expense the company should record in each period are summarized in the following table:

| Expected retirement age | 60         |
| Number of years to expected retirement age | 5         |
| Discount rate (%)       | 6.75       |
| Expected mortality age based on present age | 70        |

The following table summarizes one systematic and rational method of recognizing the expense and liability under the deferred compensation agreement:
No entry would be made at the inception date of the agreement. The following entry would be made in year 1 to record the service component of the compensation expense and related deferred compensation agreement liability:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$24,835</td>
<td>$24,835</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column B service component]

Similar entries would be made in year 2 through year 5 to record the service component of the compensation expense.

In each subsequent period, until the date the employee is fully eligible for the deferred compensation benefit, the company would adjust the deferred compensation liability for the total expense (the service and interest components). In each period after the full eligibility date, the company would adjust the deferred compensation liability for the interest component and any benefit payment. In addition, the company would reassess the assumptions used in determining the expected future benefits under the agreement and the discount rate used to compute the present value of the expected benefits in each period after the inception of the agreement, and revise the assumptions and rate, as appropriate.

Assuming no changes were necessary to the assumptions used to determine the expected...
future benefits under the agreement or to the discount rate used to compute the present value of the expected benefits, the following entry would be made in year 2 to record the interest component of the compensation expense:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compensation expense</td>
<td>$1,676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deferred compensation liability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$1,676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column C interest component (computed by multiplying the prior-year column F balance by the discount rate)]

Similar entries (but for different amounts) would be made in year 3 through year 15 to record the interest component of the compensation expense. The following entry would be made in year 6 to record the payment of the annual benefit:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Debit</th>
<th>Credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deferred compensation liability</td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$20,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[To record the column A benefit payment]

Similar entries would be made in year 7 through year 15 to record the payment of the annual benefit.
PURPOSE OF CAPITAL

Although both bankers and bank regulators must look carefully at the quality of bank assets and management and at the ability of the bank to control costs, evaluate risks, and maintain proper liquidity, capital adequacy is the area that triggers the most regulatory action, especially in view of the prompt-corrective-action (PCA) provision of section 38 of the Federal Deposit Insurance Act, 12 USC § 1831o. The primary function of capital is to fund the bank’s operations, act as a cushion to absorb unanticipated losses and declines in asset values that may otherwise lead to material firm distress or failure, and provide protection to uninsured depositors and debt holders in the event of liquidation. A bank’s solvency promotes public confidence in the bank and the banking system as a whole by providing continued assurance that the bank will continue to honor its obligations and provide banking services. By exposing stockholders to a larger percentage of any potential loss, higher capital levels reduce the subsidy provided to banks by the federal safety net. Capital regulation is particularly important because deposit insurance and other elements of the federal safety net provide banks with an incentive to increase their leverage beyond what the market—in the absence of depositor protection—would permit. Additionally, higher capital levels can reduce the need for certain elements of regulatory supervision, thereby lowering costs to the banking industry and the government.

OVERVIEW OF REGULATION Q (12 CFR Part 217)

During the 2008-2009 financial crisis, lack of confidence in the banking sector increased banking organizations’ cost of funding, impaired banking organizations’ access to short-term funding, depressed values of banking organizations’ equities, and required many banking organizations to seek government assistance. Concerns about banking organizations arose not only because market participants expected steep losses on banking organizations’ assets, but also because of substantial uncertainty surrounding estimated loss rates. Further, heightened systemic risks, falling asset values, and reduced credit availability had an adverse effect on business and consumer confidence, significantly affecting the overall economy.

In 2013, the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System (Board), the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, and the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (collectively the “agencies”) adopted a final rule replacing the general risk-based capital rules, advanced approaches rule, market risk rule, and leverage rules in accordance with certain transition provisions. Regulation Q addresses weaknesses highlighted during the 2008-2009 financial crisis by helping to ensure that the banking system is better able to absorb losses and continue to lend in future periods of economic stress. Regulation Q implements international regulatory capital standards adopted by the Basel Committee on Banking Supervision and certain requirements of the Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (the Dodd-Frank Act), including removal of credit ratings from the capital rules (section 939A).

Applicability of Regulation Q

Regulation Q applies on a consolidated basis to every Board-regulated institution (referred to as a “banking organization” in this section) that is

• a state member bank;
• a bank holding company (BHC) domiciled in the United States that is not subject to 12 CFR part 225, appendix C, or


2. 12 CFR part 225, appendix C is “The Small Bank Holding Company and Savings and Loan Holding Company Policy Statement,” which applies only to (BHCs) with pro forma consolidated assets of less than $3 billion that (i) are not engaged in significant nonbanking activities either directly or through a nonbank subsidiary; (ii) do not conduct significant off-balance-sheet activities (including securitization and asset management or administration) either directly or through a nonbank subsidiary; and (iii) do not have a material amount of debt or equity securities outstanding (other than trust preferred securities) that are registered with the Securities and Exchange Commission. The Board may in its discretion exclude any BHC, regardless of asset size, from the policy statement if
a covered savings and loan holding company (SLHC) domiciled in the United States.

Regulation Q does not apply to SLHCs substantially engaged in insurance underwriting or commercial activities, or to SLHCs that are insurance underwriting companies.

Components of Capital

Regulation Q provides a definition of capital and a framework for calculating risk-weighted assets by assigning assets and off-balance-sheet items to broad categories of credit risk. A banking organization’s risk-based capital ratio is calculated by dividing its qualifying capital (the numerator of the ratio) by its risk-weighted assets (the denominator). A summary of the components of qualifying capital is outlined below, as are the procedures for calculating risk-weighted assets. For more comprehensive information on the definition of capital and risk weighted assets, see the Board’s Regulation Q.

The risk-based capital requirements of Regulation Q are designed to be sensitive to differences in credit-risk profiles among banking organizations; factor off-balance-sheet exposures into the assessment of capital adequacy; minimize disincentives to holding liquid, low-risk assets; and achieve consistency in the evaluation of the capital adequacy of major banking organizations worldwide.

The three components of regulatory capital are (1) common equity tier 1 capital, (2) additional tier 1 capital, and (3) tier 2 capital.

Common Equity Tier 1 Capital

Common equity tier 1 capital is defined as the sum of a banking organization’s outstanding common equity tier 1 capital instruments that satisfy the criteria set forth in section 217.20(b) of Regulation Q (12 CFR 217.20(b)). Common equity tier 1 capital represents the highest-quality and most loss absorbing form of capital. The criteria for common equity tier 1 capital were designed to ensure that common equity tier 1 capital is available to absorb losses as they occur and that common equity tier 1 instruments do not possess features that would cause a banking organization’s condition to further weaken during periods of economic and market stress. Common equity tier 1 capital is primarily composed of common stock and retained earnings, plus limited amounts of minority interest in the form of common stock, less certain regulatory adjustments and deductions (e.g., goodwill).

Under the standardized approach of Regulation Q, banking organizations are not required to include all components of accumulated other comprehensive income (AOCI) in common equity tier 1 capital. For advanced approaches banking organizations, most AOCI components are included in common equity tier 1 capital.

Additional Tier 1 Capital

Additional tier 1 capital includes instruments that satisfy the criteria set forth in section 217.20(c) of Regulation Q (12 CFR 217.20(c)). These instruments include surplus related to the issuance of additional tier 1 capital instruments, and limited amounts of tier 1 minority interest that is not included in a banking organization’s common equity tier 1 capital, less applicable regulatory adjustments and deductions. The eligibility criteria for additional tier 1 capital instruments were designed to ensure that additional tier 1 capital instruments would be available to absorb losses on a going-concern basis. Given the strict criteria, in the United States the only instrument includable in additional tier 1 capital is non-cumulative perpetual preferred stock. Cumulative preferred and trust preferred securities are generally not included in additional tier 1 capital.

Tier 2 Capital

Tier 2 capital consists of instruments that satisfy the criteria set forth in section 217.20(d) of Regulation Q (12 CFR 217.20(d)). These instruments include: surplus related to the issuance of tier 2 capital instruments; limited amounts of total capital minority interest not included in a banking organization’s tier 1 capital; and limited...
amounts of the allowance for loan and lease losses (ALLL),3 less applicable regulatory adjustments and deductions. A banking organization calculating its total capital ratio using the standardized approach may include in tier 2 capital the amount of ALLL that does not exceed 1.25 percent of its standardized total risk-weighted assets.

A banking organization calculating its total capital ratio using the advanced approaches may include in tier 2 capital the excess of its eligible credit reserves over its total expected credit loss, provided the amount does not exceed 0.6 percent of its credit risk-weighted assets.

Deductions and Limits

Deductions from common equity tier 1 capital include goodwill and other intangibles (except mortgage servicing assets), deferred tax assets (DTAs) that arise from net operating loss and tax credit carryforwards (above certain levels), gains-on-sale in connection with a securitization, any defined benefit pension fund net asset (for banking organizations that are not insured depository institutions), investments in a banking organization’s own capital instruments, mortgage servicing assets (above certain levels) and investments in the capital of unconsolidated financial institutions (above certain levels). Mortgage servicing assets, DTAs arising from temporary differences that the banking organization could not realize through net operating loss carrybacks, and certain investments in financial institutions, are each limited to 10 percent of common equity tier 1 capital and in combination are limited to 15 percent of common equity tier 1 capital.

Risk-Weighted Assets

Regulation Q prescribes two approaches to risk weighting assets. The standardized approach is generally designed for smaller banking organizations, while the advanced approaches are used by larger, more complex institutions.

3. ALLL means valuation allowances that have been established through a charge against earnings to cover estimated credit losses on loans, lease financing receivables, or other extensions of credit as determined in accordance with GAAP. ALLL excludes “allocated transfer risk reserves.” For purposes of Regulation Q, ALLL includes allowances that have been established through a charge against earnings to cover estimated credit losses associated with off-balance-sheet credit exposures as determined in accordance with GAAP.

Standardized Approach

The standardized approach described in Regulation Q harmonizes the agencies’ calculation of risk-weighted assets and addresses shortcomings in previous risk-based capital requirements by increasing the capital requirements for certain assets. In addition, the standardized approach serves as a floor pursuant to section 171 of the Dodd-Frank Act with respect to risk-based capital requirements that the Board may establish for BHCs, any nonbank financial company designated by the Financial Stability Oversight Council, SLHCs, and state member banks.

Under the standardized approach, higher risk weights generally apply to high-volatility commercial real estate loans, past due loans, and certain equity and securitization exposures. The standardized approach also provides recognition of collateral and guarantees and incentives for derivatives and repo-style transactions cleared through central counterparties.

Below is a list of some key assets and exposures and the risk weights to which they are assigned under the standardized approach.

- **Public sector entities and U.S. government sponsored entities.** Exposures to the U.S. government generally receive a zero percent risk weight, and exposures to U.S. public-sector entities (PSEs), U.S. government-sponsored entities (GSEs), and U.S. depository institutions generally receive a 20 percent risk weight. Exposures conditionally guaranteed by the U.S. government and its agencies generally receive a 20 percent risk weight.

- **Exposures to sovereign entities.** Regulation Q provides that Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member countries without a country risk classifications (CRC) rating receive a risk weight of zero percent while nonmember countries without a CRC rating will receive a risk weight of 100 percent. Exposures to sovereign entities with a CRC rating are to be assigned the risk weight that corresponds to the CRC ratings. Additionally, if an event of sovereign default has occurred in the foreign bank’s home country within the last five years, a banking organization must assign a 150 percent risk weight to the exposure.
• **High volatility commercial real estate loans (HVCRE).** In general, HVCRE exposures include any credit facility that finances or has financed the acquisition, development, or construction of real property, unless the facility finances one- to four-family residential mortgage property, loans to finance agricultural properties, or certain community development projects, or commercial real estate projects that meet certain prudential criteria, including with respect to the loan-to-value (LTV) ratio and capital contributions or expense contributions of the borrower.

Supervisory experience has demonstrated that certain acquisition, development, and construction loans, which are a subset of commercial real estate exposures, present particular risks for banking organizations. Accordingly, HVCRE is assigned a 150 percent risk weight under Regulation Q.

• **Residential mortgage exposures.** One-to four-family residential mortgage exposures are generally assigned a 50 percent risk weight under Regulation Q provided the exposures are prudently underwritten first lien mortgage loans that are not past due, reported as nonaccrual, secured by a property that is either owner-occupied or rented, and has not been restructured or modified. A 100 percent risk weight is assigned for all other residential mortgages.

• **Structured securities and securitizations.** The securitization framework in Regulation Q was designed to address the credit risk of exposures that involve the tranching of credit risk of one or more underlying financial exposures. Regulation Q defines a securitization exposure as an on- or off-balance-sheet credit exposure (including credit-enhancing representations and warranties) that arises from a traditional or synthetic securitization (including a resecuritization), or an exposure that directly or indirectly references a securitization exposure.

Regulation Q establishes risk weight approaches for securitization exposures and structured security exposures that are retained on- or off-balance sheet. Typical examples of securitization exposures include private label collateralized mortgage obligations (CMOs), trust preferred collateralized debt obligations, and asset-backed securities, provided there is tranching of credit risk. Generally, pass-through and government agency CMOs are excluded from the securitization exposure risk weight approaches. In general, Regulation Q requires banking organizations to calculate the risk weight of securitization exposures using either the gross-up approach or the Simplified Supervisory Formula Approach (SSFA) consistently across all securitization exposures, except in certain cases. For instance, the bank can, at any time, risk-weight a securitization exposure at 1,250 percent.

The gross-up approach is similar to earlier risk-based capital rules, where capital is required on the credit exposure of the bank’s investment in a specific tranche as well as its pro rata share of the more senior tranches that its tranche supports. A bank calculates its capital requirement based on the weighted-average risk weights of the underlying exposures in the securitization pool.

The SSFA is designed to assign a lower risk weight to more-senior-class securities and higher risk weights to supporting tranches. The SSFA is both risk-sensitive and forward-looking. The formula adjusts the risk weight for a security based on key risk factors such as incurred losses on the underlying assets, nonperforming loans, and the ability of subordinate tranches to absorb losses. In any case, a securitization exposure is assigned a risk weight of no lower than 20 percent.

• **Securitization due diligence.** During the 2008-2009 financial crisis, many banking organizations relied exclusively on ratings issued by Nationally Recognized Statistical Rating Organizations (NRSROs) and did not perform internal credit analysis of their securitization exposures. Consistent with the Basel capital framework and the agencies' general expectations for investment analysis, Regulation Q outlines specific securitization exposure due diligence requirements for banking organizations. As stated in Regulation Q, a banking organization is required to demonstrate, to the satisfaction of its primary federal supervisor, a comprehensive understanding of the features of a securitization exposure that would materially affect its performance. The banking organization’s analysis would have to be commensurate with the complexity of the exposure and the materiality of the exposure in

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relation to capital of the banking organization. On an ongoing basis (no less frequently than quarterly), the banking organization must evaluate, review, and update as appropriate the analysis required under section 217.41(c)(1) of Regulation Q for each securitization exposure. The analysis of the risk characteristics of the exposure prior to acquisition, and periodically thereafter, would have to consider:

— Structural features of the securitization that materially impact the performance of the exposure. For example, the contractual cash-flow waterfall, waterfall-related triggers, credit enhancements, liquidity enhancements, market value triggers, the performance of organizations that service the position, and deal-specific definitions of default;

— Relevant information regarding the performance of the underlying credit exposure(s). For example, the percentage of loans 30, 60, and 90 days past due; default rates; prepayment rates; loans in foreclosure; property types; occupancy; average credit score or other measures of creditworthiness; average LTV ratio; and industry and geographic diversification data on the underlying exposure(s);

— Relevant market data of the securitization. For example, bid-ask spread; most recent sales price and historical price volatility; trading volume; implied market rating; and size, depth, and concentration level of the market for the securitization; and

— For resecuritization exposures, performance information on the underlying securitization exposures. For example, the issuer name and credit quality, and the characteristics and performance of the exposures underlying the securitization exposures.

If a banking organization is not able to meet these due diligence requirements and demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of a securitization exposure to the satisfaction of its primary federal supervisor, the banking organization would be required to assign a risk weight of 1,250 percent to the exposure.

• Equity exposures to investment funds. A banking organization determines the risk-weighted asset amount for equity exposures to investment funds using one of three approaches:

  (1) the full look-through approach, (2) the simple modified look-through approach, or (3) the alternative modified look-through approach, unless the equity exposure to an investment fund is a community development equity exposure. The risk-weighted asset amount for such community development equity exposures is the exposure’s adjusted carrying value. If a banking organization does not use the full look-through approach, and an equity exposure to an investment fund is part of a hedge pair, a banking organization must use the ineffective portion of the hedge pair as the adjusted carrying value for the equity exposure to the investment fund. The risk-weighted asset amount of the effective portion of the hedge pair is equal to its adjusted carrying value. A banking organization could choose which approach to apply for each equity exposure to an investment fund.

  — Full Look-Through Approach. A banking organization may use the full look-through approach only if the banking organization is able to calculate a risk-weighted asset amount for each of the exposures held by the investment fund. A banking organization using the full look-through approach is required to calculate the risk-weighted asset amount for its proportionate ownership share of each of the exposures held by the investment fund (as calculated under the standardized approach) as if the proportionate ownership share of the adjusted carrying value of each exposures were held directly by the banking organization. The banking organization’s risk-weighted asset amount for the exposure to the fund is equal to (1) the aggregate risk-weighted asset amount of the exposures held by the fund as if they were held directly by the banking organization multiplied by (2) the banking organization’s proportional ownership share of the fund.

  — Simple Modified Look-Through Approach. Under the simple modified look-through approach, a banking organization sets the risk-weighted asset amount for its equity exposure to an investment fund equal to the adjusted carrying value of the equity exposure multiplied by the highest applicable risk weight under the standardized approach to any exposure the fund is permitted to hold under the prospectus.
partnership agreement, or similar agreement that defines the fund’s permissible investments. The banking organization may exclude derivative contracts held by the fund that are used for hedging, rather than for speculative purposes, and do not constitute a material portion of the fund’s exposures.

— Alternative Modified Look-Through Approach. Under the alternative modified look-through approach, a banking organization may assign the adjusted carrying value of an equity exposure to an investment fund on a pro rata basis to different risk weight categories under the standardized approach based on the investment limits in the fund’s prospectus, partnership agreement, or similar contract that defines the fund’s permissible investments. The risk-weighted asset amount for the banking organization’s equity exposure to the investment fund is equal to the sum of each portion of the adjusted carrying value assigned to an exposure type multiplied by the applicable risk weight. If the sum of the investment limits for all permissible investments within the fund exceeds 100 percent, the banking organization must assume that the fund invests to the maximum extent permitted under its investment limits in the exposure type with the highest applicable risk weight until the maximum total investment level is reached. If more than one exposure category applies to an exposure, the banking organization must use the highest applicable risk weight. A banking organization may exclude derivative contracts held by the fund that are used for hedging, rather than for speculative purposes, and do not constitute a material portion of the fund’s exposures.

• Collateralized transactions. Regulation Q recognizes a range of financial collateral as credit risk mitigants that may reduce the risk-based capital requirements associated with a collateralized transaction. Financial collateral includes

(1) cash on deposit with the banking organization (including cash held for the banking organization by a third-party custodian or trustee);
(2) gold bullion;
(3) short- and long-term debt securities that are not resecuritization exposures and that are investment grade;
(4) equity securities that are publicly traded;
(5) convertible bonds that are publicly traded; or
(6) money market fund shares and other mutual fund shares if a price for the shares is publicly quoted daily.

With the exception of cash on deposit, the banking organization is also required to have a perfected, first-priority security interest or, outside of the United States, the legal equivalent thereof, notwithstanding the prior security interest of any custodial agent. Even if a banking organization has the legal right, it still must ensure it monitors or has a freeze on the account to prevent a customer from withdrawing cash on deposit prior to defaulting. A banking organization is permitted to recognize partial collateralization of an exposure.

Under Regulation Q, a banking organization may recognize the risk-mitigating effects of financial collateral using the “simple approach” for any exposure provided that the collateral meets certain requirements. For repo-style transactions, eligible margin loans, collateralized derivative contracts, and single-product netting sets of such transactions, a banking organization could alternatively use the “collateral haircut approach.” Most institutions are likely to use the simple approach; however, regardless of the approach chosen, it must be applied consistently for similar exposures or transactions.

Simple approach. In the simple approach described in Regulation Q, the collateralized portion of the exposure receives the risk weight applicable to the collateral. The collateral is required to meet the definition of financial collateral. For repurchase agreements, reverse repurchase agreements, and securities lending and borrowing transactions, the collateral would be the instruments, gold, and cash that a banking organization has borrowed, purchased subject to resale, or taken as collateral from the counterparty under the transaction. In all cases, (1) the collateral must be subject to a collateral agreement for at least the life of the exposure; (2) the banking organization must revalue the collat-
eral at least every six months; and (3) the collateral (other than gold) and the exposure must be denominated in the same currency.

Generally, the risk weight assigned to the collateralized portion of the exposure must be no less than 20 percent. However, the collateralized portion of an exposure may be assigned a risk weight of less than 20 percent in certain instances.

**Collateral haircut approach.** A banking organization may use the collateral haircut approach to recognize the credit risk mitigation benefits of financial collateral that secures an eligible margin loan, repo-style transaction, collateralized derivative contract, or single-product netting set of such transactions. In addition, the banking organization may use the collateral haircut approach with respect to any collateral that secures a repo-style transaction that is included in the banking organization’s value-at-risk (VaR)-based measure under the market risk rule, even if the collateral does not meet the definition of financial collateral. To apply the collateral haircut approach, a banking organization must determine the exposure amount and the relevant risk weight for the counterparty or guarantor.

The exposure amount for an eligible margin loan, repo-style transaction, collateralized derivative contract, or a netting set of such transactions is equal to the greater of zero and the sum of the following three quantities as described in section 217.37(c): (1) the value of the exposure less the value of the collateral; (2) the absolute value of the net position in a given instrument or in gold; and (3) the absolute value of the net position of instruments and cash in a currency that is different from the settlement currency multiplied by the haircut appropriate to the currency mismatch.

For purposes of the collateral haircut approach, a given instrument includes, for example, all securities with a single Committee on Uniform Securities Identification Procedures (CUSIP) number and would not include securities with different CUSIP numbers, even if issued by the same issuer with the same maturity date.

• **Treatment of Guarantees.** Under Regulation Q, banking organizations have the option to substitute the risk weight of an eligible guarantor or guarantor for the risk weight of the underlying exposure. For example, if the bank has a loan guaranteed by an eligible guarantor, the bank can use the risk weight of the guarantor. Eligible guarantors include entities such as depository institutions and holding companies, the International Monetary Fund, Federal Home Loan Banks, the Federal Agricultural Mortgage Corporation, entities with investment grade debt, sovereign entities, and foreign banks. An eligible guarantee must be written, be either unconditional or a contingent obligation of the U.S. government or its agencies, cover all or a pro rata share of all contractual payments, give the beneficiary a direct claim against the protection provider, and meet other requirements outlined in the definition of eligible guarantees in 12 CFR 217.2.

• **Off-Balance-Sheet Exposures.** Risk-weighted asset amounts for off-balance-sheet items are calculated using a two-step process: (1) Multiplying the amount of the off-balance-sheet exposure by a credit conversion factor to determine a credit equivalent amount, and (2) assigning the credit equivalent amount to a relevant risk-weight category. This treatment would apply to all off-balance-sheet items, such as commitments, contingent items, guarantees, certain repo-style transactions, financial standby letters of credit, and forward agreements.

**Advanced Approaches**

Advanced approaches banking organizations generally include top-tier BHCs or SLHCs domiciled in the United States and state member banks with consolidated total assets of at least $250 billion or consolidated total on-balance sheet foreign exposures of at least $10 billion. Advanced approaches banking organizations also include those banking organizations that have elected to use the advanced approaches rule to calculate their total risk-weighted assets. The advanced approaches rule provides a risk-based capital framework that permits certain banking organizations to use an internal risk measurement approach to calculate capital requirements and advanced measurement approaches in order to calculate regulatory operational-risk capital requirements. An advanced approaches banking organization must calculate its risk-based capital

5. See 12 CFR part 217 subpart E.
Table 1—Summarizing the Standardized Approach Risk Weights of Assets in 12 CFR 217

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Risk Weight</th>
<th>Section of the rule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>217.32(1)(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct and unconditional claims on the U.S. government, its agencies,</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>217.32(a)(1)(i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and the Federal Reserve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on certain supranational entities and multilateral development</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>217.32(b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash items in the process of collection</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>217.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional claims on the U.S. government</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>217.32(a)(1)(ii)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs)</td>
<td>20% on exposures other than equity exposures and preferred stock. 100% on GSE preferred stock.</td>
<td>217.32(c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on U.S. depository institutions and National Credit Union</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>217.32(d)(1) and (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration-insured credit unions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on U.S. public sector entities</td>
<td>20% for general obligations. 50% for revenue obligations.</td>
<td>217.32(e)(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial development bonds</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>217.32(l)(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on qualifying securities firms</td>
<td>100% – See corporate exposures below.</td>
<td>217.32(f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One- to four-family loans</td>
<td>50% if first lien, prudently underwritten, owner occupied or rented, not 90 days or more past due or carried in nonaccrual status, is not restructured or modified. 100% otherwise.</td>
<td>217.32(g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One- to four-family loans modified under Home Affordable Modification</td>
<td>50% and 100%</td>
<td>217.32(g)(3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Risk Weight</td>
<td>Section of the rule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans to builders secured by one- to four-family properties presold under firm contracts</td>
<td>50% if the loan meets all criteria in the regulation. 100% if the contract is cancelled. 100% for loans not meeting the criteria.</td>
<td>217.32(h)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans on multifamily properties</td>
<td>50% if the loan meets all the criteria in the regulation for a statutory multifamily property; 100% otherwise.</td>
<td>217.32(i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate exposures and consumer loans</td>
<td>100% unless the exposure is an investment in an instrument included in the regulatory capital of another financial institution.</td>
<td>217.32(f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial real estate (CRE)</td>
<td>100% 150% for high volatility commercial real estate, which is a subset of CRE, and defined as a credit facility that, prior to conversion to permanent financing, finances or has financed the acquisition, development, or construction of real property, unless the facility finances (1) one- to four-family residential properties; (2) certain community development projects; (3) the purchase or development of agricultural land; or (4) commercial real estate projects that meet the criteria in the rule, including criteria regarding the loan-to-value ratio and capital contributions to the project.</td>
<td>217.32(j) and (l)(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past-due exposures</td>
<td>150% for the portion that is not guaranteed or secured (does not apply to sovereign exposures). However, one- to four-family loans that are past due 90 days or more are assigned a 100% risk weight.</td>
<td>217.32(k)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets not assigned to a risk weight category, including fixed assets, premises, and other real estate owned</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>217.32(l)(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mortgage-backed securities, asset-backed securities, and structured securities</td>
<td>Two general approaches— gross-up approach and simple supervisory formula approach. May also choose to risk weight a securitization exposure at 1,250%.</td>
<td>217.42, .43, and .44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Risk Weight</td>
<td>Section of the rule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity exposures</td>
<td>Range of risk weights between 0% and 600%, depending on the entity and whether the equity is publicly traded</td>
<td>217.51 and .52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity exposures to investment funds</td>
<td>There is a 20% risk weight floor on investment fund holdings. The following approaches are available:</td>
<td>217.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Risk weight is the same as the highest risk weight investment the fund is permitted to hold (called the Simple Modified Look-Through Approach).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. A banking organization may assign risk weight on a pro rata basis based on the investment limits in the fund’s prospectus (called the Alternative Modified Look-Through Approach).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. A third treatment (called the Full Look-Through Approach) risk weights each asset of the fund (as if owned directly) and multiplies by the banking organization’s proportional ownership in the fund.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Claims on foreign governments and their central banks, foreign banking organizations, and foreign public sector entities</td>
<td>Risk weight depends on Country Risk Classification (CRC) applicable to the sovereign, the sovereign’s OECD status, and whether the sovereign entity has defaulted within the previous five years.</td>
<td>217.32(a)(2) to (6), (d)(2) and (e)(2) to (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ratios using both the standardized and advanced approaches and meet each minimum requirement with the lower of the two ratios. The advanced approaches rules are supplemented by the market risk rule.

**Market Risk Rule**

The market risk rule is used by banking organizations with significant trading activities to calculate regulatory capital requirements for market risk. The purpose of the market risk rule is to establish risk-based capital requirements for Board-regulated institutions with significant exposure to market risk, provide methods for these Board-regulated institutions to calculate their standardized measure for market risk and, if applicable, advanced measure for market risk, and establish public disclosure requirements. The market risk rule applies to any Board-regulated institution with aggregate trading assets and trading liabilities equal to 10 percent or more of total assets or $1 billion or more. On a case-by-case basis, the Board may require an

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6. See 12 CFR part 217 subpart F.

7. As reported in the Board-regulated institution’s most recent quarterly Call Report, for a state member bank, or Form FR Y-9C, for a BHC or SLHC; as applicable, any SLHC that does not file the Form FR Y-9C should follow the instructions to the Form FR Y-9C.
institution that does not meet these criteria to comply with the market risk rule if deemed necessary for safety-and-soundness reasons. The Board may also exclude an institution that meets the criteria if such exclusion is deemed to be consistent with safe and sound banking practices.

Minimum Regulatory Capital Ratios

All banking organizations covered under Regulation Q are subject to the following minimum regulatory capital requirements: a common equity tier 1 capital ratio of 4.5 percent, a tier 1 capital ratio of 6 percent, a total capital ratio of 8 percent of risk-weighted assets, and a leverage ratio of 4 percent.8

Most banking organizations are expected to operate with capital levels above the minimum ratios. Banking organizations that are undertaking significant expansion or that are exposed to high or unusual levels of risk are expected to maintain capital well above the minimum ratios; in such cases, the Board may specify a higher minimum requirement.

In implementing Regulation Q, the Board has reserved the authority to require banking organizations to hold more capital if the minimum requirements are not commensurate with the bank’s credit, market, operational, or other risks (see 12 CFR 217.1(d)). This is a formal process that requires Board approval, and an examiner alone cannot provide this directive. Examiners may use the Matters Requiring Attention or Matters Requiring Immediate Attention section of the examination report to require a bank to maintain an appropriate capital policy or plan that includes capital limits that are consistent with the bank’s risk profile.

Supplementary Leverage Ratio

Advanced approaches banking organizations are also subject to a minimum supplementary leverage ratio of 3 percent. The denominator of the supplementary leverage ratio incorporates certain off-balance-sheet exposures such as commitments and derivative exposures. The Board applies this to advanced approaches firms, because these firms typically hold higher levels of off-balance-sheet exposure that are not captured by the leverage ratio.

Enhanced Supplementary leverage ratio

In 2015, the Board implemented an enhanced supplemental leverage ratio requirement, which applies to any U.S. top-tier BHC designated as a global systemically important bank holding company (G-SIB) and its insured depository institution subsidiaries.9 Under the enhanced supplementary leverage ratio standards, a covered G-SIB must maintain a leverage buffer of 2 percent above the minimum supplementary leverage ratio of 3 percent (for a total of 5 percent) to avoid limitations on distributions and certain discretionary bonus payments. The leverage buffer functions like the capital conservation buffer for the risk-based capital ratios, which is described in greater detail below.

De Novo Bank Leverage Ratio

The initial leverage standards for a de novo state member bank are described in SR letter 91-17, “Application and Supervision Standards for De Novo State Member Banks.” SR 91-17 provides that, in general, capital standards for de novo institutions should be reasonable in relation to the bank’s location, business plan, competitive environment, state law, and other applicable supervisory expectations. Historically, the Board has expected de novo state member banks to maintain a tangible tier 1 leverage ratio (core capital elements minus all intangible assets divided by average total assets minus all intangible assets) of at least 9 percent for the first three years of operation. However, this is just a minimum expectation and the Board retains authority to impose a higher requirement as condition of approval of Federal Reserve System membership on a case-by-case basis. Even though a minimum 9 percent tangible leverage ratio is not required after the third year, under SR 91-17 the de novo period can apply for as long as five years and de novo banks are expected to maintain capital ratios that are commensurate with ongoing safety-and-soundness concerns and that are generally well in excess of regulatory minimums.

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8. Tier 1 capital is equal to the sum of common equity tier 1 capital and additional tier 1 capital. Total capital is the sum of common equity tier 1, additional tier 1, and tier 2 capital.

**Capital Conservation Buffer**

During the 2008-2009 financial crisis, some banking organizations continued to pay dividends and substantial discretionary bonuses even as their financial condition weakened. Such capital distributions had a significant negative impact on the overall strength of the banking sector. To encourage better capital conservation and to enhance the resilience of the banking system, Regulation Q limits capital distributions and discretionary bonus payments for banking organizations that do not hold a specified amount of common equity tier 1 capital in addition to the amount of regulatory capital necessary to meet the minimum risk-based capital requirements (capital conservation buffer).

The intent of the capital conservation buffer is to enhance the safety and stability of the financial system by limiting capital distributions and discretionary bonus payments as the financial condition of a banking organization weakens. The capital conservation buffer does not require a banking organization to raise additional capital to meet a minimum regulatory requirement. The transition period for the capital conservation buffer ends December 31, 2018. Starting January 1, 2019, a banking organization’s capital conservation buffer must be greater than 2.5 percent of its total risk-weighted assets in order to avoid limitations on capital distributions and discretionary bonus payments.

**Countercyclical Capital Buffer**

In addition, a countercyclical capital buffer, if applicable, would expand the capital conservation buffer by up to 2.5 percent of a banking organization’s total risk-weighted assets for advanced approaches banking organizations. The amount of the countercyclical capital buffer amount differs by jurisdiction and at any point in time is based on determinations by the supervisors in each jurisdiction of the degree of excessive credit growth in their jurisdictions.

**PROMPT CORRECTIVE ACTION**

In 1991, Congress enacted a regulatory framework to address the problems associated with troubled insured depository institutions with the intent of minimizing the long-term cost to the Deposit Insurance Fund. This legislation, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation Improvement Act of 1991, added section 38 to the Federal Deposit Insurance Act (the FDI Act), codified at 12 USC 1831o; section 38 is known as the “prompt corrective action” (PCA) statute. The Board has implemented PCA as applicable to state member banks in subpart D of Regulation H (12 CFR 208.40 to 208.45). PCA uses the total risk-based capital measure, tier 1 risk-based capital measure, common equity tier 1 risk-based capital measure, leverage ratio, and tangible equity to total assets ratio for assigning state member banks to the five capital categories. These five PCA categories under section 38 of the FDI Act and the PCA regulations are “well capitalized,” “adequately capitalized,” “undercapitalized,” “significantly undercapitalized,” and “critically undercapitalized.” The capital ratios trigger specific actions that are designed to restore a bank to financial health. See the “Prompt Corrective Action” section of the CBEM for more information on PCA.

**EVALUATING CAPITAL ADEQUACY**

**Overall Assessment of Capital Adequacy**

The following factors should be taken into account in assessing the overall capital adequacy of a bank.

**Capital Ratios**

Capital ratios should be compared with regulatory minimums and with peer-group averages. Banking organizations are expected to have minimum capital ratios described above. However, because risk-based capital does not take explicit account of the quality of individual asset portfolios or the range of other types of risks to which banking organizations may be exposed, such as interest-rate, liquidity, market, or operational risks, banking organizations are generally expected to operate with capital positions above the minimum ratios. Institutions with high or inordinate levels of risk are also expected to maintain capital well above the minimum levels.

**Impact of Management**

*Strategic capital planning.* Supervisors have
long expected all banking organizations, regardless of size, to employ within their internal processes, risk management practices that appropriately assess their capital needs under a range of different reasonably anticipated adverse outcomes. One of management’s most important functions is to lead the organization by designing, implementing, and supporting an effective strategic plan. Strategic planning is a long-term approach to integrating asset deployment, funding sources, capital formation, management, marketing, operations, and information systems to achieve success. Strategic planning helps the organization more effectively anticipate and adapt to change. Management must also ensure that planning information as well as corporate goals and objectives are effectively communicated throughout the organization. Effective strategic planning allows the institution to be more proactive than reactive in shaping its own future. The strategic plan should clearly outline the bank’s capital base, anticipated capital expenditures, desirable capital level, and external capital sources. Each of these areas should be evaluated in consideration of the degree and type of risk that management and the board of directors are willing to accept.\textsuperscript{10}

**Growth.** Capital is necessary to support a bank’s growth; however, it is the imposition of required capital ratios that controls growth. Because a bank has to maintain a minimum ratio of capital to assets, it will only be able to grow so fast. For example, a rapid growth in a bank’s loan portfolio may be a cause of concern, for it could indicate that a bank is altering its risk profile by reducing its underwriting standards.

**Dividends.** State member banks are subject to legal restrictions on reductions in capital resulting from cash dividends, including out of the capital surplus account, under 12 USC 324 and 12 CFR 208.5. On November 14, 1985, the Board approved a policy statement on the payment of cash dividends by state member banks and BHCs that are experiencing financial difficulties. The policy statement addresses the following practices of supervisory concern by institutions that are experiencing earnings weaknesses, other serious problems, or that have inadequate capital:

- The payment of dividends not covered by earnings,
- The payment of dividends from borrowed funds, and
- The payment of dividends from unusual or nonrecurring gains, such as the sale of property or other assets.

It is the Board’s view that an organization experiencing earnings weaknesses or other financial pressures should not maintain a level of cash dividends that exceeds its net income, that is inconsistent with the organization’s capital position, or that can only be funded in ways that may weaken the organization’s financial health. In some instances, it may be appropriate to eliminate cash dividends altogether.\textsuperscript{11}

Examiners should review historical and planned cash-dividend payout ratios to determine whether dividend payments are impairing capital adequacy. Excessive dividend payouts may result from several sources:

- If the bank is owned by a holding company, the holding company may be requiring excessive dividend payments from the bank to fund the holding company’s debt-repayment program, expansion goals, or other cash needs.
- The bank’s board of directors may be under pressure from individual shareholders to provide funds to repay bank stock debt or to use for other purposes.
- Dividends may be paid or promised to support a proposed equity offering.\textsuperscript{12}

**Access to additional capital.** Banks that do not generate sufficient capital internally may require external sources of capital. Large, independent institutions may seek additional funding from the capital markets. Smaller institutions may rely on a BHC, a principal shareholder, or a

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\textsuperscript{10} For more information about capital planning at the holding company level, see SR letter 09-4, “Applying Supervisory Guidance and Regulations on the Payment of Dividends, Stock Redemptions, and Stock Repurchases at Bank Holding Companies,” for institutions with less than $50 billion in assets and SR letter 15-18, “Federal Reserve Supervisory Assessment of Capital Planning and Positions for LISCC Firms and Large and Complex Firms,” and SR letter 15-19, “Federal Reserve Supervisory Assessment of Capital Planning and Positions for Large and Noncomplex Firms,” for firms with $50 billion in assets or greater.

\textsuperscript{11} For the complete text of the policy statement on the payment of cash dividends by state member banks and BHCs that are experiencing financial difficulties see the Bank Holding Company Supervision Manual and Attachment B to SR 09-4.

\textsuperscript{12} For more information, see the “Dividends” section of this manual.
control group to provide additional funds, or may rely on the issuance of new capital instruments to existing or new investors. Current shareholders may resist efforts to issue new capital instruments because of the diluting effect of the new capital. In deciding whether to raise additional capital in this manner, shareholders must weigh the dilution against the possibility that, without the additional funds, the institution may fail.

Under the FDI Act, a BHC is required to serve as a source of strength to its subsidiary banks. A BHC can fulfill this obligation by having enough liquidity to inject funds into the bank or by having access to the same sources of additional capital, that is, current or existing shareholders, as outlined above.

Financial Considerations

Financial information can be found on Schedule RC-R of the Report of Condition and Income (Call Report) for banks; however, risk may not always be reflected in the current financial condition. Therefore, examiners should not rely solely on an institution’s current financial condition when determining capital adequacy and must assess management’s ability to identify, measure, monitor, and control all material risks that may affect capital. Capital levels and ratios should be evaluated in view of the bank’s overall financial condition, including the following areas:

Asset quality. The final supervisory judgment on a bank’s capital adequacy may differ significantly from conclusions that may be drawn solely from the level of a bank’s risk-based capital ratio. Generally, the main reason for this difference is the evaluation of asset quality. Final supervisory judgment of a bank’s capital adequacy should take into account examination findings, particularly those on the severity of problem and classified assets and investment or loan portfolio concentrations, as well as on the adequacy of the bank’s allowance for loan and lease losses.

Balance-sheet composition. A bank whose earning assets are not diversified or whose credit culture is more risk-tolerant is generally expected to operate with higher capital levels than a similar-sized institution with well-diversified, less-risky investments.

Earnings. A bank’s earnings performance should enable it to fund growth, compete in the marketplace, and support the overall risk profile. An adequately capitalized, growing bank should have a consistent pattern of capital augmentation by earnings retention. Poor earnings can have a negative effect on capital adequacy in two ways. First, any losses absorbed by capital reduce the ability of the remaining capital to fulfill that function. Second, the impact of losses on capital is magnified by the fact that a bank generating losses is incapable of replenishing its capital accounts internally.

Funds management. A bank with undue levels of interest-rate risk should be required to strengthen its capital positions, even though it may meet the minimum risk-based capital standards. The adequacy and effectiveness of an institution’s interest-rate risk management process and the level of its interest-rate risk exposure are critical factors in the regulators’ evaluation of an institution’s sensitivity to changes in interest rates and capital adequacy. Regulators expect banks to manage their interest-rate exposures using processes and systems commensurate with their earnings and capital levels, complexity, business model, risk profile, and scope of operations. If a bank determines that its core earnings and capital are insufficient to support its level of interest-rate risk, it should take steps to mitigate its exposure, increase its capital, or both. See SR letter 10-1, “Interagency Advisory on Interest Rate Risk,” for more information.

Off-balance-sheet items and activities. Once funded, off-balance-sheet items become subject to the same capital requirements as on-balance-sheet items. A bank’s capital levels should be sufficient to support the quality and quantity of assets that would result from a significant portion of these items being funded within a short time.

Inadequate Allowance for Loan and Lease Losses. An inadequate ALLL will require an additional charge to current income. Any charge to current income will reduce the amount of earnings available to supplement tier 1 capital. Because the amount of the ALLL that can be
Included in tier 2 capital is limited to 1.25 percent of gross risk-weighted assets, an additional provision may increase the ALLL level above this limit, thereby resulting in the excess portion being excluded from tier 2 capital.

Ineligible Collateral and Guarantees. Regulation Q recognizes only limited types of collateral and guarantees. Other types of collateral and guarantees may support the asset mix of the bank, particularly within its loan portfolio. Such collateral or guarantees may serve to substantially improve the overall quality of a loan portfolio and other credit exposures and should be considered in the overall assessment of capital adequacy.

Market Value of Bank Stock. Examiners should review trends in the market price of the bank’s stock and whether stock is trading at a reasonable multiple of earnings or a reasonable percentage (or multiple) of book value. A bank’s low stock price may merely be an indication that it is undervalued, or it may be indicative of regional or industry-wide problems. However, a low-valued stock may also indicate that investors lack confidence in the institution; such lack of support could impair the bank’s ability to raise additional capital in the capital markets.

Other Real Estate Reserves. Other real estate reserves, whether considered general or specific reserves, are not recognized as a component of regulatory capital. However, these reserves should be considered when accounting for other real estate (ORE) that is classified Loss. Examiners should consider the existence of any general ORE reserves when deducting ORE classified Loss. To the extent ORE reserves adequately cover the risks inherent in the ORE portfolio as a whole, including any individual ORE properties classified Loss, there would not be a deduction from common equity tier 1 capital. The ORE Loss in excess of ORE reserves should be deducted from common equity tier 1 capital under Assets Other Than Held-for-Investment Loans and Leases Classified Loss.

Unrealized Asset Values. Banking organizations often have assets on their books that are carried at significant discounts below current market values. The excess of the market value over the book value (historical cost or acquisition value) of assets such as investment securities or banking premises may represent capital to the bank. These unrealized asset values are not included in the risk-based capital calculation but should be taken into consideration when assessing capital adequacy. Particular attention should be given to the nature of the asset, the reasonableness of its valuation, its marketability, and the likelihood of its sale.

Stress Testing and Capital Adequacy

Stress testing is a tool that helps both bank supervisors and certain firms measure the sufficiency of capital available to support the firm’s operations throughout periods of stress. The Board and the other federal banking agencies have highlighted the use of stress testing as a means to better understand the range of a financial company’s potential risk exposures. While stress tests are a valuable tool for assessing the capital adequacy of a firm, stress tests may not necessarily capture a company’s full range of risks, exposures, activities, and vulnerabilities that have a potential effect on capital adequacy.

Many of the Board’s stress testing rules apply to larger holding companies. For instance, Regulation YY establishes, among other things, capital stress testing requirements for BHCs with total consolidated assets of $50 billion or more, including requirements to participate in the Board’s annual supervisory stress test and conduct their own internal capital stress tests. The capital plan rule establishes general capital planning requirements for a BHC with total consolidated assets of $50 billion or more and requires a BHC to develop an annual capital plan that is approved by its board of directors.

Community banking organizations, which generally include institutions, such as state member banks, with $10 billion or less in total consolidated assets, are not required or expected to conduct the types of stress testing described above, which are directed at larger organizations. In particular, community banks are not required or expected to conduct the enterprise-wide stress tests required of larger organizations.

15. For more information on changes to the Board’s stress testing and capital planning rules, see the Board’s statement regarding the impact of the Economic Growth, Regulatory Relief, and Consumer Protection Act (EGRRCPA) dated July 6, 2018, available at www.federalreserve.gov/newsevents/pressreleases/files/bcreg20180706l.pdf.
under the capital plan rule, rules implementing Dodd-Frank Act stress testing requirements, or as described in the stress testing guidance for organizations with more than $10 billion in total consolidated assets.\(^\text{17}\)

### RATING THE CAPITAL FACTOR FOR STATE MEMBER BANKS

As stated in the Uniform Financial Institutions Rating System\(^\text{18}\) for commercial banks and thrifts, a financial institution is expected to maintain capital commensurate with the nature and extent of risks to the institution and the ability of management to identify, measure, monitor, and control these risks. The effect of credit, market, and other risks on the institution’s financial condition should be considered when evaluating the adequacy of capital. The types and quantity of risk inherent in an institution’s activities will determine the extent to which it may be necessary to maintain capital at levels above required regulatory minimums to properly reflect the potentially adverse consequences that these risks may have on the institution’s capital.

The capital adequacy of an institution is rated based upon, but not limited to, an assessment of the following evaluation factors:

- The level and quality of capital and the overall financial condition of the institution.
- The ability of management to address emerging needs for additional capital.
- The nature, trend, and volume of problem assets, and the adequacy of allowances for loan and lease losses and other valuation reserves.
- Balance sheet composition, including the nature and amount of intangible assets, market risk, concentration risk, and risks associated with nontraditional activities.
- Risk exposure represented by off-balance-sheet activities.
- The quality and strength of earnings, and the reasonableness of dividends.
- Prospects and plans for growth as well as past experience in managing growth.
- Access to capital markets and other sources of capital, including support provided by a parent holding company.

#### Ratings

1. A rating of 1 indicates a strong capital level relative to the institution’s risk profile.
2. A rating of 2 indicates a satisfactory capital level relative to the financial institution’s risk profile.
3. A rating of 3 indicates a less than satisfactory level of capital that does not fully support the institution’s risk profile. The rating indicates a need for improvement, even if the institution’s capital level exceeds minimum regulatory and statutory requirements.
4. A rating of 4 indicates a deficient level of capital. In light of the institution’s risk profile, viability of the institution may be threatened. Assistance from shareholders or other external sources of financial support may be required.
5. A rating of 5 indicates a critically deficient level of capital such that the institution’s viability is threatened. Immediate assistance from shareholders or other external sources of financial support is required.

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Assessment of Capital Adequacy
Examination Objectives
Effective date October 2018

Section 3020.2

1. To determine the adequacy of capital.
2. To determine compliance with the risk-based and leverage capital adequacy rules.
3. To determine if the policies, practices, and procedures with regard to the capital adequacy rules are adequate.
4. To determine if the bank’s officers and employees are operating in conformity with the Board’s established capital adequacy rules.
5. To evaluate the propriety and consistency of the bank’s present and planned level of capitalization in light of the risk-based and leverage capital rules as well as existing conditions and future plans.
6. To initiate corrective action when policies, procedures, or capital are deficient.
1. Determine whether bank policies and practices promote capital preservation and address future capital needs. Consider the following:
   • The strategic plan and its underlying assumptions, projected asset growth, dividend plans, asset quality, income, liquidity, funds management, deposit structure, parent-company relationship, contingent liabilities, expansion plans, competition, and economic conditions;
   • Findings from interviews with management regarding the strategic planning process (including any potential issues due to a change in prompt corrective action (PCA) designation);
   • Internal risk-monitoring policies and procedures;
   • The availability of additional capital sources (such as funding provided by insiders, external sources, or additional debt at the parent level); and
   • The permissibility of current or planned components of capital to qualify as Common Equity Tier 1 Capital or Additional Tier 1 Capital.

2. Review historical and planned dividend payout ratios and other planned capital reductions, including reductions subject to legal restrictions and prior Board approval. For planned capital stock retirements, ensure management requested prior regulatory approval. Also, determine whether management evaluated the impact of the capital conservation buffer, including reductions subject to legal restrictions and prior Board approval.

3. Determine whether entries to capital accounts are appropriate and properly authorized.

4. Assess controls over off-balance sheet items (Schedule RC-L) and their overall impact to sufficiency of capital levels and needs.

5. Review board and management’s procedures to prevent, detect, and respond to policy exceptions that may affect capital.

6. Determine whether the audit function verifies the accuracy of the capital accounts and regulatory reports; assesses the appropriateness, accuracy, and timeliness of reports produced for the board and executive management; and evaluates the reasonableness of capital planning.

7. Determine whether audits or independent reviews include an assessment of bank policies and procedures as well as regulatory requirements related to capital issues.

8. Determine whether Board and management reports provide sufficient, timely, and accurate information.

9. Review the accuracy of the bank’s calculation of Common Equity Tier 1 Capital, Additional Tier 1, and Tier 2 Capital. Reviewing the bank’s calculations may involve some of the following procedures:
   • Review Call Report Schedule RC-R and supporting documentation.
   • Determine whether the bank has chosen to opt-out of the inclusion of accumulated other comprehensive income.
   • Review applicable deductions and adjustments for each tier of capital, including phase-in and phase-out provisions (refer to 217.22 for capital adjustments and deduction rules and 217.300 for transition provisions).
   • Consider whether the bank has non-qualifying capital instruments or non-qualifying minority interests subject to phase-out (refer to 217.20 for criteria for capital instruments for each tier of capital, 217.21 for minority interest rules, and 217.300 for transition provisions).

10. Review the accuracy of the bank’s calculation of risk-weighted assets reported on Schedule RC-R, Part II. Reviewing the bank’s calculations may involve some of the following procedures:
    • Determine whether risk weights for most assets conform to applicable requirements (Part 217.32).
    • As applicable, review risk weights for other categories of exposures, such as
      — Off-balance sheet exposures (Part 217.33),
      — Over-the-counter derivative contracts (Part 217.34),
      — Cleared transactions (Part 217.35),
      — Guarantees and credit derivatives (Part 217.35),
      — Collateralized transactions (Part 217.37)
— Securitizations (Part 217.41-45),
— Equity exposures (Part 217.51-52),
— Equity exposures to investment funds (Part 217.53), and
— Other aspects of the revised capital rules.

11. Review the bank’s capital ratios under the revised PCA standards. If the bank is less than well capitalized under the revised standards (or appears that it could become less than well capitalized due to the phase-in of deductions or other aspects of the new capital rules), consider whether the bank has a reasonable strategy to meet the fully phased-in requirements over the transition period.

12. Review the bank’s capital conservation buffer and the appropriateness of any distributions and discretionary bonus payments.

13. Determine whether earnings performance enables the bank to fund growth, compete in the marketplace, and support the overall risk profile. Consider the level and trend of equity capital in relation to asset levels, quality, and growth rates.
   • Assess the impact of current and projected provisions to the allowance for loan and lease losses (ALLL) on capital retention and growth.
   • Review whether the bank is relying on core earnings or non-recurring income.
   • Determine whether dividends are excessive compared to current earnings. (Consider applicable state and federal guidance.)

14. Determine whether the existing capital level is adequate for the bank’s risk profile when considering the following items:
   • The adequacy of capital-management policies and controls;
   • The level, type, and trend of adversely classified assets;
   • The adequacy of the ALLL;
   • The volume and trends of charged-off loans and recoveries;
   • The balance sheet structure and liquidity needs;
   • The level, type, and trend of concentrations;
   • The vulnerability of assets and liabilities to adverse events;
   • The volume of unrealized gains or losses on available-for-sale securities;
   • The degree of interest rate risk exposure assumed by the bank;
   • The reasonableness of booked, future tax benefits;
   • The accounting treatment and valuation of intangible assets;
   • The extent of contingent liabilities associated with trusts or other activities;
   • Dividend/repayment requirements for government capital programs (for example the Troubled Asset Relief Program or Small Business Lending Fund);
   • The extent of any other liabilities not shown on the bank’s books, including contingent liabilities;
   • The existence of pending litigation against the bank (and its subsidiaries) and the potential and estimated loss exposure;
   • The volume and risk characteristics of new business initiatives and higher risk investment or lending strategies (for example, subprime lending or mobile banking), or involvement in nontraditional activities such as non-deposit products, insurance sales, or discount brokerage services;
   • The extent to which higher-risk loans or investments may require additional capital under the revised regulatory capital rules’ risk-weights (for example, high-volatility commercial real estate loans, equity exposures, or certain structured or securitized investments);
   • Compliance with state and federal capital level requirements; and
   • The level of operational and reputational risk.

15. Assess the adequacy of management’s actions to correct criticisms related to capital in previous examination reports and recent internal or external audits.

16. Evaluate the effectiveness of management’s internal processes and risk management practices at preparing for and reacting to changes in economic, industry, and regulatory environments, including the ability to assess capital needs under a range of reasonably anticipated adverse events.

17. Determine whether management effectively identifies and manages
   • the institution’s overall risk profile,
   • factors that may change the institution’s risk profile, and
   • how a change in the risk profile will affect the sufficiency of capital levels.
18. Determine whether management effectively identifies and manages any changes to regulatory capital rules by
   • evaluating its prospective capital position pursuant to the revised rule(s);
   • adopting ways to measure capital based on any revisions to the capital rule(s); and
   • ensuring that the board is aware of these changes.
INTRODUCTION

Asset-backed commercial paper (ABCP) programs provide a means for corporations to obtain funding by selling or securitizing pools of homogenous assets (for example, trade receivables) to special-purpose entities (SPEs/ABCP programs). The ABCP program raises funds for purchase of these assets by issuing commercial paper into the marketplace. The commercial-paper investors are protected by structural enhancements provided by the seller (for example, overcollateralization, spread accounts, or early-amortization triggers) and by credit enhancements (for example, subordinated loans or guarantees) provided by banking organization sponsors of the ABCP program and by other third parties. In addition, liquidity facilities are also present to ensure the rapid and orderly repayment of commercial paper should cash-flow difficulties emerge. ABCP programs are nominally capitalized SPEs that issue commercial paper. A sponsoring banking organization establishes the ABCP program but usually does not own the conduit’s equity, which is often held by unaffiliated third-party management companies that specialize in owning such entities, and are structured to be bankruptcy remote.

TYPICAL STRUCTURE

ABCP programs are funding vehicles that banking organizations and other intermediaries establish to provide an alternative source of funding to themselves or their customers. In contrast to term securitizations, which tend to be amortizing, ABCP programs are ongoing entities that usually issue new commercial paper to repay maturing commercial paper. The majority of ABCP programs in the capital markets are established and managed by major international commercial banking organizations. As with traditional commercial paper, which has a maximum maturity of 270 days, ABCP is short-term debt that may either pay interest or be issued at a discount.

TYPES OF ABCP PROGRAMS

Multi-seller programs generally provide working capital financing by purchasing or advancing against receivables generated by multiple corporate clients of the sponsoring banking organizations. These programs are generally well diversified across both sellers and asset types.

Single-seller programs are generally established to fund one or more types of assets originated by a single seller. The lack of diversification is generally compensated for by increased program-wide credit enhancement.

Loan-backed programs fund direct loans to corporate customers of the ABCP program’s sponsoring banking organization. These loans are generally closely managed by the banking organization and have a variety of covenants designed to reduce credit risk.

Securities-arbitrage programs invest in securities that generally are rated AA- or higher. They generally have no additional credit enhancement at the seller/transaction level because the securities are highly rated. These programs are typically well diversified across security types. The arbitrage is mainly due to the difference between the yield on the securities and the funding cost of the commercial paper.

Structured investment vehicles (SIVs) are a form of a securities-arbitrage program. These ABCP programs invest in securities typically rated AA- or higher. SIVs operate on a market-value basis similar to market-value collateralized debt obligations in that they must maintain a dynamic overcollateralization ratio determined by analysis of the potential price volatility on securities held in the portfolio. SIVs are monitored daily and must meet strict liquidity, capitalization, leverage, and concentration guidelines established by the rating agencies.

KEY PARTIES AND ROLES

Key parties for an ABCP program include the following:

- program management/administrators
- credit-enhancement providers
- liquidity-facility providers
- seller/servicers
- commercial paper investors
Program Management

The sponsor of an ABCP program initiates the creation of the program but typically does not own the equity of the ABCP program, which is provided by unaffiliated third-party investors. Despite not owning the equity of the ABCP program, sponsors usually retain a financial stake in the program by providing credit enhancement, liquidity support, or both, and they play an active role in managing the program. Sponsors typically earn fees—such as credit-enhancement, liquidity-facility, and program-management fees—for services provided to their ABCP programs.

Typically, an ABCP program makes arrangements with various agents/servicers to conduct the administration and daily operation of the ABCP program. This includes such activities as purchasing and selling assets, maintaining operating accounts, and monitoring the ongoing performance of each transaction. The sponsor is also actively engaged in the management of the ABCP program, including underwriting the assets purchased by the ABCP program and the type/level of credit enhancements provided to the ABCP program.

Credit-Enhancement Providers

The sponsoring banking organization typically provides pool-specific and program-wide backup liquidity facilities, and program-wide credit enhancements, all of which are usually unrated (pool-specific credit enhancement, such as over-collateralization, is provided by the seller of the assets). These enhancements are fundamental for obtaining high investment-grade ratings on the commercial paper issued to the market by the ABCP program. Seller-provided credit enhancement may exist in various forms and is generally sized based on the type and credit quality of the underlying assets as well as the quality and financial strength of seller/servicers. Higher-quality assets may only need partial support to achieve a satisfactory rating for the commercial paper. Lower-quality assets may need full support.

Liquidity-Facility Providers

The sponsoring banking organization and, in some cases, unaffiliated third parties, provide pool-specific or program-wide liquidity facilities. These backup liquidity facilities ensure the timely repayment of commercial paper under certain conditions, such as when financial market disruptions or cash-flow timing mismatches were to occur, but generally not under conditions associated with the credit deterioration of the underlying assets or the seller/servicer to the extent that such deterioration is beyond what is permitted under the related asset-quality test.

Commercial Paper Investors

Commercial paper investors are typically institutional investors, such as pension funds, money market mutual funds, bank trust departments, foreign banks, and investment companies. Commercial paper maturities range from 1 day to 270 days, but most frequently are issued for 30 days or less. There is a limited secondary market for commercial paper since issuers can closely match the maturity of the paper to the investors' needs. Commercial paper investors are generally repaid from the reissuance of new commercial paper or from cash flows stemming from the underlying asset pools purchased by the program. In addition, to ensure timely repayment in the event that new commercial paper cannot be issued or if anticipated cash flows from the underlying assets do not occur, ABCP programs utilize backup liquidity facilities. Furthermore, the banking organization can purchase the ABCP from the conduit if the commercial paper cannot be issued. Pool-specific and program-wide credit enhancements also protect commercial paper investors from deterioration of the underlying asset pools.

THE LOSS WATERFALL

The loss waterfall diagram (on the next page) for the exposures of a typical ABCP program generally has four legally distinct layers. However, most legal documents do not specify which form of credit or liquidity enhancement is in a priority position after pool-specific credit enhancement is exhausted due to defaults. For example, after becoming aware of weakness in the seller/servicer or in asset performance, an ABCP program sponsor may purchase assets out of the conduit using pool-specific liquidity. Liquidity agreements must be subject to a valid...
asset-quality test that prevents the purchase of defaulted or highly delinquent assets. Liquidity facilities that are not limited by such an asset-quality test are to be viewed as credit enhancement and are subject to the risk-based capital requirements applicable to direct-credit substitutes.

**Pool-Specific Credit Enhancement**

The form and size of credit enhancement for each particular asset pool is dependent upon the nature and quality of the asset pool and the seller/servicer’s risk profile. In determining the level of credit enhancement, consideration is given to the seller/servicer’s financial strength, quality as a servicer, obligor concentrations, and obligor credit quality, as well as the historic performance of the asset pool. Credit enhancement is generally sized to cover a multiple level of historical losses and dilution for the particular asset pool. Pool-specific credit enhancement can take several forms, including overcollateralization, cash reserves, seller/servicer guarantees (for only highly rated seller/servicers), and subordination. Credit enhancement can be either dynamic (that is, increases as the asset pool’s performance deteriorates) or static (that is, fixed percentage). Pool-specific credit enhancement is generally provided by the seller/servicer (or carved out of the asset pool in the case of overcollateralization) but may be provided by other third parties.

The ABCP program sponsor or administrator will generally set strict eligibility requirements for the receivables to be included in the purchased asset pool. For example, receivable eligibility requirements will establish minimum credit ratings or credit scores for the obligors and the maximum number of days the receivable can be past due.

Usually the purchased asset pools are struc-
Program by purchasing nondefaulted assets from a specific asset pool, or (2) a loan to the ABCP program, which is repaid solely by the cash flows from the underlying assets.¹ Some older ABCP programs may have both pool-specific liquidity and program-wide liquidity coverage, while more-recent ABCP programs tend to utilize only pool-specific facilities. Typically, the seller-provided credit enhancement continues to provide credit protection on an asset pool that is purchased by a liquidity banking organization so that the institution is protected against credit losses that may arise due to subsequent deterioration of the pool.

Pool-specific liquidity, when drawn prior to the ABCP program’s credit enhancements, is subject to the credit risk of the underlying asset pool. However, the liquidity facility does not provide direct credit enhancement to the commercial paper holders. Thus, the pool-specific liquidity facility generally is in an economic second-loss position after the seller-provided credit enhancements and prior to the program-wide credit enhancement even when the legal documents state that the program-wide credit enhancement would absorb losses prior to the pool-specific liquidity facilities. This is because the sponsor of the ABCP program would most likely manage the asset pools in such a way that deteriorating portfolios or assets would be put to the liquidity banking organizations prior to any defaults that would require a draw against the program-wide credit enhancement.² While the liquidity banking organization is exposed to the credit risk of the underlying asset pool, the risk is mitigated by the seller-provided credit enhancement and the asset-quality test.³ At the time that the asset pool is put to the liquidity banking organization, the facility is usually fully drawn because the entire amount of the pool that qualifies under the asset-quality test is pur-

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¹. Direct-liquidity loans to an ABCP program may be termed a commissioning agreement (most likely in a foreign bank program) and may share in the security interest in the underlying assets when commercial paper ceases to be issued due to deterioration of the asset pool.

². In fact, according to the contractual provisions of some conduits, a certain level of draws on the program-wide credit enhancement is a condition for unwinding the conduit program, which means that this enhancement is never meant to be used.

³. An asset-quality test or liquidity-funding formula determines how much funding the liquidity banking organization will extend to the conduit based on the quality of the underlying asset pool at the time of the draw. Typically, liquidity banking organizations will fund against the conduit’s purchase price of the asset pool less the amount of defaulted assets in the pool.
chased by the banking organization. However, with respect to revolving transactions (such as credit card securitizations) it is possible to average less than 100 percent of the commitment.

**Program-Wide Liquidity**

The senior-most position in the waterfall, program-wide liquidity, is provided in an amount sufficient to support that portion of the face amount of all the commercial paper that is issued by the ABCP program that is necessary to achieve the desired external rating on the issued paper. Program-wide liquidity also provides liquidity in the event of a short-term disruption in the commercial paper market. In some cases, a liquidity banking organization that extends a direct liquidity loan to an ABCP program may be able to access the program-wide credit enhancement to cover losses while funding the underlying asset pool.