

ASC 326 CECL: Credit Loss Accounting for Receivables

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Executive Summary

ASC 326 (CECL) fundamentally changed [U.S. GAAP](#) by requiring **forward-looking, lifetime expected credit loss** allowances for most financial assets at amortized cost, including trade receivables and [contract assets](#). Under CECL, companies must estimate credit losses over an asset's entire life using historical loss experience, current conditions, and reasonable and supportable forecasts (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)) (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)). This replaces the old "incurred loss" model, where losses were recorded only when probable. With CECL, allowances are recognized upon origination of the asset (or adoption of the standard) and adjusted each period, yielding greater volatility and earlier recognition of potential credit losses (Source: [technicalaccountingforum.com](#)) (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)).

For example, one Federal Reserve analysis found that when large banks adopted CECL on January 1, 2020, their total credit-loss allowances jumped by about **37%** relative to the incurred-loss methodology (Source: [www.federalreserve.gov](#)). Those allowances then grew even faster during the COVID-19 downturn (a 76% rise in the first half of 2020 for CECL adopters, versus 32% for legacy banks (Source: [www.federalreserve.gov](#)). These shifts reflected CECL's **lifetime** focus. In transition, many companies recorded one-time adjustments through retained earnings: a large services firm (JLL) noted an increase of \$3.6 million in its trade-receivable allowance (from \$68.1 M to \$71.7 M) and established a \$1.7 M allowance for contract assets at adoption (Source: [www.sec.gov](#)).

The change has had broad implications. Businesses must now **distinguish credit losses from revenue concessions** (price discounts) and deploy new data and models across accounting, finance, and risk teams (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)) (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)). For instance, if a customer fails to pay an invoice (\$15 of \$100), companies must judge whether this is a *credit loss* (e.g. bankruptcy) or a *price concession* (discount). Only genuine credit losses hit the allowance account, while concessions adjust revenue (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)). Entities also grapple with the complexity of [forecasting future economic conditions](#); FASB clarified that companies need not forecast unrealistically far beyond a *reasonable and supportable* horizon (Source: [www.revenuehub.org](#)).

This report provides an **in-depth analysis** of ASC 326 (CECL) as it applies to receivables and contract assets. We begin with historical background and scope, then describe the CECL model's mechanics. We examine data-gathering and estimation methods, and the interaction with revenue standards (ASC 606) on contract assets. We compare CECL to IFRS 9 to highlight global differences. Using empirical data and case studies

(including banks and nonbanks), we evaluate CECL's effects on financial statements and stakeholder decisions. Finally, we discuss implementation challenges, regulatory feedback, and future outlook, including any anticipated standard revisions. All assertions are supported by authoritative sources, ensuring a rigorous, evidence-based treatment.

Introduction and Background

Pre-CECL Accounting for Credit Losses

Before ASC 326, U.S. GAAP used **incurred-loss models** for credit impairment (e.g. ASC 310-10 on loans, ASC 450 on loss contingencies). Under those rules, companies recorded a *provision for credit losses* only when it became *probable* that a loss had been incurred. In practice, this often meant that lifetime losses were recognized only after observable triggers (e.g. delinquency, default) – leading to the notorious “*too little, too late*” phenomenon during the financial crisis of 2007–2009 (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). As the Fed noted, during that crisis losses “build only after the recession has begun” and allowances peaked well *after* conditions worsened (Source: www.federalreserve.gov).

This can also be seen in financial statements of the era: banks entered the crisis under-reserved, then aggressively increased allowances in 2008–2010, compressing earnings and capital when they could least afford it (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). Regulators and investors criticized the lack of **forward-looking** provisioning. In response, starting around 2009–2010 various stakeholders (including U.S. regulators and Congress) urged FASB and IASB to incorporate future information into impairment models. The consensus goal was to **improve timeliness** of credit-loss recognition, smoothing volatility and aligning book losses more closely with future defaults (Source: www.federalreserve.gov) (Source: www.federalreserve.gov).

Indeed, both the U.S. and international standard-setters embarked on projects. **IFRS 9** (“Financial Instruments”), issued by the IASB in 2014 (effective 2018 for banks), also adopted an *expected loss* approach, albeit with a multi-stage model keyed to credit deterioration. FASB moved in June 2016 with ASU 2016-13, “**Financial Instruments – Credit Losses (Topic 326): Measurement of Credit Losses**”, introducing the Current Expected Credit Loss (CECL) framework (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). ASU 2016-13 (codified into ASC 326) took effect for most large U.S. banks on Jan 1, 2020 (with phased implementation for other entities) (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). Its core requirement is that companies estimate and record allowances for credit losses over an asset's *full contractual life*, using reasonable and supportable forecasts of future conditions (Source: www.revenuehub.org) (Source: www.revenuehub.org).

Scope of ASC 326

ASC 326 is **broad** in scope. It applies to **all** entities (public, private, NFP) and covers almost all financial assets measured at amortized cost. Notably, FASB explicitly included *trade receivables*, *contract assets*, *loans*, *held-to-maturity debt securities*, *financing receivables*, *lease receivables (net investment in leases)*, and similar instruments (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com) (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). It also covers certain off-balance-sheet credit exposures (e.g. loan commitments, financial guarantees) (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). In effect, if a company carries an asset at amortized cost and that asset has credit risk, CECL applies. (By contrast, available-for-sale (AFS) securities are handled under an amended ASC 320 impairment model, and assets measured at fair value through profit and loss are excluded.)

Trade and contract receivables are now squarely within the CECL model. Dicta from FASB and practitioners confirm this: “ASC 326-20 requires assets measured at amortized cost (typically receivables, loans, etc.) to be presented at the net amount expected to be collected,” and importantly *contract assets* arising under ASC 606 must be included as well (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Under ASC 606-10-45-3 (revenue recognition), entities explicitly must assess contract assets for credit losses by reference to the CECL guidance (Source: www.revenuehub.org). In practice, this means that when a company recognizes revenue on a contract but has not yet billed (creating a “contract asset”), it must evaluate and record an allowance on that asset for expected credit losses, just as it would for an account receivable.

This marks a departure from legacy practice where many businesses carried trade receivables *net of a shortfall* only at year-end and often only if absolute impairment indicators existed. Under CECL, **all** trade AR and contract assets (once a customer contract exists) are potential credit loss exposures, and allowances may appear on day one. For example, the Technical Accounting Forum notes: “most companies have financial instruments (e.g., trade receivables, lease receivables, contract assets...) that are affected [by CECL]” (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Even companies outside financial industries must therefore establish credit loss processes for their customer receivables and contract assets.

For completeness, ASC 326 also addresses credit losses for loan commitments and off-balance exposures: expected losses on the funded portion of an undrawn commitment must be accrued as a liability (based on the likelihood of funding and subsequent loss) (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Conversely, an unfunded portion *that is freely cancelable* by the lender carries no CECL allowance (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Credit enhancements (e.g. guarantees) embedded in financial instruments must similarly be considered.

Effective Dates and Transition

FASB set out a phased effective date. Public companies (and SEC filers) had to apply CECL to fiscal years beginning after Dec 15, 2019 (i.e. Jan 1, 2020 for calendar-year entities). Nonpublic companies's deadline was extended to fiscal years beginning after Dec 15, 2022 (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). (Smaller reporting companies and non-SEC filers generally followed in 2023 after applying the new private company alternatives.) Importantly, CECL was applied with a **modified retrospective** approach (instead of full history restatement). On implementation date, companies adjust the opening allowance (and related deferred tax) through retained earnings, reflecting the cumulative effect of applying the new model as if in effect since origination of existing assets. Thereafter, comparative prior-period information is not restated.

As one illustration, Jones Lang LaSalle (JLL) reported that adopting CECL on Jan 1, 2020 *required re-evaluating reserves for its trade receivables and contract assets*. JLL's disclosures show an initial cumulative adjustment of \$3.6 million to increase its trade receivable allowance (from \$68.1M to \$71.7M) and a \$1.7 million allowance for contract assets (Source: www.sec.gov). This one-time adjustment reduced retained earnings by \$14.9 M (Source: www.sec.gov). In another case (a smaller private company), management added about \$149,000 to accounts receivable allowances on transition (Source: www.sec.gov). Across industries, companies plugged other receivable categories (e.g. lease receivables, note receivables) into the CECL process on transition, often systematically increasing total provision balances.

Overall, these examples highlight how CECL often raises initial allowances relative to the old model. As FASB noted, CECL “does not change the total amount of credit losses that will be ultimately recorded” but does shift **when** losses hit earnings (earlier under CECL) (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). The Fed's analysis confirms this for banks: because CECL allowances represent lifetime versus a shorter “loss emergence” period, “CECL generally results in a higher level of allowances at each reporting period” compared to the incurred-loss era (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). Yet, due to a regulatory capital transition, much of the capital impact was mitigated after adoption (Source: www.federalreserve.gov).

ASC 326 (CECL) Requirements in Detail

Key Principles of the CECL Model

Under ASC 326-20 (often called the *CECL impairment model*), the **obligation is to measure lifetime credit losses** on Day One for most financial assets at amortized cost (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com) (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Major features include:

- **No impairment threshold:** There is *no* triggering event or probabilistic threshold to begin recognizing an allowance. From inception, an entity must record an allowance if any lifetime loss is expected, even if remote (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). This contrasts sharply with the old model and with some IFRS approaches. The allowance is directly recorded as a contra-asset, with a charge to credit loss expense upfront (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com) (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Practically, this means that even a newly-issued one-year note or a freshly invoiced receivable will carry *some* allowance based on historical loss rates and projections.
- **Lifetime expected losses:** CECL requires estimating the full life-of-loan (or life until maturity/prepayment) credit losses. All available information must be considered: historical loss experience, current observable information, and *reasonable and supportable forecasts* (Source: www.revenuehub.org). FASB clarified that it does not expect entities to model extreme long-term forecasts far beyond what is supportable (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Instead, companies often project into a forecast horizon (e.g. 1–3 years) and beyond that revert to long-term averages in a “blended” allowance. For example, Daniel Gray et al. note that once an entity has made reasonable short-term forecasts, it can rely on historical loss trends for the tail end (Source: www.revenuehub.org).
- **Pooling by risk characteristics:** Assets must be grouped into pools with similar risk traits (so-called “homogeneous” pools) when estimating allowances (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Risk characteristics may include credit scores, industry, collateral type, contract term, etc. For receivables and contract assets, pools might be by customer profile or product line. Within each pool, an aggregate loss estimate is calculated, then allocated as an allowance.
- **Amortized cost basis:** The CECL allowance is measured on the amortized cost basis of the asset (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com) (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). This includes unamortized premiums/discounts, fees, and deferred origination costs (not the asset's face or principal alone). Entities must exercise judgment in including origination costs or unearned interest in the measurement.
- **Write-offs and recoveries:** When a debtor is deemed uncollectible (after all remedies are exhausted), the asset is charged off against the allowance (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Any recoveries of previously written-off amounts are recorded when received. Importantly, CECL does *not* allow reversals of the allowance except to the extent of recoveries; previously recognized credit losses stay in expense or

reserves.

The net effect is that the carrying amount of a loan or receivable is presented as *net of* the allowance for credit losses, reflecting the “net amount expected to be collected” (Source: www.revenuehub.org). In income, credit loss provisions (and adjustments) flow through a provision expense account, which affects net income immediately.

Specific Provisions for Trade Receivables and Contract Assets

Definition of Contract Assets (ASC 606)

Under ASC 606 (“Revenue from Contracts with Customers”), a **contract asset** arises when a company has performed (or delivered goods/services) but does not yet have an unconditional right to payment. For instance, if a service is recognized but billing is later, the unbilled amount is a contract asset. A contract asset flips to a receivable once the billing becomes unconditional. Though not initially a financial instrument at contract inception, once it meets the definition of a receivable (i.e., enforceable right to consideration), it falls under ASC 326.

The revenue impairment rules in ASC 606 (ASC 606-10-25 and 606-10-45) require that collectibility be probable to recognize revenue at all. If collectibility is less than “probable” (typically <75–80% chance), an entity cannot even record a receivable or contract asset; it must recognize revenue only to the extent of cash received (Source: www.revenuehub.org). In practice, this initial collectibility assessment is stricter than CECL’s: if AR/contract assets are recorded, collectibility is already presumed “probable”. Remaining credit risk (less than certain) is then addressed through CECL allowances.

Application of CECL to Contract Assets

ASC 606 explicitly cross-references ASC 326 for contract assets. The guidance states that once a contract exists, *any asset recognized at amortized cost* (such as a receivable or contract asset) “shall be presented at the net amount expected to be collected” (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Thus, even before invoicing, any portion of revenue recorded as a contract asset must be adjusted for expected credit losses under ASC 326-20. In practical terms, after each reporting period, entities estimate expected shortfalls on outstanding contract assets and set up an allowance (just like for receivables). Any increase in this allowance is charged to expense, consistent with CECL procedures (Source: www.revenuehub.org).

RevenueHub notes this dual requirement: “ASC 606-10-45-3 also requires that contract assets be assessed for credit losses under the guidance of ASC 326-20” (Source: www.revenuehub.org). When disclosing, companies often show contract asset balances net of an allowance. For example, in JLL’s disclosures, a portion of the allowance for “long-term contract assets” is shown as within “Other assets” (Source: www.sec.gov). This treatment echoes the IFRS approach (IFRS 15/9) and ensures consistency: credit losses on unbilled amounts reduce the asset and hit earnings.

Distinguishing Credit Losses from Price Concessions

A critical practical issue has been the difference between credit losses and price concessions. Under ASC 606, a **price concession** (discount/allowance) agreed with a customer after initial billing reduces revenue, whereas a **credit loss** reflects an inability to collect what was promised. Companies must discern the cause of any shortfall on receivables/contract assets.

RevenueHub gives a clear example (styled as “ABC Hospital”): an initial bill of \$100, \$75 is paid, leaving \$25—\$10 of which is covered by the pre-existing allowance, so net \$15 remains. If the customer later refuses to pay the remaining \$15, is it a credit loss or a price concession? The standard dictates the answer: if the patient went bankrupt (lack of creditworthiness), the \$15 is a **credit loss** and must be written off against the CECL allowance (Source: www.revenuehub.org). If, however, the patient negotiated a discount (a contractual price concession) after accounting, then that \$15 was never “earned” revenue and instead would require a reduction of revenue and adjustment of the allowance accordingly. In short, true credit losses feed the allowance; retroactive discounts feed revenue adjustments. This distinction has been a major area of confusion during CECL implementation.

Presentation Impact

As a result of ASC 326 and its interplay with ASC 606, the balance sheet presentation of net receivables/contract assets has shifted. Where previously companies might simply carry receivables at gross value (offset by a modest allowance only if losses were deemed likely), now they typically present receivables **net of an allowance** that reflects lifetime expected losses (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Contract assets, similarly, are shown net of their allowances. The income statement now includes a proxy “Provision for credit losses” line (or similar) that fluctuates with changes in the general allowance. Equity was directly affected at transition via a retained earnings adjustment.

Methodologies for Estimating CECL Allowances

ASC 326 intentionally does **not prescribe a single calculation method** for expected credit losses. Companies have discretion to choose or combine approaches that best fit their data and asset types (Source: [technicalaccountingforum.com](https://www.technicalaccountingforum.com)). Common techniques (all accepted under ASC 326) include:

MODEL	DESCRIPTION	SOURCE
Discounted Cash Flow (DCF)	Compare a financial asset's amortized cost to the present value of its estimated future cash flows undelivered due to default (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Suitable for individually significant exposures.	(Source: technicalaccountingforum.com)
Loss-Rate Method	Apply an estimated loss rate (often drawn from historical loss data) to the amortized cost of a pool, adjusted for prepayments. (E.g. "ACL = carrying value × loss rate.") (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Good for homogeneous portfolio outlooks.	(Source: technicalaccountingforum.com)
Roll-Rate (Migration) Method	Use historical transition rates between aging buckets or risk grades. For example, measure what fraction of 90–120 day past-due balances eventually defaulted, then apply that "roll" rate to current aged receivables (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com).	(Source: technicalaccountingforum.com)
Probability of Default (PD × LGD)	Estimate a probability of default (PD) and loss-given-default (LGD) for each exposure or group. Multiply PD by LGD (the portion of the loan not expected to be recovered) to get the expected loss, then apply to exposure amount (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). Common in banking risk models.	(Source: technicalaccountingforum.com)
Aging (Days Outstanding)	Assign loss rates to receivables based on their age (e.g. 1–30 days, 31–60, etc.), where older receivables carry higher estimated losses (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). A variation on loss-rate models, often used when sufficient default experience by age is known.	(Source: technicalaccountingforum.com)

(Table: Examples of CECL allowance estimation methods. See ASC 326 for additional approaches and guidance.)

No single method is mandated, but the chosen model(s) must reflect all available information. In practice, many companies use multiple inputs: e.g. a base historical loss-rate by age, adjusted by forward-looking qualitative/quantitative factors. For receivables, teams often start with an **aging schedule** (which uses the fact that older receivables historically incur higher losses) and then overlay management's forecast of economic trends or customer credit changes. Complex institutions might implement Monte Carlo simulations or use proprietary credit-risk models, especially for large loan portfolios. Key is that the model is **documented**, reasonably calibrated, and periodically backtested against actual losses.

ASC 326 also requires considering collateral and credit enhancements. If a loan or receivable is secured, the effects of collateral must be contemplated (e.g. possible declines in collateral value) (Source: [technicalaccountingforum.com](https://www.technicalaccountingforum.com)). Loan guarantees or letters of credit are factored in, whether embedded in the instrument or as separate arrangements. And for loan commitments (like a line of credit), CECL demands an allowance for expected losses on funded draws, and a possible liability for expected losses on unfunded draws (to the extent the lender cannot cancel) (Source: [technicalaccountingforum.com](https://www.technicalaccountingforum.com)).

Incorporating Reasonable and Supportable Forecasts

A distinguishing feature of CECL is the explicit inclusion of forecasts. Companies must adjust historical loss rates for *current conditions* and *reasonable and supportable forecasts that affect collectibility* (Source: www.revenuehub.org). This means credit analysts or finance teams must identify economic indicators (unemployment, GDP, industry trends, commodity prices, etc.) that historically correlate with losses, and incorporate expected changes. For instance, a manufacturer's AR allowance might increase if inventory trends or customer delinquencies worsen in foreseen economic models, even if no specific invoice is yet overdue.

That said, FASB acknowledged practical limits: enterprises are not expected to “create an economic forecast over the entire contractual life” for long-term assets (Source: www.revenuehub.org). Instead, most will forecast 1–3 years ahead (the “reasonable and supportable” horizon) and then revert to static assumptions. For example, a bank may know historically that after 2 years of stable forecasts, further information is unreliable. Accordingly, after the supportable horizon, expected loss rates may “lock in” at long-term averages. Implementing this often involves a *blended scenario approach*: e.g. calculate a weighted expected loss that blends a best-estimate scenario with upside/downside economic assumptions, and ensure the average aligns with the base forecast.

The qualitative adjustments (often called “Q-factors”) play a major role, especially for trade receivables. Entities might adjust allowances for concentration risk (one customer going under), industry-specific trends, or contractual seasonality. For example, a company selling large equipment might expect more defaults if the price of raw materials spikes (reducing customer margins). These adjustments must be documented and justified. Indeed, Fed examiners have specifically raised findings about unsupported qualitative factors in CECL implementation (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org).

Comparisons: CECL vs. IFRS 9

CECL’s emergence begs comparison to the IASB’s IFRS 9 impairment model. Both require *expected* losses (replacing older “incurred loss” rules), but they differ in structure and application. Some key distinctions:

- Model design (single vs. staged):** IFRS 9 uses a three-stage approach. Stage 1 (no significant credit deterioration) carries a 12-month ECL allowance; Stage 2 (credit risk increased significantly) and Stage 3 (credit-impaired) carry **lifetime** ECL allowances (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). CECL, by contrast, has no stages: it always measures **lifetime ECL** from inception (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). This yields conceptual simplicity (“always lifetime”) but less differentiation of risk levels.
- Effective dates:** IFRS 9 took effect much earlier. EU banks and many others implemented it for annual periods beginning Jan. 1, 2018. CECL was effective for U.S. public companies on Jan. 1, 2020, with most others later (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). The staggered timings mean some global banks contend with both models (for foreign subsidiaries under IFRS and U.S. operations under CECL). For entities using both, preparers often try to harmonize assumptions despite the structural differences (Source: www.accountingtoday.com) (Source: www.accountingtoday.com).
- Loss horizon:** For IFRS 9, only assets in Stage 2/3 use lifetime loss; Stage 1 assets use a 12-month window. CECL always uses lifetime, which tends to front-load provisions for performing assets. However, as Accounting Today notes, IFRS 9’s Stage 2 modeling (including lifetime losses) can be adapted to a CECL presentation by applying similar lifetime loss factors to the whole portfolio (Source: www.accountingtoday.com).
- Trade receivables and contract assets:** Under IFRS 9, entities may elect a *simplified approach* that bypasses staging for trade receivables, contract assets, and lease receivables; the simplified approach requires lifetime ECL by default (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). This is largely aligned with CECL’s approach (which always uses lifetime ECL). Thus, in practice, both models treat receivables similarly. Where they differ more is in the quantification and thresholds for significant credit deterioration. FASB has briefly considered exempting trade receivables from CECL, but as of 2021 indicated no change (trade receivables remain in-scope under ASC 326) (Source: www.revenuehub.org).
- Creditor-centric vs. prescriptive:** Observers note that CECL offers broad latitude in modeling and forecasting. One expert commented that although IFRS 9 has “more prescriptive guidance on classification and treatment,” CECL allows institutions “extremely broad latitude” in estimating losses (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). This flexibility can be a double-edged sword: companies can tailor assumptions to their view of the future, but this also raises comparability and audit challenges. In contrast, IFRS 9’s staged approach and definitions of “significant deterioration” add more guardrails.
- Regulatory capital treatment:** Globally, regulators made CECL’s initial impact easier to bear. For example, U.S. banking regulators allowed a phase-in of CECL’s effect on Common Equity Tier 1 capital (i.e. they let banks add back the initial increase in reserves to capital) (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). IFRS banks did not receive an analogous carve-out (though many had anticipated higher allowances under IFRS 9 anyway and already had elevated reserves).

In summary, while both CECL and IFRS 9 are forward-looking models, **CECL is the more aggressive of the two** – requiring lifetime provisioning on Day One – and is more flexible (less prescriptive) in calculation. Entities subject to both standards (e.g. foreign banks) have used existing IFRS 9 infrastructure to smooth the transition, but ultimately each standard’s structural requirements must be met.

Practical Example of CECL vs. IFRS 9

To illustrate, consider a simple case: Under IFRS 9, a performing 5-year loan with no significant upgrade/deterioration would start in Stage 1, needing only 12-month expected loss. A 2% per-year default expectation would yield perhaps a modest 1–2% of principal as allowance. Under CECL, the entire 5-year default schedule (with compounding risk) would be recognized upfront; that allowance might be substantially higher (roughly five times the 1-year number, subject to discounting and prepayments) (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). If credit risk then worsened (moving to IFRS Stage 2), IFRS 9 would step up to full-life losses, which CECL was already using all along. Thus, CECL avoids “step changes” due to staging but also cannot take credit when risk subsides (except by reducing allowances as actual losses fall or forecasts improve).

For trade receivables, suppose historical data show 10% of receivables over 120 days will not be collected by year-end. Under both IFRS and CECL, companies might apply that 10% as a loss rate to all receivables aged 120+ days, and lower rates (say 2%) to current ones (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com). The practical difference: under IFRS an entity might only use lifetime for all in the simplified approach (identical to CECL’s approach here). Under CECL, even receivables 1–30 days old (that would be Stage 1 IFRS) need some lifetime-percentage, which might be just the 12-month default rate.

Overall, IFRS 9 adoption gave banks a “head start” on expected-loss modeling (Source: www.accountingtoday.com), but IFRS’s staging and threshold and mitigations (like government support) differ from CECL’s full-retrospective requirement. U.S. companies should be mindful of these differences when comparing metrics globally. (For example, a bank might report higher allowance coverage under CECL than IFRS 9 simply due to model structure.)

Implementation Experiences and Data Analysis

Aggregate Impacts on Allowances

The quantitative impact of CECL on allowances has been studied in banking and, to a lesser extent, by corporates. The Federal Reserve has been especially active in analyzing the banking impact. In a December 2021 study, Fed researchers compared large U.S. banks that adopted CECL on Jan 1, 2020 against banks still using the incurred-loss model into 2021 (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). They found:

- **Immediate jump in allowances:** CECL adopters’ loan-loss allowances jumped about **37%** on Jan 1, 2020, relative to 12/31/19 levels (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). This reflected lifetime provisions under the then-optimistic economic outlook, versus what ILM banks had already accrued.
- **Greater sensitivity to economic changes:** As COVID-19 hit in early 2020, CECL adopters added provisions much faster. In 2020 Q1–Q2, CECL banks’ allowances grew ~76% (excluding the adoption effect) while non-CECL institutions grew only ~32% (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). Once the outlook improved in late 2020/2021, CECL banks decreased allowances again (reflecting better forecasts), whereas ILM banks had less flexibility to do so. By mid-2021, the gap between CECL and ILM allowances narrowed back to pre-adoption levels (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). In short, CECL made banks’ provisions much more **cyclically responsive**.
- **Portfolio differences:** Not all portfolios reacted equally. The Fed’s data (Table 1 in [29]) showed that high-risk or long-tenor loans saw the largest one-time CECL bump. For example, credit card loans saw a 48.4% allowance increase at adoption (Source: www.federalreserve.gov), and student/auto saw large spikes. By contrast, many commercial clients (with shorter terms or collateral) had smaller adjustments. During 2020, CECL banks increased expected losses on virtually all loan categories as stress built.

These findings confirm that CECL “lifts all boats” but disproportionately so for longer-dated or historically loss-prone assets (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). It also shifted the **timing** of provisioning: banks were theoretically setting aside lifetime losses immediately, rather than waiting to recognize those losses later. Importantly, the Fed notes that while CECL “increased aggregate allowances,” the effects on bank capital were largely offset by regulatory transition rules (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). Thus the focus moved to how allowances evolved next.

Impact on Lending and Capital

One concern was whether higher provisions under CECL might crimp lending. If holding more reserves reduces capital, banks could curb credit. The Federal Reserve study searched for such effects and found **limited evidence** of a lending slowdown due to CECL adoption (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). Some market commentators have similarly argued that fears about a lending “pullback” were likely overstated, since regulatory add-backs softened capital constraints (and the pandemic drove capital usage decisions more directly). Chief among skeptics, Sageworks

Advisory noted that reported CECL impacts on capital were “exaggerated” during benign outlooks, since many banks had already been conservatively over-reserving under incurred loss models (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). In practice, banks can adjust credit terms, pricing, or risk appetite as needed; but empirical evidence suggests CECL itself did not singularly choke credit.

Effects on Corporate and Non-Banking Entities

Most research focuses on banks, but other industries have their own experiences. Many companies have reported modest allowance increases, often citing CECL as one factor. A 2020 Deloitte survey of non-financial firms found that smaller companies with limited historical loss data (e.g. emerging tech, manufacturing) often had to create new data collection processes, but the overall incremental loss provision was frequently small or immaterial (Source: www2.deloitte.com). Some industries with credit-focused business models (e.g. consumer utilities, telecom, industrial equipment leases) noted more noticeable shifts in reserve levels.

The **style of businesses** makes a difference. A community bank reported the issues in its audit: CECL allowances spiked on adoption, but as examiners observed, smaller banks “generally made a good faith effort” to implement the standard (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org). That Fed supervisory report emphasizes that most community banks (assets <\$10B) successfully operationalized CECL, though examiners noted that governance and documentation must scale with complexity (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org). Large multinational corporates similarly often reported process-level hurdles (data integration, cross-departmental coordination) rather than fundamental controversy over the model.

Because CECL is so judgmental, the wide range of outcomes makes general statistics tricky. Qualitative industry reports (e.g. from the Bank Administration Institute or audit firms) suggest that many companies found **higher allowances** but not shocking ones. For example, a core first-year technical bulletin from AICPA noted that entities should expect to book additional allowances if they had historically minimal reserves, but otherwise CECL just formalized what business risk managers already considered internally.

Case Study: JLL (Real Estate Services)

In its 2020 10-K, **Jones Lang LaSalle (JLL)** provided a concrete example of CECL’s effect on receivables and contract assets (Source: www.sec.gov) (Source: www.sec.gov). JLL, a large real estate services firm, adopted CECL on Jan. 1, 2020 using the modified-retrospective method. In the adoption disclosures:

- JLL explicitly evaluated “historical reserve balances for Trade receivables and related write-off activity” and then developed a forward-looking process for provisioning (Source: www.sec.gov). Similarly, it assessed its “loss-sharing guarantee obligation for certain mortgage loans” under the new model.
- The outcome was an **increase in its overall reserve allowance**. The company’s published 12/31/2019 allowance for trade receivables was \$68.1M; after CECL it became \$71.7M, implying an extra \$3.6M charge (Source: www.sec.gov). It also recorded on the balance sheet a new \$1.7M allowance for contract assets (previously zero) (Source: www.sec.gov).
- Deferred tax assets adjustments partly offset some of this (\$5.5M tax asset increase), but net equity was down \$14.9M due to CECL (Source: www.sec.gov).

JLL’s note clearly shows how CECL can raise allowances for receivables and contract assets, and how companies must reconcile the one-time retained earnings effect. It also underscores that companies must project losses on receivables/contract assets even if small, rather than writing off late as under the old rules.

Case Study: Community Bank Supervisory Findings

On the banking side, the Fed’s supervisory outreach provides further perspective. In March 2025, the Federal Reserve Banks of Atlanta and Kansas City published a “Community Banking Connections” report summarizing examiners’ observations post-CECL (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org) (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org). Key points:

- **Good faith adoption:** Examiners found that nearly 200 community banks (mostly under \$10 billion in assets) generally *did* implement CECL in good faith with robust efforts (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org). Many banks had initial concerns about feasibility, but most successfully operationalized the new processes (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org).

- **Focus on governance:** The exams primarily evaluated governance and risk management around CECL. Banks were expected to include all relevant portfolios, make reasonable economic forecasts for major loss drivers, and document the allowance methodology (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org). Findings often pointed to documentation gaps (e.g. undisclosed qualitative adjustments or lack of formal forecasting rationale) rather than substantive model errors.
- **Complexity scaling:** Examiners recognized that smaller banks have simpler product lines and less sophisticated models, and accordingly tailored expectations. Meanwhile larger community banks (or those with complex exposures) needed correspondingly advanced modeling and risk controls (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org).

This supervisory feedback suggests that, in practice, banks acknowledge CECL's technical challenge but strive to comply. It also indicates that regulators do **not** expect all banks to use the most sophisticated models; what matters is appropriately reflecting risk given the bank's portfolio complexity. These perspectives are echoed in comment letters from industry (e.g. some banks asked for delays or scaling relief during the rulemaking phase) and in later exam findings (most concerns were around process, not about the fundamental rule).

Challenges and Best Practices in CECL Implementation

Implementing ASC 326 has proven to be one of the most demanding accounting projects in recent years, alongside ASC 606 (Revenue) and ASC 842 (Leases). The technical challenges can be grouped as follows:

- **Data Requirements:** CECL demands a significant amount of data on credit losses, payment histories, customer or obligor credit scores, and economic indicators. Many entities, especially in non-financial industries, had to build new collection systems or extract historical data that had been implicit. For trade receivables, companies often needed aging histories and write-off data; for contract assets, they had to link performance to eventual billing and default outcomes. Legacy accounting systems may not have stored sufficient detail on old receivables once written off. Thus, building a CECL-appropriate dataset was a major hurdle for some.
- **Modeling and Assumptions:** Even with data, choosing an estimation method involves judgment. Organizations had to decide which segments (e.g. by customer risk or product) are sufficiently homogenous, what qualitative factors to include, and how to weight scenarios. FASB permitted any reasonable method, but auditors and examiners will challenge assumptions that diverge from history without strong rationale. For instance, if management uses a very optimistic economic forecast with no downside, auditors may question the adequacy of such an allowance.
- **Interdisciplinary Coordination:** CECL bridges credit risk management, finance, and accounting. Credit risk teams forecast default rates, while accounting must ensure compliance with ASC 326 rules. Effective implementation often required collaboration across departments: the CFO's office working with treasury/credit risk to align economic assumptions, or with sales to validate concentration risks. Companies lacking such coordination were at risk of disconnects (e.g. using stale credit info or not updating loss rates as conditions changed).
- **Software and Process Changes:** Many firms invested in new software or updated modules for CECL calculations and disclosures. This included enhancements to ERP/AR systems to tag receivables with risk codes, and tools for scenario analysis. While larger banks often had existing risk engines, smaller companies sometimes built Excel models or used third-party tools (even the Fed's free SCALE tool was popular among community banks (Source: www.cbcbfrs.org)). Regardless of tool, internal control processes had to be established around the models (version control, audit trails, governance of inputs).
- **Disclosures and Public Communication:** ASC 326 also introduced new disclosure requirements (e.g. rollforwards of the allowance, explanation of factors affecting credit quality). Entities had to expand footnotes to explain model choices, forecast assumptions, and the rationale behind year-to-year changes. In practice, many companies received SEC comments on CECL notes during 2020–2022. The SEC's review often focused on whether the disclosures provided enough context about key inputs and whether management's estimates were "material not to mislead" investors.

Best practices that emerged include: (1) **Segmentation:** carve receivables into finely grained pools (customer type, term, geography) to reflect loss risk; (2) **Benchmarking:** compare internal loss rates to industry or regulatory data to sanity-check; (3) **Stress scenarios:** incorporate upside/downside scenarios to bracket outcomes; (4) **Regular updates:** re-run forecasts each quarter, not just annually, and adjust for actual collection trends. In effect, CECL forces a more active, periodic allowance process – somewhat akin to what banks did for loan loss reserves but now extended to all receivables.

Current State and Observations

By early 2025, most companies subject to ASC 326 have completed at least one or two annual reporting cycles under CECL. General observations include:

- **Stabilizing of Allowances:** After the initial transition jump in reserves, many entities reported that allowance levels stabilized (unless economic conditions changed dramatically). For banks, 2021–2022 saw allowances come down from the 2020 peaks as expected credit losses were freed up (thanks to improving economies and regulatory capital buffers allowing write-downs). Many non-banks saw their allowances settle into a new normal that more closely matched their historical loss experience.
- **Enhanced Credit Evaluation:** The discipline of CECL has led some companies to take credit risk more seriously throughout the customer lifecycle. For example, sales and credit teams may work together to provide input on customer creditworthiness for modeling. In JLL's case, management explicitly collaborated to “develop a forward-looking process” (Source: www.sec.gov). Similarly, companies selling on extended credit terms (e.g. telecom equipment vendors) have tightened their credit review and collection functions.
- **Differences in Industry Impact:** Sectors that heavily rely on receivables (e.g. telecom, utilities, construction) were more materially affected. Conversely, many subscription-based or SaaS companies with short-term contracts saw only modest adjustments. Some companies that had very low allowances pre-CECL (often tech or media firms that rarely wrote off AR) found that CECL forced them to recognize *something* for the first time, even if historically default rates were near zero.
- **Audit and Regulator Feedback:** Auditors have generally been constructive, though they have highlighted areas of careful judgment (as expected). Community bank exams (as mentioned) show regulators are focusing on process and completeness. The SEC has issued comment letters asking companies to clarify forecasting methods for CECL or justify wide swings in allowances. No major accounting violations have emerged, but the emphasis is on documentation.

Future Directions and Implications

Looking ahead, ASC 326 is now an established part of GAAP. However, there are evolving considerations:

- **Refinements and Clarifications:** FASB is monitoring adoption and feedback. One area under watch is the treatment of receivables and how ASC 326 interacts with the revenue standard; although FASB decided *not* to exempt trade receivables from CECL, they are watching real-world issues. (In the IFRS realm, a 2020 agenda decision has reaffirmed that contract assets under IFRS 15 should be impaired similarly. The same logic holds under U.S. GAAP.) Beyond that, any minor clarifications (for example, on purchased credit-impaired assets or on certain financial guarantees) may emerge through ASUs or implementation guidance if needed.
- **Comparability with IFRS:** The coexistence of IFRS 9 and ASC 326 means many global entities will continue mapping between the models. Over time, differences in loss allowances may drive calls for greater convergence or at least transparency around modeling differences. For instance, financial statements often reconcile “Allowance for Loan Losses” under each regime; analysis of these reconciliations could influence future guidance or education.
- **Macro and Model Risk:** CECL heightens sensitivity to economic forecasts. As seen during the pandemic, a small change in baseline outlook (e.g. predicting a prolonged recession vs. swift recovery) can swing allowances significantly. Entities will need robust processes to update models as macro conditions shift (e.g. inflation, interest rates, geopolitical events). Some suggest incorporating automated stress-testing (as banks do) to ensure allowances under adverse scenarios.
- **Data and Technology:** The evolution of data analytics and machine learning may impact CECL over time. Some companies are experimenting with statistical models that use large datasets to predict delinquencies. As technology improves, one can expect new software tools specifically designed for CECL forecasting. Regulators will need to ensure such “black box” methods still meet GAAP’s requirements for rationale and auditability.
- **Lessons for Financial Reporting:** More broadly, CECL demonstrates a trend toward principles that integrate risk management with accounting. Some academics and standard-setters see CECL as a stepping stone to further changes in balance sheet measurements (e.g. mark-to-model approaches). Others caution it may add subjectivity. The long-run question is whether expected-loss models ultimately deliver more useful and reliable information to investors. Early signals (faster recognition of credit stress, more robust disclosures) suggest yes, but comprehensive academic studies are still maturing.
- **Global Banking Practices:** On the industry side, CECL’s influence spans beyond U.S. borders. Banks and investors are aware that the U.S. model tends to produce higher upfront allowances. For multinational banks, managing this divergence remains a priority. The Fed’s comparative studies and other research help inform regulators globally; for instance, the European Central Bank has observed U.S. outcomes with interest.

In summary, ASC 326 has successfully shifted credit-loss accounting toward a more forward-looking paradigm. Implementation challenges remain, but best practices are taking hold. Companies now have deeper institutional knowledge of their credit exposures. Moving forward, the focus will likely be on fine-tuning models, enhancing data, and ensuring CECL's benefits (more timely loss recognition) outweigh its costs (complexity, volatility).

Conclusion

ASC 326 (the CECL standard) represents a **fundamental evolution** in how U.S. companies account for credit losses on receivables and contract assets. By mandating lifetime expected-loss provisioning and embracing future information, CECL corrects the delayed recognition weaknesses of the old incurred-loss framework (Source: www.federalreserve.gov) (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). The shift has real financial effects: many entities recorded higher allowances at implementation (as documented in cases like JLL (Source: www.sec.gov)) and became more proactive in monitoring credit risk. At the same time, CECL imposes significant demands: more complex forecasts, judgments about business conditions, and robust disclosures. Firms have had to invest in data infrastructure and cross-department processes to meet these demands.

Empirical data (especially from the banking sector) confirms CECL's impact: fronts up provisioning and makes it more cyclical, aligning it with the business cycle (Source: www.federalreserve.gov). These results underscore the standard's intent. Comparisons with IFRS 9 show broad convergence in spirit, though structural differences (staged vs. single model) remain (Source: www.accountingtoday.com). Effective implementation has required diligence – examinations find that most institutions made good-faith efforts (Source: www.cbccfrs.org), though regulators and auditors rightly scrutinize assumption changes.

For analysts, investors, and business leaders, CECL's implications include potentially higher volatility in earnings due to changing forecasts, and a keen eye on allowance disclosures. Companies are rewarded for transparent assumptions and disciplined modeling. As CECL matures, we expect continued dialogue on best practices (from industry groups, scholarly research, and regulators). Given that credit losses are often a primary driver of financial distress, ASC 326 should enhance stakeholders' ability to see potential future losses *before* they materialize in cash flow. In this way, CECL strengthens the reliability of financial reporting, even as it requires an ongoing commitment to careful estimation and analysis.

References: Authoritative accounting standards, official reports, and analyses have been cited throughout, including FASB ASU 2016-13 (ASC 326), SEC filings, Federal Reserve studies, and expert publications (Source: technicalaccountingforum.com) (Source: www.federalreserve.gov) (Source: www.revenuehub.org) (Source: www.accountingtoday.com) (Source: www.cbccfrs.org). These underscore all factual statements and numerical data presented above.

Tags: asc 326, cecl, credit loss accounting, trade receivables, contract assets, us gaap, lifetime expected loss, financial reporting, asc 606

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