

**FARM LEGAL SERIES**

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# Tax Considerations in Liquidations and Reorganizations

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## INTRODUCTION

Generally, when a person is experiencing extreme financial distress, income tax liability is not a major concern. After all, the lack of income is at least partially responsible for the person's financial difficulties. In the case of farming operations, however, income tax liabilities present real difficulties.

For farm debtors using the cash method of accounting, the income tax basis of raised animals or stored grain is zero. Machinery and equipment often depreciates rapidly, with a resulting low basis, and land that was purchased some time ago frequently has a low basis derived from the original purchase price and adjusted for improvements made in depreciation claimed. Thus, there is a potential income tax liability created when assets are sold or turned over to creditors. In addition, income taxes may be generated when debt is forgiven.

There are several options available to the farmer in dealing with these income tax problems.

## LIQUIDATION LIABILITIES

If farm assets are liquidated outside of bankruptcy, any resulting tax liability is solely the responsibility of the debtor as the

taxpayer. In the event of a liquidation, tax liabilities may take several forms:

1. Ordinary income will result from the sale of assets—such as grain or livestock—held for resale.
2. Ordinary income will result from the recapture of certain previously claimed tax benefits such as depreciation, soil and water conservation expenses, land clearing expenses, and government cost sharing payments excluded from income.
3. If capital assets, such as real estate, are sold to pay debts, capital gains may result from the sale.
4. An alternative minimum tax may be imposed on preference income that includes the portion of capital gains that individuals do not include as income. Although most farming expenses are treated the same for regular tax and minimum tax purposes, there are farming expenses that may generate minimum tax consequences.

If, rather than selling assets, a taxpayer turns assets over to a creditor in partial or total satisfaction of the debt or the creditor exercises the right to foreclose on the assets,

such debt forgiveness will also usually generate income. In the event that the fair market value of the property exceeds the debt, then a transfer of property to a creditor or a foreclosure is treated as a sale of the property for an amount equal to the property's fair market value.

To illustrate, assume Farmer Y borrows \$200,000 to purchase a combine that costs \$200,000. Farmer Y takes \$75,000 of depreciation deductions during their ownership of the combine, so that their tax basis in the combine is \$125,000. Farmer Y then defaults on his or her loan when the balance is \$150,000, and the fair market value of the combine is \$175,000. If the bank accelerates the \$150,000 balance and forecloses on the combine, the farmer is deemed to have sold the combine to the bank for \$175,000. As their tax basis is \$125,000, the farmer realizes gain of \$50,000.

In the event, however, that the debtor is personally liable for the debt and the fair market value of the property is less than the indebtedness, the transfer of property or foreclosure is treated as a deemed sale, the proceeds of which are deemed to be applied to the debt. The balance of the indebtedness results in debt discharge income.

To illustrate this example, assume Farmer Y borrows the same \$200,000, purchases the same combine for \$200,000, and takes the same depreciation deductions of \$75,000. However, assume that Farmer Y defaults on his or her loan when the balance is \$175,000, and the fair market value of the combine is \$150,000. If the bank accelerates the \$175,000 balance and forecloses on the combine, Farmer Y is deemed to have sold the combine to the bank for \$175,000. As Farmer Y's tax basis is \$125,000, Farmer Y realizes gain of \$50,000. In addition, Farmer Y has debt discharge income of \$25,000,

which is the difference of the indebtedness over the fair market value of the combine.

This income from discharge of indebtedness may or may not be recognized, depending on whether the farmer was solvent or in bankruptcy. If the farmer was in bankruptcy when the debt was forgiven, he or she does not have to report the forgiven debt as income. If Farmer Y was not in bankruptcy when the debt was forgiven but was insolvent, Farmer Y is treated as though they were in bankruptcy. If, however, Farmer Y was solvent, he or she may be able to exclude from income the forgiven debt if the debt was classified as "qualified farm debt" and Farmer Y meets several other special rules.

Even if such debt discharge income is not recognized, the debtor's tax attributes will be reduced to the extent of such debt discharge income. The law sets forth a detailed order in which the tax attributes are reduced:

1. Net operating loss.
2. Certain credit carryovers, namely, investment tax credit and other credits not applying to farmers.
3. Capital loss carryovers.
4. Basis reduction by reducing basis of property of the taxpayer.

But Farmer Y's problems are not confined merely to gain from the disposition of the combine and debt discharge income. Farmer Y also may be subject to the alternative minimum tax.

The alternative minimum tax was included in the tax code to prevent a taxpayer with substantial economic income (income without regard to special exclusions or deductions) from avoiding substantial tax liability by using tax exclusions, deductions, and credits to reduce their taxable income. The alternative minimum tax calculation

starts with the taxpayer's regular taxable income for the tax year.

The taxpayer must then make adjustments and add back certain tax preferences to arrive at the taxpayer's alternative minimum taxable income. Some common examples of tax preferences and adjustments that affect farmers include the excess of accelerated depreciation over straight-line depreciation on real property, accelerated depreciation on leased personal property and an increase to gain on the sale of property sold or foreclosed on. Certain itemized deductions must be added back for alternative minimum taxable income calculations. State and local taxes are not allowed.

The taxpayer's alternative minimum taxable income is then reduced by the allowed exemption to arrive at the taxpayer's taxable excess income. The allowed exemption amount for calculating alternative minimum tax depends on the filing status of the taxpayer. For a taxpayer who is married and files jointly, the allowed exemption is \$111,700 for 2019. For a single person or head of household, it is \$71,700 for 2019. For a married taxpayer filing separately, it is \$55,850 for 2019. The allowed exemptions begin to phase out when the taxpayer's alternative minimum taxable income exceeds certain thresholds. For example, the allowed exemption is reduced by 25 percent of the amount by which alternative minimum taxable income exceeds \$1,020,600 for married couples filing jointly and \$510,300 for single taxpayers.

This calculation is illustrated below::

	Regular taxable income
+	<u>Tax preferences (and adjustments)</u>
	Alternative minimum taxable income
-	<u>Allowed exemption amount</u>
	Taxable excess

The taxable excess is then taxed at 26 percent up to \$194,800 (\$97,400 for married filing separately) with the remainder taxed at 28 percent to arrive at the taxpayer's tentative minimum tax. The taxpayer's alternative minimum tax liability equals the taxpayer's tentative minimum tax minus the taxpayer's regular taxable income.

	Taxable excess
X	<u>26% (or 28%)</u>
	Tentative minimum tax
-	<u>Regular tax liability</u>
	Alternative Minimum Tax

Thus, the alternative minimum tax can result in significant additional income tax liability for Farmer Y. If Farmer Y has capital gains for the tax year, the computation of tentative minimum tax is more complicated in light of rules that consider applicable capital gains rates.

## CHAPTER 7 AND 11

If the debtor seeks protection of the Bankruptcy Code, additional results and planning opportunities follow. If an individual debtor files bankruptcy under either Chapter 7 or 11, a new taxable entity is created. The bankruptcy estate is a taxable entity that is separate and distinct from the debtor. All property owned by the debtor at the time the bankruptcy case is initiated passes by operation of the Bankruptcy Code to the bankruptcy estate. The transfer of assets by the debtor to the bankruptcy estate is not treated as a taxable disposition. Thus, the transfer does not require income tax to be paid on the gain in the assets involved. Nor does the transfer trigger income tax liability from the recapture of depreciation, recapture of soil and water conservation or land clearing expense, recapture of government cost sharing payments excluded

from income, or recapture of investment tax credit. The estate is treated as the debtor would have been treated had he or she not filed for bankruptcy.

After the bankruptcy case has been initiated, income generated from assets included in a bankruptcy estate is included in the bankruptcy estate's income. Thus, if the bankruptcy estate disposes of assets or suffers a foreclosure and triggers income tax liability in the process, the income tax liability is a priority claim in the estate as an administrative expense. As a result, the tax due is paid ahead of general unsecured creditors. Any income tax liability remaining does not pass back to the debtor.

Besides automatically transferring all of the debtor's property to the estate, the initiation of a bankruptcy case gives an individual debtor one significant choice. The debtor may elect a short tax year, ending the day before the bankruptcy filing. The debtor thus creates two short tax years for himself or herself. The debtor's income tax liability in the first short year becomes a priority claim against assets in the bankruptcy estate. That is because the bankruptcy estate is responsible for all the debtor's liabilities at the time of bankruptcy, including income taxes that accrue before the date of bankruptcy. As a result, electing to end a tax year before the day of bankruptcy causes the taxes on the income earned to that date to become a debt of the bankruptcy estate. If there are insufficient assets to pay the income tax, the remaining liability is nondischargeable. Any remaining income tax liability for the first short year returns to the debtor and can be collected from the debtor later.

In the event the debtor does not elect a short tax year, the tax on the income earned during the tax year in which his or her bankruptcy occurs will accrue after the date of

bankruptcy and will therefore not become a debt of the estate. As a result, none of the debtor's income tax liability can be collected for the year of bankruptcy filing for the bankruptcy estate. To illustrate, assume that a farmer who is a calendar year taxpayer is in financial difficulty and sells some assets in January to pay debts. On the 1<sup>st</sup> of May, the farmer decides to file for bankruptcy. If the farmer does not elect two short tax years, the gain the farmer realizes on the sale of the assets will be included on the return the farmer files for the full year. Those taxes will not be a debt of the bankruptcy estate. If the farmer elects two short years, the income taxes on the gain from the sale of the assets will accrue before the bankruptcy was filed. Therefore, the taxes on the gain will become a debt of the bankruptcy estate and will be properly payable out of the estate assets.

The debtor's selection of a single tax year or two short tax years also affects the amount of tax attributes that pass from the debtor to the bankruptcy estate. The bankruptcy estate receives the tax attributes of the debtor as of the beginning of the tax year in which the bankruptcy was initiated. Therefore, if the debtor chooses a single tax year, the attributes that he or she has at the beginning of that year will pass to the bankruptcy estate and cannot be used by the debtor on the tax return for that year. If the debtor chooses two short tax years, the attributes do not pass to the bankruptcy estate until the beginning of the second short year. Therefore, the debtor can apply the tax attributes on his or her return for the short year first.

In most cases, if the debtor has income before the date the bankruptcy was initiated, it is usually to the debtor's advantage to choose two short tax years. By doing so, the debtor not only makes the taxes on that

income a debt of the estate, but also reduces the amount of taxes owed on that income.

## CHAPTER 12

Unlike Chapter 7 and 11, the legislation creating Chapter 12 did not create a separate tax entity for a Chapter 12 debtor. Instead, the debtor must propose a plan to pay his or her creditors over three to five years. Since a separate entity is not created, the debtor does not have the option of filing a short tax year federal return. Furthermore, in 2005, Congress amended Chapter 12. It was believed that the amendments would provide debtors capital gain tax relief. Prior to 2005, if a debtor in bankruptcy sold real estate and machinery while in bankruptcy, the resulting capital gains from the sale of the property would be a priority claim by the federal government. The debtor would need to pay this claim in full during the life of the plan. For a farming operation that had very low basis on its real estate (and in some cases, its machinery), this often prevented the debtor from obtaining a discharge (or closing his or her Chapter 12 plan). When Congress amended Chapter 12 in 2005, it was believed by many that Congress amended the Bankruptcy Code to allow any “capital gain” taxes of the debtor to be a general unsecured claim of the government—a claim that does not have to be paid in full to obtain a bankruptcy discharge. The government disagreed with this interpretation and in 2012 the United States Supreme Court ruled that any capital gain taxes realized from the sale of farm assets sold during the bankruptcy must be paid in full during the 3-5 year term of the Chapter 12 plan. The United States Supreme Court did not address capital gain taxes realized from the sale of farm assets before the bankruptcy is filed. A number of lower courts have held that these taxes can be treated as a general unsecured claim. In 2017 Congress amended Chapter 12

to allow the Chapter 12 debtor to treat any capital gains incurred prior to or during the Chapter 12 case to be a general unsecured claim.

To illustrate, assume that Farmer Y purchased his or her farm in 1985 for \$100,000. A few years later, Farmer Y borrowed money to buy and operate a small hog feeding operation adjacent to his or her farm for \$200,000. The farm was used as collateral for the hog operation loan. The farmland drastically appreciated in value, and Farmer Y leveraged the appreciated value to increase the size of his or her hog operation. Farmer Y now owes the bank \$650,000. Farmer Y files a Chapter 12 bankruptcy and elects to keep the hog feeding operation and sell the farmland. The farmland is sold for \$450,000. Farmer Y would have a \$350,000 capital gain. For most taxpayers, net capital gains are taxed at no higher than 15 percent, although there is a 20 percent rate on net capital gain rate that may apply based on certain taxable income thresholds. Assuming that Farmer Y is taxed at the 15 percent rate, Farmer Y would owe \$52,500 in capital gains taxes. Prior to 2017, Farmer Y would have had to pay the \$52,500 in full over the three to five year life of his or her Chapter 12 plan.

With the 2017 amendment, Farmer Y could treat the \$52,500 as a general unsecured claim and, in most circumstances, no payment would need to be made through his or her Chapter 12 plan. Upon completion of his or her plan, Farmer Y would discharge any capital gain liability on the sale of the farmland.

## CONCLUSION

Tax planning is as important for farmers in financial distress as for those who are making a profit. Income tax consequences are triggered by the sale of assets, the

foreclosure of debts, and the forgiveness of debts. The difference in income tax treatment for the liquidation of assets provides a strong motivation to file for bankruptcy. The difference in income tax treatment also may be important to creditors. A secured creditor may obtain a larger payment in bankruptcy than if the debtor sells the property and remits the after-tax balance to the creditor. When contemplating bankruptcy or liquidation, farmers must carefully consider the effect of their decisions from a tax point of view.

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