Analysis: Austria – China Income and Capital Treaty
See treaty text.
Type of treaty: Income and Capital
Model treaty on which based: UN
Signed: April 10, 1991
Entry into force: November 1, 1992
Entry into force (subsequent protocols): n/a
Effective date: January 1, 1993

Article 1 Personal Scope
See treaty text.
Persons who are resident of one or both States.

Article 2 Taxes Covered
See treaty text.
• Taxes on total income, and on capital, on elements of income and capital.
• Taxes on gains from alienation of movable or immovable property.
• Taxes on capital appreciation.

Austria
• The income tax;
• The corporation tax;
• The directors’ tax;
• The capital tax;
• The tax on property eluding death duties;
• The tax on commercial and industrial enterprises, including the tax levied on the sum of wages;
• The tax on agricultural and forestry enterprises;
• The tax on the value of vacant plots.

China
• The individual income tax;
• The income tax concerning joint ventures with Chinese and foreign investment;
• The income tax concerning foreign enterprises;
• The local income tax.

As well as application to the taxes existing at the time the Treaty was signed (listed above) there is a provision applying the Treaty to any identical or substantially similar taxes which are imposed after the date of signing of this Treaty.

Article 3 General Definitions
See treaty text.
"China": The entire territory of the People's Republic of China in which the Chinese tax legislation is effectively applied. It includes its territorial sea and the adjacent areas and the seabed and subsoil over which China may, in accordance with domestic and international law, exercise sovereign rights for the purpose of the exploration and exploitation of the natural resources of the seabed and subsoil and the waters above these.
"Austria": The Republic of Austria.
"Person": Includes an individual, company or any other body of persons.
"Company": Any body corporate or any entity which is treated as a body corporate for tax purposes.
"National": All individuals possessing the nationality of Austria or China and all juridical (legal) persons created or organised under the laws of either Austria or China. Also all organisations without juridical personality treated for the purposes of tax by either Austria or China as juridical persons created or organised under the laws of Austria or China. Thus the definition could include a partnership which does not have separate legal personality from its members for some purposes but does for tax purposes.
All terms not specifically defined take their meaning from domestic tax law.

Article 4 Resident
See treaty text.
"Resident": Any person who is liable to tax in one of the Contracting States by reason of his domicile, residence, place of Head Office, place of effective management or any other criterion of a similar nature.
Residence: Individuals
In the case of individuals apparently resident in both Contracting States, the usual tiebreaker tests apply:
• He will be deemed to be a resident of the State in which he has a permanent home. If he has a permanent home in both States, he will be deemed to be resident in the state with which his personal and economic relations are closer (centre of vital interests);
• If unable to determine the State where the centre of vital interests lies, then resident of the State in which he has a habitual abode;
• If he has a habitual abode in both States, then resident in the State of which he is a national; and
• If a national of both States or of neither of them, then the competent authorities must settle the question by mutual agreement.

Domestic law
Austria
Individuals are resident in Austria for Austrian income tax purposes if they have a domicile (Wohnsitz) or place of abode (gewöhnlicher Aufenthalt) in Austria. Domicile is any place where an apartment/house is possessed under circumstances that indicate that the apartment/house will be maintained and used, as determined based on objective circumstances rather than the subjective intentions of the individual taxpayer. A place of abode is the place where the taxpayer is present under circumstances that indicate that he/she will stay at that place for a certain length of time and not simply temporarily.

For purposes of unlimited tax liability in Austria, a stay in Austria in excess of six months is not regarded as temporary. The six-month period need not be within the same calendar year. If the period of actual presence in Austria exceeds six months, the individual’s habitual abode in Austria will be deemed to have commenced at the beginning of the six-month period.

For a taxpayer to be deemed to have a domicile in Austria, it is only necessary – based on the actual circumstances – for an apartment or a house to be available to the taxpayer in Austria in a way that indicates the taxpayer’s intention to maintain or use the apartment/house. In addition, if certain family members live in Austria, a taxpayer may be deemed to have his/her residence in Austria. This is particularly true where the family members are a spouse, parents, or children.

China
An individual is tax resident in China if he habitually resides there. This is taken as presence for more than one calendar year. The precise extent of exposure to and rates of Chinese tax depends on whether the individual has been present in China for more than five years without spending more than 90 days in aggregate or 30 consecutive days per calendar year outside China.

Residence: Companies
If a company appears resident in both States, e.g. because one determines residence according to the place of legal incorporation and the other according to place of management, then residence is to be decided by reference to the place of effective management.

Domestic law
Austria
A corporation is a resident taxpayer under the Austrian Corporate Income Tax Act if it has either its statutory seat or its principal place of management in Austria. The statutory seat of a corporation is the place so designated in its Articles of Association. The principal place of management is the centre from which the corporation’s activities are directed. It is generally located at the main office where the final decisions on major issues that affect the corporation's business are taken. All Austrian corporations (i.e. corporations incorporated under Austrian company law) will be Austrian resident corporations, since the Articles of Association must provide for a statutory seat in Austria.

An entity incorporated under the company law of a jurisdiction other than Austria may be an Austrian resident corporation for Austrian corporate income tax purposes, if it has or transfers its principal place of management to Austria. To qualify as a corporate entity for corporate income tax purposes, the non-Austrian entity must have a structure comparable to that of an Austrian corporation.

China
Companies incorporated in China are considered tax resident. Additionally, under the Corporate Income Tax Law which became effective as of January 1, 2008, China now determines company residence according to the place of effective management. This is interpreted as the exercise of the overall management and control of production, business, employees, finance and assets of a company. (Articles 2 and 3 of the CITL). Thus day-to-day control as well as strategic management must be considered and the definition is very broad.

Partnerships and fiscally transparent enterprises
Residence is to be determined as for companies.

Domestic law
Austria
A partnership is, as such, a transparent entity for income or corporate income tax purposes. The profits or losses of a partnership are attributed directly to the partners pro rata to their share in the partnership and taxed under the income tax or corporate income tax rules depending on whether the partner is an individual or a corporation. A partnership is, however, an accounting and reporting entity. Certain tax elections have to be exercised uniformly by all partners and a partnership must maintain proper accounting records and file tax returns with the local tax office where the partnership maintains its principal place of management. It is of particular importance that certain expenses, even if only incurred by individual partners, be included in the partnership's accounting records and exclusively attributed to the individual partner(s) concerned to be deductible for tax purposes from the partner(s) share of the partnership profits (einheitliche und gesonderte Gewinnfeststellung).

China
The default position is that partnerships are treated as transparent unless an election is made for the partnership to be taxed as a separate entity.

Article 5 Permanent Establishment
See treaty text.
This Article defines the term “permanent establishment”. The profits of an enterprise of one of the Contracting States can only be taxed on an arising basis in the other Contracting State to the extent that they are attributable to a permanent establishment in that other State. This Treaty broadly uses the OECD and UN definitions: Three types of permanent establishment are envisaged: A fixed place of business, a service permanent establishment and an agency permanent establishment.

Fixed placed of business
In this context a “permanent establishment” means a fixed place of business through which the business of the enterprise is wholly or partly carried on. Types of establishment particularly included follows the UN Model and involves:
- A place of management;
- A branch;
- An office;
- A factory;
- A workshop;
- A mine, an oil or gas well, a quarry or any other place of extraction of natural resources; and
- A building site, construction or assembly or installation project which lasts for more than six months. Supervisory activities in connection with such activities are also included. Note the departure here from the more usual period of 12 months, reflecting the use of the UN Model Convention.
According to the OECD Commentary, a “fixed place of business” means established at a distinct place with a certain degree of permanence, however, it could be a pitch in a market place, or even part of the premises of another enterprise. There is no requirement that the premises be owned. The Commentary offers the example of an employee of Company A who is allowed to use an office at the premises of Company B. This could create a permanent establishment for Company A in the country of Company B if the arrangement persists for long enough and if the employee is carrying out activities which are more than merely "preparatory or auxiliary" (see below).
The OECD considers that to be fixed, a place of business must be at a specific geographic point. However, if the PE consists of mechanical equipment only, then there is no requirement for mechanical equipment to be fixed to the soil.
As to what constitutes a reasonable period of time to give the necessary degree of permanence, most countries will not consider a presence of less than six months to give rise to a fixed place. The usual exclusions from the definition of permanent establishment are given so that the following will not constitute a permanent establishment:
(a) The use of facilities solely for the purposes of storage, display or delivery of goods or merchandise belonging to the enterprise;
(b) The maintenance of a stock of goods or merchandise belonging to the enterprise solely for the purpose of storage, display or delivery;
(c) The maintenance of a stock of goods or merchandise belonging to the enterprise solely for the purpose of processing by another enterprise;
(d) The maintenance of a fixed place of business solely for the purpose of purchasing goods or merchandise, or of collecting information, for the enterprise;
(e) The maintenance of a fixed place of business solely for the purpose of carrying on any other activity of a preparatory or auxiliary character; and
(f) Any combination of the above providing that the overall activity of the fixed place of business is of a preparatory or auxiliary character.

To apply this Article, it is necessary to be able to make a distinction between functions that are core to a business and those that are merely preparatory or auxiliary. What constitutes core functions will vary from one business to the next. However, any fixed place of business from which the business is partly managed will constitute a permanent establishment even if its function otherwise appear to be preparatory or auxiliary. Also, if services are rendered to other companies within the corporate group or to third party customers then this would not be preparatory or auxiliary because activities only count as preparatory or auxiliary if they are carried on “for the enterprise” itself.

Note that despite incorporating many features of the UN Model Convention, this Article at paragraph 4(b), unlike the UN Model, excludes “delivery of goods or merchandise” from the definition of what may be considered a permanent establishment. Thus a warehouse would not normally be considered a permanent establishment under this Treaty.

**Service permanent establishment**

This Treaty follows the UN Model in specifically providing that services provided by an enterprise may result in a permanent establishment, even though there is no fixed place of business. The furnishing of consultancy and other services, whether through an enterprise’s own employees or by other personnel hired for the purpose where a project (and any connected project) will give rise to a permanent establishment where the activities last for more than six months within any 12-month period. There is little guidance available as to what is meant by “same or connected” but the Commentary on the OECD Model suggests that commercial connections rather than geographic connections are paramount.

The Protocol states that providing consultancy services in connection with the sale or lease of machinery or equipment through employees or other personnel will not cause a permanent establishment to arise.

Where the services are merely preparatory or auxiliary, as set out above, no permanent establishment will arise.

**Agency permanent establishment**

Dependent agents may constitute a permanent establishment. Where a person is acting on behalf of a resident of a Contracting State and has, and habitually exercises, in a Contracting State an authority to conclude contracts in the name of the resident, that resident is deemed to have a permanent establishment in that other State, unless the activities of the agent are limited to those listed at (a) to (f) above. Where the activities of the agent are merely preparatory or auxiliary, or where the agent is an independent agent (e.g. a general commission agent acting in the ordinary course of his business) the presence of the agent will not give rise to a permanent establishment unless the agent works wholly, or almost wholly on behalf of the foreign enterprise.

**General**

The fact that a company has a subsidiary in the other Contracting State does not mean that the subsidiary is a permanent establishment of that company, unless it binds the parent company in contract as per the rule for dependent agents. This rule applies generally to groups of companies.

**Domestic law**

**China**

The definition of an agency permanent establishment has been widened by Article 3 of the CITL to include business activities carried out for the principal other than purchases and sales. Storage or delivery of goods will also give rise to an agency permanent establishment. Regarding a fixed place of business, the Implementation Rules, effective January 1, 2008 provide that the definition of a permanent establishment (stated as being an establishment or site) will encompass:

- Any establishment from which management or business operations are conducted;
- A representative office;
- An establishment conducting management or business operations;
- A factory, farm or site for exploration of natural resources;
- A site from which services are provided;
- Construction, installation and assembly sites;
- Sites for making or repairs;
- Exploration sites;
- Other engineering projects;
- Other establishments and sites for conducting production and business operations.

The general rules is that a permanent establishment will exist if a site or project lasts for more than six months in a 12-month period.
Under Circular 403 Interpretation and implementation notice for HK's Double Tax Arrangement a permanent establishment will exist if services have been provided in China for more than six consecutive months in any 12-month period. Counting starts from the arrival of the first employee in China and only ceases when the last employee leaves the country.

**Article 6 Income from Immovable Property**

*See treaty text.*

The general rule is that income derived by a resident of a Contracting State from immovable property in the other State may be taxed in that other State. Thus, for instance, if a resident of one State owns a building in the other State and receives rent, that rent may be taxable in the other State. This treatment also applies to income from immovable property used by an enterprise and to income from immovable property used for the performance of independent personal service. Immovable property is defined as per the domestic law of the State in which the property is located but it will include livestock and equipment used in agriculture, forestry, general property rights and rights for the working of natural resources.

There is no extension giving the Situs State any right to tax income from movable property of a permanent establishment.

The Protocol states that income from immovable property may be taxed both in the State where the property is located and in the State where the owner of the property is resident, subject to relief for double taxation arising.

**Article 7 Business Profits**

*See treaty text.*

Only profits actually arising from a permanent establishment may be taxed by the source State. The profits to be attributed to the permanent establishment are the profits that would be expected if the permanent establishment was a distinct and separate enterprise. The starting point for the computation will be the branch accounts. Provided there is symmetry in the amounts recorded and in the methods of valuation applied in recording the transactions in the books of the different parts of the enterprise, the accounts will normally be an acceptable basis for attributing profit to the permanent establishment. However, any assumptions used in maintaining branch accounts, for instance, an assumption that the branch acts as principal in all cases, when in fact it only acts as intermediary would lead to a downwards adjustment in profit allocated to the branch.

The usual provision providing for the deduction of expenses from the profits of the permanent establishment in accordance with the rules laid down by domestic law is present. Deductions for executive and general administrative expenses are permitted whether incurred in the State where the permanent establishment is situated or elsewhere. There are some particular rules laid down in the contemporaneous Protocol:

As per the UN Model Convention, no deductions are permitted for certain payments by the permanent establishment to the Head Office or any of the enterprise's other offices, unless they represent reimbursement for actual expenses:

- Royalties, fees and other similar payments in return for the use of patents;
- Commission or fees for specific services or for management; and
- Interest on money lent to the permanent establishment except in the case of a banking enterprise) (see below for more on interest deductions).

On the other hand, no amounts charged by the permanent establishment to the head office, or any other office of the enterprise for these items are to be included in the taxable profits of the permanent establishment. These provisions are inserted via the Protocol.

Only profits actually arising from a permanent establishment may be taxed by the source State. If an enterprise has both a permanent establishment in a State and also derives other income, say, dividends or interest unconnected with the permanent establishment, then the dividends or interest may only be taxed in accordance with Articles 10 and 11 of the Treaty and not this Article.

The OECD, in 2008, published its final report on the attribution of profits to permanent establishments (July 17, 2008) and updated the Commentary on Article 7 of the Model Treaty. When interpreting a tax treaty, it is generally agreed that the latest version of the OECD's Commentary on the Model Treaty should be used. These notes follow the 2008 version of the Commentary.

Although this Treaty uses elements of the UN Model as well as the OECD Model, the recent OECD work on attribution of profits to permanent establishments is relevant to this treaty. The aspects of Article 7 of this Treaty which are based on the UN Model are those concerned with the deductibility of expenses in arriving at the taxable profits. The Commentary on the UN Model relating to the rules on deductibility of expenses makes it clear that the extra provisions are present so that all necessary
definitions and clarifications on this matter are set out in the text of the treaty rather than merely in a Commentary. The central aim of Article 7 in this Treaty is identical to that in the OECD Model Convention: The profits attributable to a permanent establishment are those which would be earned by the establishment if it were a wholly independent entity dealing with its head office as if it were a distinct and separate enterprise operating under conditions and selling at prices prevailing in the regular market (per paragraph 2 of Commentary on Article 7, UN Model).

The "authorised OECD approach" to attributing profits to a permanent establishment now requires that there is a two step process.

Firstly, a functional and factual analysis should be carried out, along the lines set out in the OECD's transfer pricing guidelines, to establish the economically significant activities and responsibilities undertaken by the permanent establishment. This will involve establishing the rights and obligations arising out of transactions between the permanent establishment and third parties, e.g. the sales revenue arising from independent customers generated by the permanent establishment as opposed to the head office. If the permanent establishment takes the form of a factory, then it would assume the obligation to pay for the raw materials which it uses. The OECD then recommends that "significant people functions" relevant to the attribution of economic ownership of assets are identified to support the attribution of economic ownership of assets of the enterprise to the permanent establishment. Economic ownership is defined as the right to income from an asset or the right to depreciate it. Tangible property should be attributed to the location where it is in use. Economic ownership of intangibles rests with the location in which the risks associated with the intangibles is borne: For instance, if an enterprise owns a patent for a particular drug which is sold by distributor companies in many countries, the economic ownership would rest in that part of the enterprise responsible for commissioning the research to develop the drug and which would bear the losses if medical trials failed. A further set of "significant people functions" are then to be identified: This time, those relevant to the assumption of risks so that an allocation of risks borne by the enterprise can be made to the permanent establishment. For instance, road building equipment may be economically owned by a permanent establishment in Country A but the head office, located in Country B, may have the power to determine on which road building projects the equipment is used and hence the head office bears the risk associated with the equipment. The more risks that are managed by the permanent establishment, the higher the share of the profit of the enterprise to be attributed to it. The OECD's 2008 Report looks for the place of active decision taking rather than mere "rubber stamping". Note that no such distinction between asset management and risk assumption functions is required in the case of enterprises in the financial sector, because it is considered highly likely that these functions would be carried out by the same people.

Secondly, taking into account the picture built up in the functional and factual analysis, the profits of the permanent establishment must be determined. Although this is relatively simple in the case of transactions with third parties, transactions and dealings with other parts of the enterprise must be determined using the rules laid down in the OECD's Transfer Pricing Guidelines. This means that goods and services provided by head office must carry an arm's length mark up. Pricing policies should be properly documented, which in practice may prove troublesome as firms may not take the same care in documenting the terms of transactions within the firm as they would with third parties. In determining the profits attributable to the permanent establishment, part of the enterprise's interest costs on its borrowings should be allocated to the permanent establishment. The amount of capital needed to support functions carried out by the permanent establishment on the assumption that it is a separate entity must be calculated. Then, this total theoretical capital must be broken down into debt and equity (or "free capital" in OECD terms). The greater the risks undertaken by the permanent establishment, the higher the proportion of its notional capital that will be regarded as "free capital". Several methods of establishing the split between "free capital" and debt capital are suggested, including the use of thin capitalisation practices in the State in which the permanent establishment is located. Once the amount of notional debt capital has been determined, an allocation of the enterprise's interest liabilities can be made to the permanent establishment. Note that only actual interest liabilities can be allocated. If the enterprise as a whole has paid no interest to external lenders, then there can be no allocation of interest liability to the permanent establishment. The only exception to this rule is where the permanent establishment is involved in treasury dealings with other parts of the enterprise. Whilst this may well be the case in banking enterprises, it would be unusual in other enterprises. Generally, the interest rates used and the terms of the notional loans to the permanent establishment must be such as would be found between parties dealing at arm's length. This aspect of the AOA ought to be acceptable in interpreting a treaty such as this one which uses elements of the UN Model: In the introductory remarks to the Commentary on Article 7 of the UN
Model, at Paragraph 4 "...an allocable share of such payments, e.g. interest and royalties, paid by the enterprise to third parties should be allowed."

When deciding what transactions should be recognised between the permanent establishment and other parts of the enterprise, the OECD recommends that the only internal transactions which can be recognised in arriving at the permanent establishment's profits are those which relate to real and identifiable events. These would include the physical transfer of goods, the provision of services, the use of intangibles and the transfer of financial assets. Whilst the internal records (e.g. the branch accounts) are the starting point for identifying these transactions, the true test is whether there has been an internal dealing of economic significance. The OECD's 2008 report suggests the following tests are used when considering whether an internal dealing should have any effect on the profits of a permanent establishment:

• Is the documentation consistent with the economic substance of the internal dealings?
• Are the arrangements such that they are not too different from dealing which one group company might have with a fellow group company? For instance, credit periods should be similar in similar circumstances.
• Are the dealings consistent with the OECD principles for attributing profits to permanent establishments?

Allocations of head office expenses, e.g. for strategic management or centrally managed support functions such as payroll may be set against the profits of the permanent establishment, but the arm's length principle must be observed.

The allocation of profits to dependent agent permanent establishments

A dependent agent is not part of the taxpayer enterprise and will file his tax returns independently. Normally the enterprise will make payments to the agent for his services. The question is: Should the host State merely tax the profits of the agent (the 'single taxpayer approach') or should there be an additional charge on the enterprise which is using the services of the agent? The amount of the charge would depend on the excess of the enterprise's profits over the amount paid to the agent which was attributable to the activities of the agent. For instance, a dependent agent may be paid for the sales he procures on a commission bases, but the selling enterprise may make a profit on those sales even after taking into account the (arm's length) commission paid to the agent. The OECD recommends that States should always consider whether the enterprise has made a profit in respect of business transacted via the agent which is in excess of amounts paid to the agent. Hence the host state may tax both the dependent agent and the foreign enterprise.

The Protocol places some further limits on the profits which may be attributed to a permanent establishment:

• In the case of a "temporary" permanent establishment which take the form of a building site, construction, assembly or installation project: if machinery or equipment is delivered from the Head Office or another permanent establishment or by a third person, whether in connection with the activities if the temporary permanent establishment or not, the value of the deliveries is not to be attributed to the temporary permanent establishment.
• Income from planning, project, construction or research activities and income from technical services where the work is done by an enterprise in the State where it is resident is not to be attributed to a permanent establishment which the enterprise may have in the other State. These provisions are relevant in the case of so-called "turnkey" projects, where part of the work on the project is done in the home state and the aim is to ensure that only that part of the project profits which are attributable to the activities of the permanent establishment are taxed by the host state. The attribution of profits in the case of a turnkey project was examined in detail in a case heard by the Supreme Court of India, Hyundai Heavy Industries Co. Ltd v Commissioner of Income Tax [2007] 291 ITR 482.

Alternative method of attribution of profits

This Treaty permits an allocation of the profits of the enterprise to a permanent establishment based on an apportionment of the total profits of the enterprise. This is sometimes known as the unitary, or indirect method of apportionment. It is only acceptable to use this method if it has been customary to do so and in any case, the outcome must be in accordance with the result which would be obtained by using the Authorised OECD Approach (AOA) as set out above.

As is usual no profits shall be attributed to a permanent establishment by reason of the mere purchase by that permanent establishment of goods or merchandise for the enterprise.

The same method of attribution is to be used year by year unless there is good and sufficient reason to the contrary.
The Protocol adds that the term "profits" in this Article includes the profit derived by a sleeping partner from his participation in a partnership. In the case of Austria, this applies to participations in sleeping partnerships (stille Gesellschaft) created under Austrian law.

**Domestic law**

**Austria**

The taxable income attributable to a PE or permanent representative is determined based on the books maintained in Austria. The computational rules resemble the provisions applying to Austrian resident corporations, except with regard to limitations on loss carryforwards pursuant to section 102(2)(2) of the Income Tax Act. These provisions provide that a carryforward of losses incurred by an Austrian PE is only available if – in the fiscal year in which the losses were incurred by the PE – they exceed the worldwide income of the non-Austrian resident corporation. However, if the relevant double taxation Treaty contains a non-discrimination clause for PEs corresponding to that in the OECD Model Treaty, the losses of the Austrian PE may be carried forward in Austria if the taxpayer furnishes proof that the losses cannot be used abroad. In this Treaty there is such a non-discrimination clause (Article 25). Note that under domestic law a building site, construction or installation project will constitute a permanent establishment if it exists for more than six months, rather than the 12 months laid down in this Treaty.

**China**

The general rule is that permanent establishments are taxed on Chinese source income only. The rules of the Enterprise Income Tax Law are applicable to permanent establishments. The term used in domestic law is "establishments or sites". It has been the practice to limit the use of permanent establishments by foreign enterprises in favour of corporate forms and joint ventures although this appears to be changing. Note that representative offices have been widely used and there are detailed rules for determining the taxable profits of such an office.

**Article 9 Associated Enterprises**

See treaty text.

This contains the usual OECD provisions regarding transfer pricing. Associated enterprises must adopt the arm's length principle in their dealings with each other, and to the extent that they do not, a Contracting State may make an upwards adjustment to taxable profits. There is no specific provision for a corresponding downwards adjustment to taxable profits in the other State.

**Article 10 Dividends**

See treaty text.

This Convention provides for rates of withholding tax on dividends below those which would be charged in the absence of any agreement between the two countries.

Rates of withholding tax under this Treaty:

- Where the recipient is the beneficial owner and is a company holding directly at least 25% of the voting shares of the paying company: 7%.
- All other cases providing the recipient is also the beneficial owner: 10%.

Paragraph (3) defines the term "dividends" to include income from shares or other rights (which are not debt-claims) which participate in profits. Also included is income from other corporate rights which is treated as income from shares under the law of the State in which the distributing company is tax resident.

Paragraph (4) provides that where, say, a Chinese company receives a dividend from an Austrian company, and that dividend is effectively connected with a permanent establishment which the Chinese company has in Austria, then the dividend income will be deemed to be part of the income of the permanent establishment and the provisions of Articles 7 or 14 dealing with the attribution of business profits will apply.

Paragraph (5) contains the usual provision that a State does not have the right to levy any tax on a dividend unless either the dividend is paid by a resident company or received by a resident shareholder. Thus the fact that a dividend paid by, say, a Chinese company may be sourced from profits earned by a permanent establishment which that Chinese company has in Austria, does not give Austria any taxing rights over that dividend, unless of course, it is received by Austrian shareholders.

**Domestic law**

**Austria**

Withholding tax of 25%.

**China**
Per Article 4 of CITL which came into effect on January 1, 2008: 10% withholding tax. This replaces the previous exemption from withholding tax for dividends.

**Article 11 Interest**

See treaty text.

Rates of withholding tax providing the recipient is also the beneficial owner of the interest:

- **0%**: Interest paid to the Governments of China or Austria, their central banks, the Bank of China or China International Trust and Investment Corporation (loans provided directly or indirectly) and the Austrian Control Bank Corporation.
- **7%**: Interest paid to other banks or financial institutions. Note that this provision is inserted by the Protocol. It is expressed such that only 70% of the amount paid is to be subject to the 10% withholding tax rate.
- **10%**: All other cases.

Interest is defined as income from debt-claims of every kind whether or not secured by mortgage and whether or not carrying a right to participate in the debtor's profits. The term includes income from government securities, bonds and debentures and premiums and prizes attaching to these securities as well as other bonds.

There are the usual provisions such that interest received by a non-resident but which relates to a permanent establishment which that non-resident has in the other Contracting State is taxed under Article 7 and thus escapes withholding tax. Also, interest paid by an enterprise which is borne by a permanent establishment is deemed to arise in the State in which the permanent establishment is situated. Hence, if the permanent establishment and the recipient are in the same State, no withholding tax can arise.

As is usual under the Model Conventions, there is a provision limiting the Treaty benefit to an arm's length amount of interest where there is a special relationship between the payer and the beneficial owner.

**Domestic law**

**Austria**

**Payments to corporations**

No withholding tax although interest on loans secured on Austrian real property is subject to corporate income tax by assessment at normal Austrian rates.

**Payments to individuals**

Payments to individuals resident outside the EU are not subject to withholding tax although interest on loans secured on Austrian real property is subject to income tax by assessment at normal Austrian rates.

For payments to individuals in the EU, along with Belgium and Luxembourg, Austria has chosen to apply a withholding tax rather than to comply with information exchange. Rates are 15% until June 30, 2008, 20% until June 30, 2011 and 35% thereafter and will continue until Andorra, Liechtenstein, Monaco, San Marino, Switzerland and the US all commit themselves to the exchange of information upon request concerning interest payments made to individuals. The withholding tax can be avoided if the recipient provides the Austrian paying agent with an official certificate from his tax authority.

**China**

Withholding tax of 10%, unless paid in connection with a permanent establishment which the recipient has in China. Interest on certain governmental loans may be exempt.

**Article 12 Royalties**

See treaty text.

Withholding tax is limited to 10% provided the recipient is also the beneficial owner.

There is an exception for the use of or right to use industrial, commercial or scientific equipment: withholding tax on these is only to be levied (at the 10% rate) on 60% of the gross income (per the Protocol) giving a rate of 6% on this type of income.

Royalties are defined as payments of any kind received as a consideration for the use of, or the right to use, any copyright of literary, artistic or scientific work, including cinematographic films any patent, trade mark, design or model, plan, secret formula or process, or for the use of, or the right to use, industrial, commercial or scientific equipment, or for information concerning industrial, commercial or scientific experience.

There are the usual provisions such that royalties received by a non-resident but which relate to a permanent establishment which that non-resident has in the other Contracting State are taxed under Article 7 and thus escape withholding tax. Also, royalties paid by an enterprise which are borne by a permanent establishment are deemed to arise in the State in which the permanent establishment is
situated. Hence, if the permanent establishment and the recipient are in the same State, no withholding tax can arise.

Where the payer and beneficial owner are connected and the amount of royalties exceeds an arm's length amount, the excess amount paid will not enjoy the treaty benefits and will be liable to tax in the payer's State at the normal domestic rate of withholding tax.

**Domestic law**

**China/Austria**

Withholding tax of 20%.

Withholding tax of 10%.

**Article 13 Capital Gains**

*See treaty text.*

Generally this Treaty grants the right to tax capital gains to the State in which they arise. This reflects the UN Model Treaty which this Article follows closely and the nature of Chinese domestic law on the taxation of capital gains but is a departure from the more usual rule, that a State may tax gains of non-residents by exception only. There is an exception for gains on international transport assets. The term “alienation” is used in connection with events giving rise to capital gains. This will include normal disposals of assets and also events such as exchange of assets, expropriation, gifts and the passing of assets to another on death. Not all States levy tax in all these situations, but the meaning of the term “alienation” is sufficiently wide to give them the right to do so if their domestic law provides for a charge to tax in a particular situation.

Some particular cases where the general rule applies are set out:

- There is the usual rule that gains on alienation of movable property forming part of the assets of a permanent establishment may be taxed by the Contracting State where the permanent establishment is situated, including gains from the alienation of the permanent establishment, whether or not as part of the alienation of the whole enterprise. Thus, for example, the sale of a wholly owned company resident in State A and owned by a resident of State A could give rise to a tax charge in State B if that company has a permanent establishment in State B. This would be covered by the general rule giving the Situs State taxing rights but is set out for completeness.
- Gains from the disposal (alienation) of shares in a company whose underlying assets consist mainly (whether directly or indirectly) of immovable property situated in the other State may be taxed by the State in which the property is located.
- Gain from the disposal (alienation) of shares in any other company where the shares disposed of represent a participation in the company may be taxed in the State in which the company is resident. There is no minimum participation for this rule to apply.

Paragraph (6) states the general rule under the UN Model Treaty, that gains derived from any property other than that dealt with specifically above may be taxed in the State where the property is situated. This does not oblige the Situs State to tax the gain but gives it the right to do so if it chooses. Gains on assets not situated in either State are taxable only by the State in which the person making the disposal is tax resident, subject of course, to the terms of any further treaty which applies between the residence state and the state where the asset is situated.

**Domestic law**

**Austria**

Non-resident companies are taxed on gains from disposals of immovable property located in Austria whether or not they have a permanent establishment there. Gains on disposals of shares in Austrian companies are taxable if the shareholding (direct or indirect) has exceeded 1% at any time during the five years preceding the disposal.

**China**

Non-residents are taxed on gains on the disposal of Chinese property via a withholding tax.

**Article 14 Independent Personal Services**

*See treaty text.*

This Treaty has separate Articles governing the taxation of income from permanent establishments (see Articles 5 and 7) and income from professional services. This Article provides that where a resident on one of the States has a “fixed base” in the other State, income in respect of professional services attributable to that fixed base may be taxed in the country in which it is situated. Thus an Austrian accountant with an office in China will be taxable in China on profits attributable to the Chinese office. The attribution of profits is dealt with in the same way as for other business profits under the provisions of Article 7.
This treatment will also apply to professional services performed in the other State by individuals present in the other State for more than 183 days in aggregate in the calendar year concerned. The term "professional services" is defined to include especially independent scientific, literary, artistic, educational or teaching activities as well as the independent activities of physicians, lawyers, engineers, architects, dentists and accountants.

**Article 15 Dependent Personal Services**

See treaty text.

Salaries, wages and other similar remuneration derived by a resident of a Contracting State in respect of employment are taxable only in that State unless the employment is exercised in the other State. If so, remuneration derived from the other State is taxable in the other State. However, the other State (the source State) will not tax provided:

- The recipient is present in the other State for no more than 183 days in aggregate in the calendar year concerned;
- The remuneration is paid by, or on behalf of, an employer not resident in the other State; and
- The remuneration is not borne by a permanent establishment or a fixed base which the employer has in the other State.

The purpose of this Article is to ensure symmetry in taxation: if the employer is not taxable in a State, because it is neither resident there nor has a permanent establishment there then it will not receive any tax deduction in that State for wages and salaries paid. Wages and salaries paid by the employer in respect of short term employment postings of employees to that State are correspondingly exempted from tax in that State in the hands of the employee.

**Treatment of stock options**

The treatment of employee stock options is not expressly dealt with and can be difficult as entitlement to the benefit taxable as a result of the option may have accrued partly whilst the employee was working temporarily in one of the States but there may be no taxable event, such as exercise of the option until the employee returns to the other State. A State is permitted to tax that part of the taxable benefit that can be related to the portion of the entitlement period spent working in that State.

Determining the extent to which an employee stock option benefit is derived from employment exercised in a particular State has to be done on a case by case basis, taking into account all relevant facts and circumstances. Whether a period of employment would be considered in allocating taxing rights between two States would depend on whether the entitlement to exercise the stock option was contingent upon continuing employment during that period. If an option was granted with a right to exercise, say, in three years time, regardless of continuing employment then time elapsing between grant and exercise would not count towards an apportionment of the taxing rights over the benefit in the absence of any other factors.

Periods of employment before the option was granted may be considered in the apportionment of taxing rights if the grant of the option was contingent upon a minimum period of employment or attainment of performance objectives.

Once the option is exercised, any further benefit to the employee, normally in the form of a capital gain on a disposal of the shares at a profit, will be dealt with under Article 13 and so probably only taxable in the State where he is resident.

If the shares do not vest irrevocably on exercise of the option (e.g. because they are liable to forfeiture upon certain conditions) then the increase in value of the shares until they do vest irrevocably will also be dealt with as employment income and subject to the same considerations as the benefit arising between grant and exercise.

The method of apportioning stock option benefits recommended by the OECD is by reference to the proportion of the number of days during which the employment was exercised in one State to the total number of days of employment from which the entitlement to the stock option benefits were derived. Thus if an employee was required to work for an employer for 520 days in total during a particular time period to qualify for the benefits of the stock option and was sent to work in the other State for 260 days out of that period, then half of the stock option benefits would be taxable in each State.

**Domestic law**

**Austria**

According to the BMK (Austrian tax authority) expatriates may deduct certain expenses for wage tax purposes according to a decree of the Ministry of Finance. This provision applies to individuals who have not resided in Austria for the past 10 years if they work in Austria only temporarily (maximum five years) and if their salary is subject to Austrian tax. The following expenses are deductible: Travel expenses to the residence abroad up to EUR180 per month and expenses for a second residence at
the place of work up to EUR2,200 per month, provided that the expatriate keeps his main residence abroad (may be deducted even if the residence is not only used by the expatriate himself but also by his family); furthermore private school fees for the taxpayer's children up to EUR110 per month and moving expenses.

**China**
The extent of the taxation of expatriates depends on whether the stay is more than a year and whether it is more or less than five years. If the stay is for less than 90 days, then Chinese source income is taxable, except that employment income not borne by Chinese employer is not taxed. (This corresponds to the rules set out in the Treaty, where the period is 183 days.) If the stay is for more than 90 days but less than a year, then Chinese source income, but not foreign income, is taxed in China. If the stay is for less than five years, then foreign income is usually exempt from Chinese tax. Only for stays of more than five years does full Chinese taxation apply.

Employer provided accommodation, travelling expenses, removal costs, and general household costs for expatriates are tax-free.

China also permits an enhanced personal tax allowance.

**Article 16 Directors' Fees**
See treaty text.
These fees and other similar payments may be taxable in the country in which the company is resident as well as that in which the director is resident.

**Article 17 Artists and Athletes**
See treaty text.
The usual OECD Model rule is followed: Income derived by a resident of one State as an entertainer, such as a theatre, motion picture, radio or television artist, or a musician, or as an athlete, from their personal activities as such exercised in the other State may be taxed in the other State. This also applies where the income accrues not to the entertainer or athlete himself, but to another person, e.g. a management company or a troupe, team or orchestra forming a legal entity or to an artist company.

This rule does not apply if the visit of the artiste or athletes to the other State is made under a plan of cultural exchange between the two States.

**Article 18 Pensions**
See treaty text.
These are taxable only in the State where the recipient is resident. However, as per the UN Model, pensions paid from a State's social security system are taxable only in the paying State.

**Article 19 Government Service**
See treaty text.
This provision relates to government service.

**Article 20 Teachers and Researchers**
See treaty text.
Teachers and researchers normally resident in one State can work in the other State but remain taxable only in the State of residence. No time limit is imposed. The work must consist of teaching or engaging in research in a university, institute, school or other non-profit making teaching institution, or a government recognised research institution.

**Article 21 Students and Trainees**
See treaty text.
Payments which a student, business apprentice or trainee, who is, or was immediately before visiting a Contracting State, a resident of the other Contracting State and who is present in the visited State solely for the purpose of his education or training will not be taxed in the visited State on:
- All remittances from abroad for the purpose of is maintenance, education, or training;
- All scholarships, grants, allowances and awards from governmental, charitable, scientific, cultural or educational organisations for the purposes of his maintenance, education or training; and
- Income derived from employment exercised in the visited State for the purposes of practical training. The exemption only applies to earnings in six months of any taxable year.

**Article 22 Other Income**
See treaty text.
Any income not dealt with in the preceding Articles is taxable only in the State of residence but if it arises in the other State then the other State may tax it according to domestic law. Thus the default position regarding the two States is that the State of source has primary taxing rights. Income not arising in either State may only be taxed by the State of residence. These rules follow the UN Model Treaty.
There is an express provision that income in respect of rights or property which is connected to a
permanent establishment is taxed under Article 7 as the income of that permanent establishment.
Income from immovable property remains taxable under Article 6 in the State in which the property is
located.

**Article 23 Methods for the Elimination of Double Taxation**

*See treaty text.*

**China**
The credit method is used, but with credit for underlying tax on Austrian dividends where the dividend
is received by a Chinese company owning at least 10% of the shares of the paying company.

**Austria**
Austria will use the exemption method with the exception of dividends, interest, royalties, certain
capital gains and certain items of capital which have been or may be taxed in China. The exemption
method used is exemption with progression so that the amount of exempt income will be taken into
accounting determining the tax rates to be applied to income remaining in charge to tax in Austria.
For the items listed not exempted by Austria, the credit method is used. In the case of dividends,
there is no credit for Chinese corporation tax underlying the dividend. The capital gains subject to the
credit method are all gains except those made on assets of permanent establishments and on
international transport assets.
If an Austrian company owns at least 10% of the capital of the Chinese company, Austria will exempt
the dividends from income tax and the value of the shares from capital taxes. However, the usual
requirements of the Austrian participation exemption for dividends must be met, with the exception of
the one-year minimum holding period. Essentially, a 10% holding is required and the Chinese paying
company must have been subject to tax on its profits.

**Tax sparing**
Whatever the actual rate of withholding taxes charged by China, Austria will give credit as follows:

- Dividends and interest: 10%.
- Royalties: 20%.

**Article 24 Non-discrimination**

*See treaty text.*

The usual OECD provisions, that nationals of one of the States shall not be subjected in the other
State to any taxation or any requirement connected with tax, which is other or more burdensome than
the taxation and connected requirements to which nationals of the other State in the same
circumstances are or may be subjected.
There is an extension so that the principle of non-discrimination also applies to persons not resident in
either Austria or China. It applies to all taxes, not merely those listed in Article 2.

**Article 25 Mutual Agreement Procedure**

*See treaty text.*

The usual provision founding the OECD Model is used but with different time limits. Where a person
considers that the actions of one or both of the States result or will result for him in taxation not in
accordance with the provisions of this Treaty, he may present his case to the competent authority of
the State of which he is resident or if not resident in either Austria or China, to the competent
authority of which he is a national. This is so irrespective of the remedies provided by domestic law.
The time limit for bringing a claim is three years from the date of first notification of the disputed tax
liability.
The two tax authorities will try to resolve the case by mutual agreement. They will also try to agree on
definitions of terms not defined in Article 3 and on general matters of interpretation of the Treaty.
Thus this Article removes the need for the tax authorities in each State to go through diplomatic
channels: They may simply contact each other directly. The mutual agreement procedure is commonly
used to decide matters concerning income and expense allocations and transfer pricing.

**Article 26 Exchange of Information**

*See treaty text.*

This Article is quite wide ranging in that it provides for exchange of such information as is “necessary
for carrying out the provisions of this Agreement”, in particular for the prevention of tax evasion.
Unusually, there is no mention of information needed for the carrying out of provisions of the domestic
law of either State. The exchange of information is not limited to that only concerning persons who are
resident of one of the States.
The Article includes the usual provisos relieving the States from any obligation to:
• Carry out administrative measures at variance with the laws or administrative practices of either State;
• Supply information which is not obtainable under the laws or in the normal course of the administration of either State; and
• Supply information which would disclose any trade, business, industrial commercial or professional secret or trade process, or information the disclosure of which would be contrary to public policy (ordre public).

There is no requirement to supply any information that the requested State would not need for its own tax purposes. Neither is there any bar on declining a request solely due to secrecy concerns.

**Article 27 Diplomatic Agents and Consular Officers**
See treaty text.
This provision relates to diplomatic agents and consular officers.

**Article 28 Entry into Force**
See treaty text.
This provision relates to the entry into force of this treaty.

**Article 29 Termination**
See treaty text.
This provision relates to the termination of this treaty.