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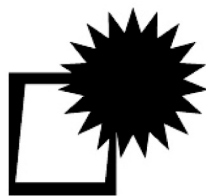


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# 1 INTRODUCTION TO INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL REPORTING STANDARDS

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## INTRODUCTION

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The stated objective of the IFRS Foundation and the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB) is to develop, in the public interest, a single set of high-quality, understandable, enforceable and globally accepted financial reporting standards based upon clearly articulated principles.

There were once scores of unique sets of financial reporting standards among the more developed nations (“national GAAP”). The year 2005 marked the beginning of a new era in global conduct of business, and the fulfillment of a 30-year effort to create the financial reporting rules for a worldwide capital market. For during that year’s financial reporting cycle, the 27 European Union (EU) member states, plus many others in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Russia, and South Africa adopted International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS).

Since then, many countries, such as Argentina, Brazil, Korea, Canada, Mexico, and Russia have adopted IFRS. China has substantially converted its national standards in line with IFRS. All other major economies, such as Japan and the United States, have either moved towards IFRS in recent years or established time lines for convergence or adoption in the near future.

2007 and 2008 proved to be watershed years for the growing acceptability of IFRS. In 2007, one of the most important developments was that the SEC dropped the reconciliation (to US GAAP) requirement that had formerly applied to foreign private registrants; thereafter, those reporting in a manner fully compliant with IFRS (i.e., without any exceptions to the complete set of standards imposed by IASB) do not have to reconcile net income and shareholders’ equity to the amounts which would have been presented under US GAAP. In effect, the US SEC was acknowledging that IFRS was fully acceptable as a basis for accurate, transparent, meaningful financial reporting.

This easing of US registration requirements for foreign companies seeking to enjoy the benefits of listing their equity or debt securities in the US led, quite naturally, to a call by domestic companies to permit them also to choose freely between financial reporting under US GAAP and IFRS. By late 2008 the SEC appeared to have begun the process of acquiescence, first for the largest companies in those industries having (worldwide) the preponderance of IFRS adopters, and later for all publicly held companies. However, a new SEC chair took office in 2009, expressing a concern that the move to IFRS, if it were to occur, should perhaps take place more slowly than had previously been indicated.

It had been highly probable that non-publicly held US entities would have remained bound to only US GAAP for the foreseeable future, both from habit and because no other set of standards would be viewed as being acceptable. However, the body that oversees the private-sector auditing profession's standards in the US amended its rules in 2008 to fully recognize IASB as an accounting standard-setting body (giving it equal status with the FASB), meaning that auditors and other service providers in the US could now issue opinions (or provide other levels of assurance, as specified under pertinent guidelines) on IFRS-based financial statements. This change, coupled with the promulgation by IASB of a long-sought standard providing simplified financial reporting rules for privately held entities (described later in this chapter), has possibly increased the likelihood that a broad-based move to IFRS will occur in the US within the next several years.

The impetus for the convergence of historically disparate financial reporting standards has been, in the main, to facilitate the free flow of capital so that, for example, investors in the United States will become more willing to finance business in, say, China or the Czech Republic. Having access to financial statements that are written in the same "language" would eliminate what has historically been a major impediment to engendering investor confidence, which is sometimes referred to as "accounting risk," which adds to the more tangible risks of making such cross-border investments. Additionally, the permission to list a company's equity or debt securities on an exchange has generally been conditional on making filings with national regulatory authorities, which have historically insisted either on conformity with local GAAP or on a formal reconciliation to local GAAP. Since these procedures are tedious and time-consuming, and the human resources and technical knowledge to do so are not always widely available, many otherwise anxious would-be registrants forwent the opportunity to broaden their investor bases and potentially lower their costs of capital.

The historic 2002 Norwalk Agreement—between the US standard setter, FASB and the IASB—called for "convergence" of the respective sets of standards, and indeed a number of revisions of either US GAAP or IFRS have already taken place to implement this commitment. The aim of the Boards was to complete the milestone projects of the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) by the end of June 2011.

Although the Boards were committed to complete the milestone projects by June 2011, certain projects such as financial instruments (impairment and hedge accounting), revenue recognition, leases, and insurance contracts were deferred due to the complexity of the projects and obtaining consensus views. The converged standard on revenue recognition was finally published in May 2014, although FASB has subsequently proposed deferring its effective date and IASB is likely to do the same. Details of these and other projects of the standard setters are included in a separate section in each relevant chapter of this book.

Despite the progress towards convergence described above, the SEC dealt a blow to hopes of future alignment in its strategic plan published in February 2014. The document

states that the SEC “will consider, among other things, whether a single set of high-quality global accounting standards is achievable,” which is a significant reduction in its previously expressed commitment to a single set of global standards. This leaves IFRS and US GAAP as the two comprehensive financial reporting frameworks in the world, with IFRS gaining more and more momentum.

The MoU with FASB (and with other international organizations and also jurisdictional authorities) has been replaced by a MoU with the Accounting Standards Advisory Forum (ASAF). The ASAF is an advisory group to the IASB consisting of national standard setters and regional bodies. FASB’s involvement with the IASB is now through ASAF.

Following the end of the convergence projects, the IASB has started with a new agenda consultation process on the future work program of the IASB. The IASB has started working on its new conceptual framework and included rate-regulated activities as a major project.

## **ORIGINS AND EARLY HISTORY OF THE IASB**

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Financial reporting in the developed world evolved from two broad models, whose objectives were somewhat different. The earliest systematized form of accounting regulation developed in continental Europe in 1673. Here a requirement for an annual fair value statement of financial position was introduced by the government as a means of protecting the economy from bankruptcies. This form of accounting at the initiative of the state to control economic participants was copied by other states and later incorporated in the 1807 Napoleonic Commercial Code. This method of regulating the economy expanded rapidly throughout continental Europe, partly through Napoleon’s efforts and partly through a willingness on the part of European regulators to borrow ideas from each other. This “code law” family of reporting practices was much developed by Germany after its 1870 unification, with the emphasis moving away from market values to historical cost and systematic depreciation. It was used later by governments as the basis of tax assessment when taxes on business profits started to be introduced, mostly in the early twentieth century.

This model of accounting serves primarily as a means of moderating relationships between the individual entity and the state. It serves for tax assessment, and to limit dividend payments, and it is also a means of protecting the running of the economy by sanctioning individual businesses that are not financially sound or are run imprudently. While the model has been adapted for stock market reporting and group (consolidated) structures, this is not its main focus.

The other model did not appear until the nineteenth century and arose as a consequence of the industrial revolution. Industrialization created the need for large concentrations of capital to undertake industrial projects (initially, canals and railways) and to spread risks between many investors. In this model the financial report provided a means of monitoring the activities of large businesses in order to inform their (non-management) shareholders. Financial reporting for capital markets purposes developed initially in the UK, in a common-law environment where the state legislated as little as possible and left a large degree of interpretation to practice and for the sanction of the courts. This approach was rapidly adopted by the US as it, too, became industrialized. As the US developed the idea of groups of companies controlled from a single head office (towards the end of the nineteenth century), this philosophy of financial reporting began to become focused on consolidated accounts and the group, rather than the individual company. For differing reasons, neither the UK nor the US governments saw this reporting framework as appropriate for income tax purposes, and

in this tradition, while the financial reports inform the assessment process, taxation retains a separate stream of law, which has had little influence on financial reporting.

The second model of financial reporting, generally regarded as the Anglo-Saxon financial reporting approach, can be characterized as focusing on the relationship between the business and the investor, and on the flow of information to the capital markets. Government still uses reporting as a means of regulating economic activity (e.g., the SEC's mission is to protect the investor and ensure that the securities markets run efficiently), but the financial report is aimed at the investor, not the government.

Neither of the two above-described approaches to financial reporting is particularly useful in an agricultural economy, or to one that consists entirely of microbusinesses, in the opinion of many observers. Nonetheless, as countries have developed economically (or as they were colonized by industrialized nations) they have adopted variants of one or the other of these two models.

IFRS are an example of the second, capital market-oriented, systems of financial reporting rules. The original international standard setter, the International Accounting Standards Committee (IASC) was formed in 1973, during a period of considerable change in accounting regulation. In the US the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) had just been created, in the UK the first national standard setter had recently been organized, the EU was working on the main plank of its own accounting harmonization plan (the Fourth Directive), and both the UN and the OECD were shortly to create their own accounting committees. The IASC was launched in the wake of the 1972 World Accounting Congress (a five-yearly get-together of the international profession) after an informal meeting between representatives of the British profession (Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales—ICAEW) and the American profession (American Institute of Certified Public Accountants—AICPA). A rapid set of negotiations resulted in the professional bodies of Canada, Australia, Mexico, Japan, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and New Zealand being invited to join with the US and UK to form the international body. Due to pressure (coupled with a financial subsidy) from the UK, the IASC was established in London, where its successor, the IASB, remains today.

In the first phase of its existence, the IASC had mixed fortunes. Once the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC) was formed in 1977 (at the next World Congress of Accountants), the IASC had to fight off attempts to make it a part of IFAC. It managed to resist, coming to a compromise where IASC remained independent but all IFAC members were automatically members of IASC, and IFAC was able to nominate the membership of the standard-setting Board.

IASC's efforts entered a new phase in 1987, which led directly to its 2001 reorganization, when the then-Secretary General, David Cairns, encouraged by the US SEC, negotiated an agreement with the International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO). IOSCO was interested in identifying a common international "passport" whereby companies could be accepted for secondary listing in the jurisdiction of any IOSCO member. The concept was that, whatever the listing rules in a company's primary stock exchange, there would be a common minimum package which all stock exchanges would accept from foreign companies seeking a secondary listing. IOSCO was prepared to endorse IFRS as the financial reporting basis for this passport, provided that the international standards could be brought up to a quality and comprehensiveness level that IOSCO stipulated.

Historically, a major criticism of IFRS had been that it essentially endorsed all the accounting methods then in wide use, effectively becoming a "lowest common denominator"

set of standards. The trend in national GAAP had been to narrow the range of acceptable alternatives, although uniformity in accounting had not been anticipated as a near-term result. The IOSCO agreement energized IASC to improve the existing standards by removing the many alternative treatments that were then permitted under the standards, thereby improving comparability across reporting entities. The IASC launched its Comparability and Improvements Project with the goal of developing a “core set of standards” that would satisfy IOSCO. These were complete by 1993, not without difficulties and spirited disagreements among the members, but then—to the great frustration of the IASC—these were not accepted by IOSCO. Rather than endorsing the standard-setting process of IASC, as was hoped for, IOSCO seemingly wanted to cherry-pick individual standards. Such a process could not realistically result in near-term endorsement of IFRS for cross-border securities registrations.

Ultimately, the collaboration was relaunched in 1995, with IASC under new leadership, and this began a further period of frenetic activities, where existing standards were again reviewed and revised, and new standards were created to fill perceived gaps in IFRS. This time the set of standards included, among others, IAS 39, on recognition and measurement of financial instruments, which was endorsed, at the very last moment and with great difficulty, as a compromise, purportedly interim standard.

At the same time, the IASC had undertaken an effort to consider its future structure. In part, this was the result of pressure exerted by the US SEC and also by the US private sector standard setter, the FASB, which were seemingly concerned that IFRS were not being developed by “due process.” While the various parties may have had their own agendas, in fact the IFRS were in need of strengthening, particularly as to reducing the range of diverse but accepted alternatives for similar transactions and events. The challenges presented to IASC ultimately would serve to make IFRS stronger.

If IASC was to be the standard setter endorsed by the world’s stock exchange regulators, it would need a structure that reflected that level of responsibility. The historical Anglo-Saxon standard-setting model—where professional accountants set the rules for themselves—had largely been abandoned in the twenty-five years since the IASC was formed, and standards were mostly being set by dedicated and independent national boards such as the FASB, and not by profession-dominated bodies like the AICPA. The choice, as restructuring became inevitable, was between a large, representative approach—much like the existing IASC structure, but possibly where national standard setters appointed representatives—or a small, professional body of experienced standard setters which worked independently of national interests.

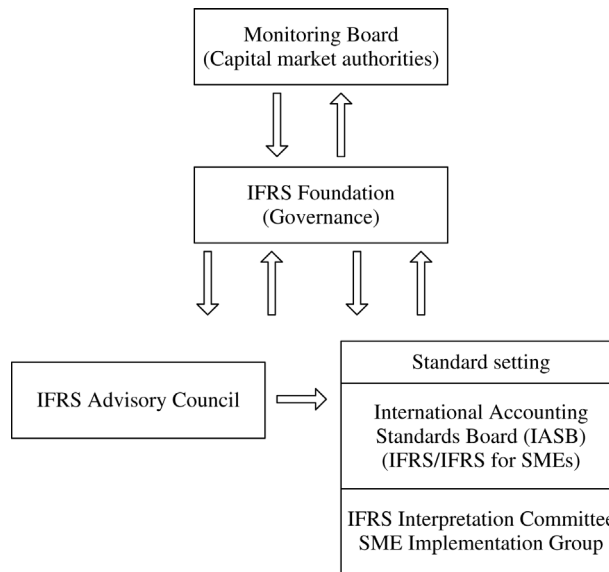
The end of this phase of international standard setting, and the resolution of these issues, came about within a short period in 2000. In May of that year, IOSCO members voted to endorse IASC standards, albeit subject to a number of reservations (see discussion later in this chapter). This was a considerable step forward for the IASC, which itself was quickly exceeded by an announcement in June 2000 that the European Commission intended to adopt IFRS as the requirement for primary listings in all member states. This planned full endorsement by the European Union (EU) eclipsed the lukewarm IOSCO approval, and since then the EU has appeared to be the more influential body insofar as gaining acceptance for IFRS has been concerned. Indeed, the once-important IOSCO endorsement has become of little importance given subsequent developments, including the EU mandate and convergence efforts among several standard-setting bodies.

In July 2000, IASC members voted to abandon the organization’s former structure, which was based on professional bodies, and adopt a new structure: beginning in 2001,

standards would be set by a professional board, financed by voluntary contributions raised by a new oversight body.

## THE CURRENT STRUCTURE

The formal structure put in place in 2000 has the IFRS Foundation, a Delaware corporation, as its keystone (this was previously known as the IASC Foundation). The Trustees of the IFRS Foundation have both the responsibility to raise funds needed to finance standard setting, and the responsibility of appointing members to the International Accounting Standards Board (IASB), the International Financial Reporting Interpretations Committee (IFRIC) and the IFRS Advisory Council (AC). The structure changed by incorporating the Monitoring Board in 2009, renaming and incorporating the SME Implementation Group in 2010 as follows:



The Monitoring Board is responsible for ensuring that the Trustees of the IFRS Foundation discharge their duties as defined by the IFRS Foundation Constitution and for approving the appointment or reappointment of Trustees. The Monitoring Board consists of the Emerging Markets and Technical Committees of the International Organization of Securities Commissions (IOSCO), the European Commission, the Financial Services Agency of Japan (JFSA), and US Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC). The Basel Committee on Banking Supervision currently only participates as an observer.

The IFRS Foundation is governed by trustees and reports to the Monitoring Board. The IFRS Foundation has fundraising responsibilities and oversees the standard-setting work, the IFRS structure and strategy. It is also responsible for the review of the Constitution.

The IFRS Advisory Council (formerly the SAC) is the formal advisory body to the IASB and the Trustees of the IFRS Foundation. Members consist of user groups, preparers,



financial analysts, academics, auditors, regulators, professional accounting bodies and investor groups.

The IASB is an independent body that is solely responsible for establishing International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS), including IFRS for SMEs. The IASB also approves new interpretations.

The International Financial Reporting Interpretations Committee (IFRIC) is a committee comprised mostly of technical partners in audit firms but also includes preparers and users. IFRIC's function is to answer technical queries from constituents about how to interpret IFRS—in effect, filling in the cracks between different rules. In recent times it has also proposed modifications to standards to the IASB, in response to perceived operational difficulties or the need to improve consistency. IFRIC liaises with the US Emerging Issues Task Force and similar bodies and standard setters to try to preserve convergence at the level of interpretation.

Working relationships are set up with local standard setters who have adopted or converged with International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS), or are in the process of adopting or converging with IFRS. The statement of working relationship sets out a range of activities that should be undertaken to facilitate the adoption and use of IFRS.

## **PROCESS OF IFRS STANDARD SETTING**

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The IASB has a formal due process, which is currently set out in the *IASB and IFRS Interpretation Committee Due Process Handbook of the IASB* issued in February 2013.

At a minimum, a proposed standard should be exposed for comment, and these comments should be reviewed before issuance of a final standard, with debates open to the public. However, this formal process is rounded out in practice, with wider consultation taking place on an informal basis. The IFRS Foundation has a committee, the Trustees' Due Process Oversight Committee, which regularly reviews and updates the due process.

The IASB's agenda is determined in various ways. Suggestions are made by the Trustees, the IFRS Advisory Council, liaison standard setters, the international audit firms, and others. These are debated by IASB and tentative conclusions are discussed with the various consultative bodies. The IASB also has a joint agenda committee with the FASB. Long-range projects are first put on the research agenda, which means that preliminary work is being done on collecting information about the problem and potential solutions. Projects can also arrive on the current agenda outside that route.

Once a project reaches the current agenda, the formal process is that the staff (a group of about 20 technical staff permanently employed by the IASB) drafts papers which are then discussed by IASB in open meetings. Following that debate, the staff rewrites the paper, or writes a new paper which is then debated at a subsequent meeting. In theory there is an internal process where the staff proposes solutions, and IASB either accepts or rejects them. In practice the process is more involved: sometimes (especially for projects such as financial instruments) individual Board members are delegated special responsibility for the project, and they discuss the problems regularly with the relevant staff, helping to build the papers that come to the Board. Equally, Board members may write or speak directly to the staff outside of the formal meeting process to indicate concerns about one thing or another.

The due process comprises six stages: (1) setting the agenda; (2) project planning; (3) developing and publishing a discussion paper; (4) developing and publishing an Exposure Draft; (5) developing and publishing the IFRS; and (6) procedures after an IFRS is issued. The process also includes discussion of Staff Papers outlining the principal issues and analysis of comments received on Discussion Papers and Exposure Drafts. A pre-ballot draft is normally subject to external review. A near final draft is also posted on the limited access website. If all outstanding matters are resolved, the final ballot is applied.

Final ballots on the standard are carried out in secret, but otherwise the process is quite open, with outsiders able to consult project summaries on the IASB website and attend Board meetings if they wish. Of course, the informal exchanges between staff and Board on a day-to-day basis are not visible to the public, nor are the meetings where IASB takes strategic and administrative decisions.

The basic due process can be modified in different circumstances. The Board may decide not to issue Discussion Papers or to reissue Discussion Papers and Exposure Drafts.

The IASB also has regular public meetings with the Analyst Representative Group (ARG) and the Global Preparers Forum (GPF), among others. Special groups such as the Financial Crisis Advisory Group are set up from time to time. Formal working groups are established for certain major projects to provide additional practical input and expertise. Apart from these formal consultative processes, IASB also carries out field trials of some standards (examples of this include performance reporting and insurance), where volunteer preparers apply the proposed new standards. The IASB may also hold some form of public consultation during the process, such as roundtable discussions. The IASB engages closely with stakeholders around the world such as investors, analysts, regulators, business leaders, accounting standard setters and the accountancy profession.

The revised *IASB and IFRS Interpretations Committee Due Process Handbook* has an introduction section dealing with oversight, which identifies the responsibilities of the Due Process Oversight Committee. The work of the IASB is divided into development and maintenance projects. Developments are comprehensive projects such as major changes and new IFRSs. Maintenance is narrow scope amendments. A research program is also described that should form the development base for comprehensive projects. Each phase of a major project should also include an effects analysis detailing the likely cost and benefits of the project.

## **CONVERGENCE: THE IASB AND FINANCIAL REPORTING IN THE US**

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Although IASC and FASB were created almost contemporaneously, FASB largely ignored IASB until the 1990s. It was only then that FASB became interested in IASC, when IASC was beginning to work with IOSCO, a body in which the SEC has always had a powerful voice. In effect, both the SEC and FASB were starting to consider the international financial reporting area, and IASC was also starting to take initiatives to encourage standard setters to meet together occasionally to debate technical issues of common interest.

IOSCO's efforts to create a single passport for secondary listings, and IASC's role as its standard setter, while intended to operate worldwide, would have the greatest practical significance for foreign issuers in terms of the US market. It was understood that if the SEC were to accept IFRS in place of US GAAP, there would be no need for a Form 20-F reconciliation, and access to the US capital markets by foreign registrants would be greatly

facilitated. The SEC has therefore been a key factor in the later evolution of IASC. It encouraged IASC to build a relationship with IOSCO in 1987, and also observed that too many options for diverse accounting were available under IAS. SEC suggested that it would be more favourably inclined to consider acceptance of IAS (now IFRS) if some or all of these alternatives were reduced. Shortly after IASC restarted its IOSCO work in 1995, the SEC issued a statement (April 1996) to the effect that, to be acceptable, IFRS would need to satisfy the following three criteria:

1. It would need to establish a core set of standards that constituted a comprehensive basis of accounting;
2. The standards would need to be of high quality, and would enable investors to analyse performance meaningfully both across time periods and among different companies; and
3. The standards would have to be rigorously interpreted and applied, as otherwise comparability and transparency could not be achieved.

IASC's plan was predicated on its completion of a core set of standards, which would then be handed over to IOSCO, which in turn would ask its members for an evaluation, after which IOSCO would issue its verdict as to acceptability. It was against this backdrop that the SEC issued a "concept release" in 2000, that solicited comments regarding the acceptability of the core set of standards, and whether there appeared to be a sufficiently robust compliance and enforcement mechanism to ensure that standards were consistently and rigorously applied by preparers, whether auditors would ensure this, and whether stock exchange regulators would verify such compliance.

This last-named element remains beyond the control of IASB, and is within the domain of national compliance bodies or professional organizations in each jurisdiction. The IASC's Standards Interpretations Committee (SIC, which was later succeeded by IFRIC) was formed to help ensure uniform interpretation, and IFRIC has taken a number of initiatives to establish liaison channels with stock exchange regulators and national interpretations bodies—but the predominant responsibilities remain in the hands of the auditors, the audit oversight bodies, and the stock exchange oversight bodies.

The SEC's stance at the time was that it genuinely wanted to see IFRS used by foreign registrants, but that it preferred convergence (so that no reconciliation would be necessary) over the acceptance of IFRS as they were in 2000 without reconciliation. In the years since, the SEC has in many public pronouncements supported convergence and, as promised, waived reconciliations in 2008 for registrants fully complying with IFRS. Thus, for example, the SEC welcomed various proposed changes to US GAAP to converge with IFRS.

Relations between FASB and IASB have grown warmer since IASB was restructured, perhaps influenced by the growing awareness that IASB would assume a commanding position in the financial reporting standard-setting domain. The FASB had joined the IASB for informal meetings as long ago as the early 1990s, culminating in the creation of the G4+1 group of Anglophone standard setters (US, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, with the IASC as an observer), in which FASB was an active participant. Perhaps the most significant event was when IASB and FASB signed the Norwalk Agreement in October 2002, which set out a program for the convergence of their respective sets of financial reporting standards. The organizations' staffs have worked together on a number of vital projects, including business combinations and revenue recognition, since the Agreement was signed and, later, supplemented by the 2006 and 2008 Memorandum of Understandings (MoU)

between these bodies. The two Boards have a joint agenda committee whose aim is to harmonize the timing with which the boards discuss the same subjects. The Boards are also committed to meeting twice a year in joint session.

In June 2010 the Boards announced a modification to their convergence strategy, responding to concerns from some stakeholders regarding the volume of draft standards due for publication in close proximity. The strategy retained the June 2011 target date to complete those projects for which the need for improvement was the most urgent. In line with this strategy, the Boards completed the consolidation (including joint arrangements) and fair value measurement project before the June 2011 target date. The derecognition project was cancelled and only disclosure amendments were incorporated in the standard. Projects on financial instruments, leases, revenue, and insurance contracts were extended to create significant time for reconsultation after comments were received.

With the end of the MoU with FASB, FASB has become a member of ASAF similarly to other standard setters. The remaining outstanding MoU projects were thus completed as IASB projects and not joint projects.

However, certain convergence problems remain, largely of the structural variety. FASB operates within a specific national legal framework, while IASB does not. Equally, both have what they term “inherited” GAAP (i.e., differences in approach that have a long history and are not easily resolved). FASB also has a tradition of issuing very detailed, prescriptive (“rules-based”) standards that give bright-line accounting (and, consequently, audit) guidance, which are intended to make compliance control easier and remove uncertainties. Notwithstanding that detailed rules had been ardently sought by preparers and auditors alike for many decades, in the post-Enron world, after it became clear that some of these highly prescriptive rules had been abused, interest turned toward developing standards that would rely more on the expression of broad financial reporting objectives, with far less detailed instruction on how to achieve them (“principles-based” standards). This was seen as being superior to the US GAAP approach, which mandated an inevitably doomed effort to prescribe responses to every conceivable fact pattern to be confronted by preparers and auditors.

This exaggerated rules-based vs. principles-based dichotomy was invoked particularly following the frauds at US-based companies WorldCom and Enron, but before some of the more prominent European frauds, such as Parmalat (Italy) and Royal Ahold (the Netherlands) came to light, which would suggest that neither the use of US GAAP nor IFRS could protect against the perpetration of financial reporting frauds if auditors were derelict in the performance of their duties or even, on rare occasions, complicit in management’s frauds. As an SEC study (which had been mandated by the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002) into principles-based standards later observed, use of principles alone, without detailed guidance, reduces comparability. The litigious environment in the US also makes companies and auditors reluctant to step into areas where judgements have to be taken in uncertain conditions. The SEC’s solution: “objectives-based” standards that are both soundly based on principles and inclusive of practical guidance.

Events in the mid- to late-2000s served to accelerate the pressure for full convergence between US GAAP and IFRS. In fact, the US SEC’s decision in late 2007 to waive reconciliation requirements for foreign registrants complying with “full IFRS” was a clear indicator that the outright adoption of IFRS in the US could be on the horizon, and that the convergence process might be made essentially redundant if not actually irrelevant. The SEC has since granted qualifying US registrants (major players in industry segments, the majority

of whose worldwide participants already report under IFRS) the limited right to begin reporting under IFRS in 2009.

In late 2008, the SEC proposed its so-called “roadmap” for a phased-in IFRS adoption, setting forth four milestones that, if met, could have led to wide-scale adoption beginning in 2014. However, under the new leadership, which assumed office in 2009, the SEC has shown that it will act with less urgency on this issue, and achievement of the “milestones”—which include a number of subjective measures such as improvement in standards and level of IFRS training and awareness among US accountants and auditors—leaves room for later balking at making the final commitment to IFRS. Notwithstanding these impediments to progress, the authors believe that there is ultimately an inexorable move toward universal adoption of IFRS, and that the leading academic and public accounting (auditing) organizations must, and will, take the necessary steps to ensure that this can move forward. For example, in the US the principal organization of academicians is actively working on standards for IFRS-based accounting curricula, and the main organization representing independent accountants is producing Web-based materials and live conferences to educate practitioners about IFRS matters.

While the anticipated further actions by the US SEC will only directly promote or require IFRS adoption by multinational and other larger, publicly held business entities, and later by even small, publicly held companies, in the longer run, even medium- and smaller-sized entities will probably opt for IFRS-based financial reporting. There are several reasons to predict this “trickle down” effect. First, because some involvement in international trade is increasingly a characteristic of all business operations, the need to communicate with customers, creditors, and potential partners or investors will serve to motivate “one language” financial reporting. Second, the notion of reporting under “second-class GAAP” rather than under the standards employed by larger competitors will eventually prove to be unappealing. And thirdly, IASB’s issuance of a one-document comprehensive standard on financial reporting by entities having no public reporting responsibilities (IFRS for SMEs, discussed later in this chapter), coupled with formal recognition under US auditing standards that financial reporting rules established by IASB are a basis for an expression of an auditor’s professional opinion, may actually find enthusiastic support among smaller US reporting entities and their professional services providers, even without immediate adoptions among publicly held companies.

## **THE IASB AND EUROPE**

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Although France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK were founding members of predecessor organization the IASC and have remained heavily involved with IASB, the European Commission (EC) as such has generally had a fitful relationship with the international standard setter. The EC did not participate in any way until 1990, when it finally became an observer at Board meetings. It had had its own regional program of harmonization since the 1960s and in effect only officially abandoned this in 1995, when, in a policy paper, it recommended to member states that they seek to align their rules for consolidated financial statements on IFRS. Notwithstanding this, the Commission gave IASB a great boost when it announced in June 2000 that it wanted to require all listed companies throughout the EU to use IFRS beginning in 2005 as part of its initiative to build a single European financial market. This intention was made concrete with the approval of the IFRS Regulation in June 2002 by the European Council of Ministers (the supreme EU decision-making authority).

The EU decision was all the more welcome given that, to be effective in legal terms, IFRS have to be enshrined in EU statute law, creating a situation where the EU is in effect ratifying as laws the set of rules created by a small, self-appointed, private-sector body. This proved to be a delicate situation, which was revealed within a very short time to contain the seeds of unending disagreements, as politicians were being asked in effect to endorse something over which they had no control. They were soon being lobbied by corporate interests that had failed to effectively influence IASB directly, in order to achieve their objectives, which in some cases involved continued lack of transparency regarding certain types of transactions or economic effects, such as fair value changes affecting holdings of financial instruments. The process of obtaining EU endorsement of IFRS was at the cost of exposing IASB to political pressures in much the same way that the US FASB has at times been the target of congressional manipulations (e.g., over stock-based compensation accounting rules in the mid-1990s, the derailing of which arguably contributed to the practices that led to various backdating abuse allegations made in more recent years).

The EU created an elaborate machinery to mediate its relations with IASB. It preferred to work with another private-sector body, created for the purpose, the European Financial Reporting Advisory Group (EFRAG), as the formal conduit for EU inputs to IASB. EFRAG was formed in 2001 by a collection of European representative organizations (for details see [www.efrag.org](http://www.efrag.org)), including the European Accounting Federation (FEE) and a European employer organization (BUSINESSEUROPE). EFRAG in turn formed the small Technical Expert Group (TEG) that does the detailed work on IASB proposals. EFRAG consults widely within the EU, and particularly with national standard setters and the European Commission to canvass views on IASB proposals, and provides input to IASB. It responds formally to all discussion papers and Exposure Drafts.

At a second stage, when a final standard is issued, EFRAG is asked by the Commission to provide a report on the standard. This report is to state whether the standard has the requisite quality and is in conformity with European company law directives. The European Commission then asks another entity, the Accounting Regulatory Committee (ARC), whether it wishes to endorse the standard. ARC consists of permanent representatives of the EU member state governments. It should normally only fail to endorse IFRS if it believes they are not in conformity with the overall framework of EU law, and should not take a strategic or policy view. However, the European Parliament also has the right to independently comment, if it so wishes. If ARC fails to endorse a standard, the European Commission may still ask the Council of Ministers to override that decision.

Experience has shown that the system suffers from a number of problems. First, although EFRAG is intended to enhance EU inputs to IASB, it may in fact isolate people from IASB, or at least increase the costs of making representations. For example, when IASB revealed its intention to issue a standard on stock options, it received nearly a hundred comment letters from US companies (who report under US GAAP, not IFRS), but only one from EFRAG, which in the early 2000s effectively represented about 90% of IASB's constituents. It is possible, however, that EFRAG is seen at IASB as being only a single respondent, and if so, that people who have made the effort to work through EFRAG feel underrepresented. In addition, EFRAG inevitably will present a distillation of views, so it is already filtering respondents' views before they even reach IASB. The only recourse is for respondents to make representations not only to EFRAG but also directly to IASB.

However, resistance to the financial instruments standards, IAS 32 and IAS 39, put the system under specific strain. These standards were already in existence when the European

Commission announced its decision to adopt IFRS for European listed companies, and they had each been exhaustively debated before enactment. European adoption again exposed these particular standards to strenuous debate.

The first task of EFRAG and ARC was to endorse the existing standards of IASB. They did this—but excluded IAS 32 and 39 on the grounds that they were being extensively revised as part of IASB’s then-ongoing *Improvements Project*.

During the exposure period of the improvements proposals—which exceptionally included roundtable meetings with constituents—the European Banking Federation, under particular pressure from French banks, lobbied IASB to modify the standard to permit special accounting for macrohedging. The IASB agreed to do this, even though that meant the issuance of another Exposure Draft and a further amendment to IAS 39 (which was finally issued in March 2004). The bankers did not like the terms of the amendment, and even as it was still under discussion, they appealed to the French president and persuaded him to intervene. He wrote to the European Commission in July 2003, saying that the financial instruments standards were likely to cause banks’ reported earnings to be more volatile and would destabilize the European economy, and thus that the proposed standard should not be approved. He also argued that the Commission did not have sufficient input to the standard-setting process.

This drive to alter the requirements of IAS 39 was intensified when the European Central Bank complained in February 2004 that the “fair value option,” introduced to IAS 39 as an improvement in final form in December 2003, could be used by banks to manipulate their *prudential ratios* (the capital to assets ratios used to evaluate bank safety), and asked IASB to limit the circumstances in which the option could be used. IASB agreed to do this, although this meant issuing another Exposure Draft and a further amendment to IAS 39 which was not finalized until mid-2005. When IASB debated the issue, it took a pragmatic line that no compromise of principle was involved, and that it was reasonable that the principal bank regulator of the Board’s largest constituent by far should be accommodated. The fact that the European Central Bank had not raised these issues at the original Exposure Draft stage was not discussed, nor was the legitimacy of a constituent deciding unilaterally it wanted to change a rule that had just been approved. The Accounting Standards Board of Japan lodged a formal protest, and many other constituents were not pleased at this development.

Ultimately, ARC approved IAS 32 and IAS 39, but a “carve out” from IAS 39 was prescribed. Clearly the EU’s involvement with IFRS is proving to be a mixed blessing for IASB, both exposing it to political pressures that are properly an issue for the Commission, not IASB, and putting its due process under stress. Some commentators speculated that the EU might even abandon IFRS, but this is not a realistic possibility, given the worldwide movement toward IFRS and the fact that the EU had already tried and rejected the regional standard-setting route.

A better observation is that this is merely part of a period of adjustment, with regulators and lobbyists both being uncertain as to how exactly the system does and should work, and both testing its limits, but with some *modus vivendi* evolving over time. However, it is severe distraction for IASB that financial instruments, arguably the area of greatest accounting controversy in the 1990s, is one that is still causing concern to the present date, in part exacerbated by the worldwide financial crisis of 2007–2009. Some believe that financial instruments accounting issues should have been fully resolved years ago, so that IASB could give its undivided attention to such crucial topics as revenue recognition, performance reporting and insurance contracts.

The EC decision to impose “carve-outs” has most recently had the result that the US SEC’s historic decision to eliminate reconciliation to US GAAP for foreign private issuers has been restricted to those registrants that file financial statements that comply with “full IFRS” (which implies that those using “Euro-IFRS” and other national modifications of IFRS promulgated by the IASB will not be eligible for this benefit). Registrants using any deviation from pure IFRS, and those using any other national GAAP, will continue to be required to present a reconciliation to US GAAP. Over time, it can be assumed that this will add to the pressure to report under “full IFRS,” and that even the EU may line up behind full and complete adherence to officially promulgated IFRS. In November 2009 the EFRAG decided to defer the endorsement of IFRS 9, although in principle they agree with the management approach adopted in IFRS 9. This deferral remains in place at the time of writing in June 2015. The EFRAG believe that more time should be taken to consider the outcome of other sections of the financial instrument project and that the sections should be endorsed as a package.

In June 2010 the EFRAG issued a new *Strategy for European Proactive Financial Reporting Activities*. This strategy of proactive activities enhances EFRAG’s role in influencing standard setting by early engagement with European constituents to provide effective and timely input to the IASB’s work. This demonstrates that EFRAG is positively committed to the standard-setting process and it has duly become a member of ASAF.

## IFRS FOR SMEs

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The *IFRS for SMEs* was originally issued by the IASB in July 2009 to reduce the financial reporting burden of small and medium-sized entities. In the process, many of the recognition and measurement principles in full IFRS have been simplified, disclosures significantly reduced and topics not relevant to SMEs omitted. Appendix C attached to this chapter provides discussion of these differences. The IASB has carried out a comprehensive review of the *IFRS for SMEs* which it completed in May 2015 and has published a list of amendments. It intends issuing a complete revised version of the standard during the third quarter of 2015. On an ongoing basis the IASB expects that revisions to the standard will be limited to once every three years.

The standard is a stand-alone document with only one optional cross-reference to full IFRS for financial instruments, which provides a choice regarding the treatment of financial instruments. The standard is appropriate for general-purpose financial statements. General-purpose financial statements are directed towards the common information needs of a wide range of users, for example, shareholders, creditors, employees, and the public at large.

*IFRS for SMEs* is intended for entities that do not have public accountability. An entity has public accountability—and therefore would not be permitted to use the *IFRS for SMEs*—if it meets either of the following conditions: (1) it has issued debt or equity securities in a public market; or (2) it holds assets in a fiduciary capacity, as one of its primary businesses, for a broad group of outsiders. The latter category of entity would include most banks, insurance companies, securities broker/dealers, pension funds, mutual funds, and investment banks.

The responsibility lies with each jurisdiction to determine which entities should apply the *IFRS for SMEs*. Comprehensive training material has been developed for SMEs by the IFRS



Foundation and a SME Implementation Group exists to deal with financial reporting issues regarding SMEs.

The application of the *IFRS for SMEs* standard has not been covered in this publication. However, there is a detailed accounting manual available that addresses the requirements, application, and interpretation of this standard—*Applying IFRS for SMEs* (available from Wiley).

## **APPENDIX A: CURRENT INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL REPORTING STANDARDS (IAS/IFRS) AND INTERPRETATIONS (SIC/IFRIC)**

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IFRS 1	First-Time Adoption of IFRS
IFRS 2	Share-Based Payment
IFRS 3	Business Combinations
IFRS 4	Insurance Contracts
IFRS 5	Non-current Assets Held for Sale and Discontinued Operations
IFRS 6	Exploration for and Evaluation of Mineral Resources
IFRS 7	Financial Instruments: Disclosures
IFRS 8	Operating Segments
IFRS 9	Financial Instruments
IFRS 10	Consolidated Financial Statements
IFRS 11	Joint Arrangements
IFRS 12	Disclosure of Interest in Other Entities
IFRS 13	Fair Value Measurement
IFRS 14	Regulatory Deferral Accounts
IFRS 15	Revenue from Contracts with Customers
IAS 1	Presentation of Financial Statements
IAS 2	Inventories
IAS 7	Statement of Cash Flows
IAS 8	Accounting Policies, Changes in Accounting Estimates and Errors
IAS 10	Events after the Reporting Period
IAS 11	Construction Contracts
IAS 12	Income Taxes
IAS 16	Property, Plant and Equipment
IAS 17	Leases
IAS 18	Revenue
IAS 19	Employee Benefits
IAS 20	Accounting for Government Grants and Disclosure of Government Assistance
IAS 21	The Effects of Changes in Foreign Exchange Rates
IAS 23	Borrowing Costs
IAS 24	Related-Party Disclosure
IAS 26	Accounting and Reporting by Retirement Benefit Plans
IAS 27	Separate Financial Statements
IAS 28	Investments in Associates and Joint Ventures
IAS 29	Financial Reporting in Hyperinflationary Economies
IAS 32	Financial Instruments: Presentation
IAS 33	Earnings per Share
IAS 34	Interim Financial Reporting
IAS 36	Impairments of Assets
IAS 37	Provisions, Contingent Liabilities, and Contingent Assets

IAS 38	Intangible Assets
IAS 39	Financial Instruments: Recognition and Measurement
IAS 40	Investment Property
IAS 41	Agriculture
IFRIC 1	Changes in Existing Decommissioning, Restoration and Similar Liabilities
IFRIC 2	Members' Shares in Co-operative Entities and Similar Instruments
IFRIC 4	Determining whether an Arrangement contains a Lease
IFRIC 5	Rights to Interests arising from Decommissioning, Restoration and Environmental Rehabilitation Funds
IFRIC 6	Liabilities arising from Participating in a Specific Market—Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment
IFRIC 7	Applying the Restatement Approach under IAS 29, <i>Financial Reporting in Hyperinflationary Economies</i>
IFRIC 9	Reassessment of Embedded Derivatives
IFRIC 10	Interim Financial Reporting and Impairment
IFRIC 12	Service Concession Arrangements
IFRIC 13	Customer Loyalty Programs
IFRIC 14	IAS 19—The Limit on a Defined Benefit Asset, Minimum Funding Requirements, and Their Interaction
IFRIC 15	Agreements for the Construction of Real Estate
IFRIC 16	Hedges of a Net Investment in a Foreign Operation
IFRIC 17	Distributions of Non-cash Assets to Owners
IFRIC 18	Transfer of Assets from Customers
IFRIC 19	Extinguishing Financial Liabilities with Equity Instruments
IFRIC 20	Stripping Costs in the Production Phase of a Surface Mine
IFRIC 21	Levies
SIC 7	Introduction of the Euro
SIC 10	Government Assistance—No Specific Relation to Operating Activities
SIC 15	Operating Leases—Incentives
SIC 25	Income Taxes—Changes in the Tax Status of an Enterprise or its Shareholders
SIC 27	Evaluating the Substance of Transactions involving the Legal Form of a Lease
SIC 29	Disclosure—Service Concession Arrangements
SIC 31	Revenue—Barter Transactions Involving Advertising Services
SIC 32	Intangible Assets—Web Site Costs

## APPENDIX B: PROJECTS COMPLETED SINCE PREVIOUS ISSUE (JULY 2014 TO JUNE 2015)

Project	Issue date	Nature	Effective date
IFRS 15 Revenue from Contracts with Customers	May 2014	Clarification on principles of revenue recognition	January 1, 2017 (NB In May 2015 the IASB published an Exposure Draft proposing a one-year deferral of the effective date of IFRS 15 to 1 January 2018. The comment period for this Exposure Draft ended on 3 July 2015.) January 1, 2018
IFRS 9 Financial Instruments	July 2014	Final phase of project to replace IAS 39	January 1, 2018
Equity Method in Separate Financial Statements (Amendments to IAS 27)	August 2014	To restore the option to use the equity method of accounting in separate financial statements.	January 1, 2016
Sale or Contribution of Assets between an Investor and its Associate or Joint Venture (Amendments to IFRS 10 and IAS 28)	September 2014	To address an acknowledged inconsistency between the requirements in IFRS 10 and IAS 28.	January 1, 2016
Annual Improvements 2012–2014	September 2014	Small amendments to multiple standards.	January 1, 2016
Investment Entities: Applying the Consolidated Exception (amendments to IFRS 10, IFRS 12 and IAS 28)	December 2014	To clarify: which subsidiaries of an investment entity are consolidated in accordance with paragraph 32 of IFRS 10; the exemption from preparing consolidated financial statements for an indeterminate parent of an investment entity; and application of the equity method by a non-investment entity investor to an investment entity investee.	January 1, 2016
Disclosure initiative (Amendments to IAS 1)	December 2014	To address overly prescriptive interpretations of the wording in IAS 1.	January 1, 2016

## APPENDIX C: IFRS FOR SMEs

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A long-standing debate among professional accountants, users and preparers—between those advocating for some form of simplified financial reporting standards for (variously defined) smaller or non-publicly responsible entities, and those arguing that all reporting entities purporting to adhere to officially mandated accounting standards do so with absolute faithfulness—has now been resolved. On July 9, 2009, IASB published the *International Financial Reporting Standard (IFRS) for Small and Medium-Sized Entities (IFRS for SMEs)*. Notwithstanding the name, it is actually intended as an optional, somewhat simplified and choice-limited comprehensive financial reporting standard for enterprises not having public accountability.

A parallel debate raged in the UK, the US, and in other national GAAP domains for decades. In the US a number of inchoate proposals have been offered over at least the past 30 years, but no serious proposal was forthcoming, largely because the idea of differential recognition or measurement standards for smaller entities was seen as conceptually unappealing, leaving the relatively trivial issue of differential disclosures as the focus of discussion. Apart from a limited number of disclosure topics, such as segment results and earnings per share, and some pension obligation details, this proved not to be a very productive line of inquiry, and no sweeping changes were ever adopted or even proposed.

In the UK, the story was different. A single, comprehensive standard, the *Financial Reporting Standard for Smaller Entities (FRSSE)*, was successfully implemented over a decade ago, and then revised several times, employing a periodic updating strategy that IASB has now emulated. Rather than impose different recognition or measurement concepts on smaller entities, the approach taken, in the main, was to slim down the standards, eliminate much of the background and illustrative materials, and in some cases narrow or eliminate the alternative methods that users of full UK GAAP could elect to apply, with some concomitant simplifications to informative disclosures. Since this was deemed to have been successful in the UK, IASB determined to emulate it, beginning with a Discussion Paper in 2004, and continuing through an early-2007 Exposure Draft and a final standard in mid-2009.

In August 2009 the UK Accounting Standards Board (ASB) issued a consultation paper to adopt *IFRS for SMEs* in the UK. Good support was received to adopt a standard based on the *IFRS for SMEs* as a second-tier standard. *FRSSE* should be retained as an interim measure for third-tier standard. The process culminated in the issue, in March 2013, of FRS 102 *The Financial Reporting Standard applicable in the United Kingdom and Republic of Ireland*, a standard based on *IFRS for SMEs* which will apply to second-tier entities with effect from accounting periods commencing on or after January 1, 2015.

The enthusiasm and support that was shown for the *IFRS for SMEs* project from national accounting standard setters throughout the world stemmed mostly from the widely acknowledged complexity of the full body of IFRS, and from the different statutory requirements for financial reporting in many countries, which in many instances demand that audited financial statements, without any qualifications, be submitted to tax or other authorities. For example, in the European Union about 7,000 listed companies were implementing IFRS in 2005, but more than 5 million SMEs are required to prepare their financial statements in accordance with various national GAAP, resulting in lack of comparability across this sector of financial reporting entities. Reportedly, more than 50 different sets of standards govern private reporting in the 27 EU nations. EFRAG has not

decided whether the *IFRS for SMEs* should be endorsed in Europe, although most countries have responded positively to such an implementation.

It had long been asserted, although often without solid evidence, that the complexity of the full body of IFRS (and, even more so, of full US GAAP) imposes a high and unwelcome cost on implementing and applying these standards, and that many or most external users of the resulting financial statements did not see value commensurate with the cost and effort associated with their preparation. Whether or not this is true, many now believe that *IFRS for SMEs* will provide companies with an easier transition to the full IFRS, thus serving to accomplish, in the longer term, a more thorough and broadly based move toward universal reporting under a single set of financial reporting standards.

Opponents of a separate set of standards for SMEs believe that all entities should follow the same basic set of accounting principles for the preparation of general-purpose financial statements, whether that set of standards be IFRS or US GAAP. Some have noted that complexity in accounting is merely a symptom—the inevitable result of the ever-increasing complexity of transactional structures, such as the widespread use of “engineered” financial products. Based on observations of the difficulties faced by companies implementing and applying the full IFRS, others have concluded that the problem is not that SMEs need simpler accounting, but that all reporting entities would benefit from reporting requirements that are less complex and more principles-based. Since this latter goal seemed to be perpetually unattainable, momentum ultimately shifted in favour of having a simplified stand-alone standard for either smaller or non-public companies. *IFRS for SMEs*, available for use by non-publicly accountable entities of any size, is the solution that has been rendered by IASB to this chronic problem.

Because the IASB lacks the power to require any company to use its standards, the adoption of *IFRS for SMEs* is a matter for each country to decide. The issue must be resolved by a country’s government legislators and regulators, or by an independent standards setter, or by a professional accountancy body. Each country will need to establish criteria to determine eligibility of reporting entities seeking to qualify under this new standard as a “small or medium-sized” entity.

The *IFRS for SMEs* is not immediately updated for any changes to full IFRS but, as noted above, the IASB has issued amendments in the first half of 2015 and then anticipates updating the standard every three years thereafter.

### **Definition of SMEs**

*IFRS for SMEs* is intended for entities that do not have public accountability. An entity has public accountability—and therefore would not be permitted to use *IFRS for SMEs*—if it meets either of the following conditions: (1) it has issued debt or equity securities in a public market; or (2) it holds assets in a fiduciary capacity, as one of its primary businesses, for a broad group of outsiders. The latter category of entity would include most banks, insurance companies, securities broker/dealers, pension funds, mutual funds, and investment banks. The standard does not impose a size test in defining SMEs, notwithstanding the nomenclature used.

The standard also states that it is intended for entities that publish financial statements for external users; as with IFRS and US GAAP, in other words, the standard is not intended to govern internal or managerial reporting (although there is nothing to prevent such reporting from fully conforming to such standards).

A subsidiary of an entity that employs full IFRS, or an entity that is part of a consolidated entity that reports in compliance with IFRS may report, on a stand-alone basis, in accordance with *IFRS for SMEs*, if the financial statements are so identified, and if the subsidiary does not have public accountability itself. If this is done, the standard must be fully complied with, which could mean that the subsidiary's stand-alone financial statements would differ from how they are presented within the parent's consolidated financial statements; for example, in the subsidiary's financial statements prepared in accordance with *IFRS for SMEs*, borrowing costs incurred in connection with construction of long-lived assets would be expensed as incurred, but those same borrowing costs would be capitalized in the consolidated financial statements, since IAS 23 as most recently revised no longer provides the option of immediate expensing. In the authors' view, this would not be optimal financial reporting, and the goals of consistency and comparability would be better served if the stand-alone financial statements of the subsidiary also were based on full IFRS.

### ***IFRS for SMEs* is a Complete, Self-Contained Set of Requirements**

*IFRS for SMEs* is a complete and comprehensive standard, and accordingly contains much or most of the vital guidance provided by the full IFRS. For example, it defines the qualities that are needed for IFRS-compliant financial reporting (reliability, understandability, et al.), the elements of financial statements (assets, liabilities, et al.), the required minimum captions in the required full set of financial statements, the mandate for comparative reporting, and so forth. There is no need for an entity reporting under this standard to refer elsewhere (other than for guidance in IAS 39, discussed below), and indeed it would be improper to do so.

An entity having no public accountability that elects to report in conformity with *IFRS for SMEs* must make an "explicit and unreserved" declaration to that effect in the notes to the financial statements. As with a representation that the financial statements comply with (full) IFRS, if this representation is made, the entity must comply fully with all relevant requirements in the standard(s).

Many options under full IFRS remain under *IFRS for SMEs*. For example, a single statement of comprehensive income can be presented, with profit or loss being an intermediate step in the derivation of the period's comprehensive income or loss, or alternatively a separate statement of income can be displayed, with profit or loss (the "bottom line" in that statement) then being the opening item in the separate statement of comprehensive income. Likewise, most of the mandates under full IFRS, such as the need to consolidate special-purpose entities that are controlled by the reporting entity, also exist under *IFRS for SMEs*.

### **Modifications of Full IFRS Made for *IFRS for SMEs***

Compared to the full IFRS, the aggregate length of the standards, in terms of number of words, has been reduced by more than 90%. This was achieved by eliminating topics deemed not to be generally relevant to SMEs, by eliminating certain choices of accounting treatments, and by simplifying methods for recognition and measurement. These three sets of modifications to the content of the full IFRS, which are discussed below, respond to both the perceived needs of users of SMEs' financial statements and to cost-benefit concerns. According to the IASB, the set of standards in the *IFRS for SMEs* will be suitable for a typical enterprise having 50 employees, and will also be valid for so-called micro-entities having only a single or a few employees. However, no size limits are stipulated in the standard, and thus even very large entities could conceivably elect to apply *IFRS for SMEs*,