

International Financial Reporting Standards
Pocket guide – 2008

IFRS technical publications



IFRS Manual of Accounting 2008

Provides expert practical guidance on how groups should prepare their consolidated financial statements in accordance with IFRS. Comprehensive publication including hundreds of worked examples, extracts from company reports and model financial statements.



Adopting IFRS – A step-by-step illustration of the transition to IFRS

Illustrates the steps involved in preparing the first IFRS financial statements. It takes into account the effect on IFRS 1 of the standards issued up to and including March 2004.



Disclosure Checklist 2007

Outlines the disclosures required by all IFRSs published up to September 2006.



Financial instruments under IFRS

High-level summary of the revised financial instruments standards issued in December 2003, updated to reflect IFRS 7 in September 2006. For existing IFRS preparers and first-time adopters.



Financial Reporting in Hyperinflationary Economies – Understanding IAS 29

2006 update (reflecting impact of IAS 7) of a guide for entities applying IAS 29. Provides an overview of the standard's concepts, descriptions of the procedures and an illustrative example of its application.



IFRS 3R: Impact on earnings – the crucial Q&A for decision-makers

Guide aimed at finance directors, financial controllers and deal-makers, providing background to the standard, impact on the financial statements and controls, and summary differences with US GAAP.



IFRS for SMEs (proposals) – Pocket Guide 2007

Provides a summary of the recognition and measurement requirements in the proposed 'IFRS for Small and Medium-Sized Entities' published by the International Accounting Standards Board in February 2007.



IFRS Pocket Guide 2008

Provides a summary of the IFRS recognition and measurement requirements. Including currencies, assets, liabilities, equity, income, expenses, business combinations and interim financial statements.



IFRS News

Monthly newsletter focusing on the business implications of the IASB's proposals and new standards.



IAS 39 – Achieving hedge accounting in practice

Covers in detail the practical issues in achieving hedge accounting under IAS 39. It provides answers to frequently asked questions and step-by-step illustrations of how to apply common hedging strategies.



Illustrative interim financial information for existing preparers

Illustrative information, prepared in accordance with IAS 34, for a fictional existing IFRS preparer. Includes a disclosure checklist and IAS 34 application guidance. Reflects standards issued up to 31 March 2008.



Illustrative Consolidated Financial Statements

- Banking, 2006
- Corporate, 2007
- Insurance, 2006
- Investment funds, 2004
- Investment property, 2004

Realistic sets of financial statements – for existing IFRS preparers in the above sectors – illustrating the required disclosure and presentation.



Illustrative Interim Consolidated Financial Statements for First-time Adopters – 2005

Realistic set of interim IFRS financial statements for first-time adopters. The financial statements for the six months ended June 2005 illustrate the disclosure and presentation required by all IFRSs published up to and including December 2004.



Measurement Checklist 2006

Outlines the measurement bases required by all IFRSs published up to September 2006.



Share-based Payment – a practical guide to applying IFRS 2

Assesses the impact of the new standard, looking at the requirements and providing a step-by-step illustration of how to account for share-based payment transactions.



SIC-12 and FIN 46R – The Substance of Control

Helps those working with special purpose entities to identify the differences between US GAAP and IFRS in this area, including examples of transactions and structures that may be impacted by the guidance.



Similarities and Differences – a comparison of IFRS and US GAAP

Presents the key similarities and differences between IFRS and US GAAP, focusing on the differences commonly found in practice. It takes into account all standards published up to August 2007.



Understanding financial instruments – A guide to IAS 32, IAS 39 and IFRS 7

Comprehensive guidance on all aspects of the requirements for financial instruments accounting. Detailed explanations illustrated through worked examples and extracts from company reports.

International Financial Reporting Standards

Pocket guide – 2008

This pocket guide provides a summary of the recognition and measurement requirements of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) issued up to March 2008. It does not address most disclosure requirements. Detailed guidance on disclosure requirements can be found in the PwC publication 'IFRS Disclosure checklist'.

The information in this guide is arranged in six sections:

- Accounting rules and principles.
- Income statement and related notes.
- Balance sheet and related notes.
- Consolidated and separate financial statements.
- Other subjects.
- Industry-specific topics.

More detailed guidance and information on these topics can be found in the 'IFRS Manual of Accounting 2008' and other publications from PricewaterhouseCoopers. A list of all IFRS publications is provided on the inside front and back covers.

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Accounting rules and principles

1 Introduction

Major changes have taken place recently in financial reporting. There have been various trends (such as the emergence of narrative reporting, including 'management commentary'), but the most important change is convergence around IFRS.

'National GAAP' is becoming rare. In many countries it is being supplemented or replaced by the use of IFRS. The extent and manner of this varies from country to country. In some parts of the world, such as parts of Africa and the Caribbean, IFRS has become the national GAAP. In some cases (for example, Australia and Hong Kong), IFRS has been adapted so the result is not pure IFRS. In other cases, such as in the EU, national GAAP remains, but EU-endorsed IFRS has been mandated for the listed sector and permitted elsewhere. In the UK and Ireland, national GAAP is converging to IFRS so that it may in due course become the same as IFRS. Most of the rest of the EU member states have adopted IFRS for the listed sector but have little or no plan to converge national GAAP with IFRS. The US is engaged in a significant programme of work with the IASB to converge IFRS and US GAAP. This programme is influencing the way in which IFRS is being developed for the rest of the world. IFRS is likely to be permitted in the US itself in due course.

2 Accounting principles and applicability of IFRS

The IASB has the authority to set IFRS and to approve interpretations of those standards.

IFRSs are intended to be applied by profit-oriented entities. These entities financial statements give information about performance, position and cash flow that is useful to a range of users in making economic decisions. These users include shareholders, creditors, employees and the general public. A complete set of financial statements includes a:

- Balance sheet.
- Income statement.
- Statement showing either all changes in equity or changes in equity other than those arising from capital transactions with owners and distributions to owners.
- Cash flow statement.
- List of accounting policies.
- Notes to the financial statements.

The concepts underlying accounting practices under IFRS are set out in the IASB's 'Framework for the preparation and presentation of financial statements'.

3 First-time adoption of IFRS – IFRS 1

An entity moving for the first time from national GAAP to IFRS should apply these requirements. The basic requirement is full retrospective application of all IFRSs effective at the reporting date for an entity's first IFRS financial statements. However, there are a number of exemptions and four exceptions to the requirement for retrospective application.

The exemptions cover standards for which the IASB considers that retrospective application could prove to be too difficult or could result in a cost likely to exceed any benefits to users. The exemptions are optional. Any, all or none of the exemptions may be applied.

The exemptions relate to:

- Business combinations.
- Fair value or revaluation as deemed cost for property, plant and equipment and other assets.
- Employee benefits.
- Cumulative translation differences.
- Compound financial instruments.
- Assets and liabilities of subsidiaries.
- Associates and joint ventures.
- Designation of previously recognised financial instruments.
- Share-based payment transactions.
- Insurance contracts.
- Decommissioning liabilities.
- Arrangements containing leases.
- Fair value measurement of no-active market financial instruments at initial recognition.
- Service concession arrangements.
- Borrowing costs.

IFRS 1 also grants exemptions from the requirement to present comparative information for financial instruments and insurance contracts, and for exploration for and evaluation of mineral resources. Certain of these exemptions apply only where an entity adopts IFRS before 1 January 2006.

Accounting rules and principles

The exceptions cover areas in which retrospective application of the requirements of IFRS is considered inappropriate. The exceptions are mandatory, not optional.

The exceptions relate to:

- Derecognition of financial assets and financial liabilities.
- Hedge accounting.
- Estimates.
- Non-current assets classified as held for sale and discontinued operations.

Comparative information is prepared and presented on the basis of IFRS. Almost all adjustments arising from the first-time application of IFRS are against opening retained earnings of the first period that is presented on an IFRS basis.

Certain reconciliations from previous GAAP to IFRS are also required.

4 Presentation of financial statements – IAS 1

This overview is based on the 2005 version of IAS 1, 'Presentation of financial statements'. This is still available for 2007 and 2008 financial statements. Revised requirements on presentation in IAS 1 (revised) apply from 2009.

The objective of financial statements is to provide information that is useful in making economic decisions. The objective of IAS 1 is to ensure comparability of presentation of that information with the entity's financial statements of previous periods and with the financial statements of other entities.

Financial statements are prepared on a going-concern basis, unless management either intends to liquidate the entity or to cease trading, or has no realistic alternative but to do so. An entity prepares its financial statements, except for cash flow information, under the accruals basis of accounting.

A complete set of financial statements comprises a balance sheet, income statement, statement of changes in equity, cash flow statement and explanatory notes (including accounting policies).

There is no prescribed standard format for the financial statements. However, there are minimum disclosures to be made on the face of the financial statements as well as in the notes. The implementation guidance to IAS 1 contains illustrative examples of acceptable formats.

Financial statements should disclose corresponding information for the preceding period (comparatives), unless a standard or interpretation permits or requires otherwise.

Balance sheet

The balance sheet presents an entity's financial position at a specific point in time. Management may use its judgement regarding the form of presentation in many areas, such as the use of a vertical or a horizontal format, how detailed sub-classifications are to be presented and what information is to be disclosed on the face of the balance sheet or in the notes in addition to the minimum requirements.

Items to be presented on the face of the balance sheet

The following items, as a minimum, are presented on the face of the balance sheet:

- Assets – property, plant and equipment; investment property; intangible assets; financial assets; investments accounted for using the equity method; biological assets; deferred tax assets; current tax assets; inventories; trade and other receivables; and cash and cash equivalents.
- Equity – issued capital and reserves attributable to equity holders of the parent; and minority interest.
- Liabilities – deferred tax liabilities; current tax liabilities; financial liabilities; provisions; and trade and other payables.
- Assets and liabilities held for sale – the total of assets classified as held for sale and assets included in disposal groups classified as held for sale; and liabilities included in disposal groups classified as held for sale in accordance with IFRS 5, 'Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations'.

Current/non-current distinction

Current and non-current assets and current and non-current liabilities are presented as separate classifications on the face of the balance sheet, unless presentation based on liquidity provides information that is reliable and more relevant.

Income statement

The income statement presents an entity's financial performance. It shows all items of income and expense in relation to a specific period of time, except where these items are permitted or required to be presented in equity.

Items to be presented on the face of the income statement

The following items, as a minimum, are presented on the face of the income statement:

- Revenue.
- Finance costs.

- Share of the profit or loss of associates and joint ventures accounted for using the equity method.
- Tax expense.
- Post-tax profit or loss of discontinued operations aggregated with any post-tax gain or loss recognised on the measurement to fair value less costs to sell (or on the disposal) of the assets or disposal group(s) constituting the discontinued operation.
- Profit or loss for the period.

Profit or loss for the period is allocated on the face of the income statement to the amount attributable to minority interest and to the parent's equity holders.

Additional line items or sub-headings are presented on the face of the income statement when such presentation is relevant to an understanding of the entity's financial performance.

Material items

Where items of income and expense are material, their nature and amount is disclosed separately. Disclosure may be on the face of the income statement or in the notes. Such income/expenses may include items such as restructuring costs; write-downs of inventories or property, plant and equipment; litigation settlements; and gains or losses on disposals of non-current assets.

Extraordinary items

All items of income and expense are deemed to arise from an entity's ordinary activities. This categorisation is therefore prohibited.

Dividends

An entity discloses the amount of dividends recognised as distributions to equity holders during the period and the related amount per share. This disclosure may be given on the face of the income statement or statement of changes in equity or in the notes to the financial statements.

Statement of changes in equity

The following items are presented on the face of the statement of changes in equity:

- Profit or loss for the period; each of the items of income or expense recognised directly in equity and their total; total income/expense for the period (the sum of the first two items); and the effects of changes in accounting policies and corrections of material prior-period errors.
- Amounts of transactions with equity holders; the balance of each reserve; and retained earnings at the beginning and end of the period and the changes during the period.

A statement of changes in equity that comprises only the items listed in the first bullet point above is titled a statement of recognised income and expense (SORIE). If a SORIE is presented as a primary statement, the items in the second bullet point are disclosed in the notes to the financial statements. A primary statement that presents the items mentioned in both bullet points above is titled a statement of changes in equity (SOCE).

An entity cannot present both a SORIE and a SOCE as primary statements. When an entity uses the option in IAS 19, 'Employee benefits', to recognise all actuarial gains and losses directly in equity, a SORIE is presented as a primary statement.

Cash flow statement

Cash flow statements are addressed in section 30, 'Cash flow statements'.

Notes to the financial statements

The notes are an integral part of the financial statements. Notes provide additional information to the amounts disclosed on the face of the 'primary' statements. They include accounting policies and critical accounting estimates and judgements.

5 Accounting policies, accounting estimates and errors – IAS 8

Accounting policies

The accounting policies that an entity follows are often those required by IFRS that are relevant to the circumstances of the particular company. However, for some situations, standards are either silent or offer a choice. Management should select the appropriate accounting policies.

Management should use its judgement in developing and applying an accounting policy that results in information that meets the qualitative characteristics of relevance and reliability, including faithful representation, substance over form, neutrality, prudence and completeness. If there is no IFRS standard or guidance, management should consider the applicability of: the requirements and guidance in IFRS on similar and related issues; and then the definitions, recognition criteria and measurement concepts for assets, liabilities, income and expenses in the Framework. Management may also consider the most recent pronouncements of other standard-setting bodies, other accounting literature and accepted industry practices, where these do not conflict with IFRS.

Accounting policies should be applied consistently to similar transactions and events.

Changes in accounting policies

Changes in accounting policies made on adoption of a new standard are accounted for in accordance with the transitional provisions (if any) contained within that standard. If specific transitional provisions do not exist, a change in policy (whether required or voluntary) is accounted for retrospectively (that is, by restating comparative figures), unless this is impracticable.

Issue of new/revised standards

Standards are normally published well in advance of a required implementation date. In the intervening period, management should disclose the fact that a new standard has been issued but is not yet effective. They should also provide the known or reasonably estimable information relevant

to assessing the impact that the application of the standard might have on the entity's financial statements in the period of initial recognition.

Changes in accounting estimates

Management should recognise prospectively the changes in accounting estimates by including the effects in profit or loss in the period that is affected (the period of the change and future periods), except if the change in estimate gives rise to changes in assets, liabilities or equity. In this case, it is recognised by adjusting the carrying amount of the related asset, liability or equity in the period of the change.

Errors

Errors may arise from mistakes and oversights or misinterpretation of available information. Material prior-period errors are adjusted retrospectively (that is, by restating comparative figures), unless this is impracticable.

The error and effect of its correction on the financial statements is disclosed.

6 Financial instruments – IAS 32, IFRS 7 and IAS 39

Objectives and scope

Financial instruments are addressed in three standards: IAS 32, which deals with distinguishing debt from equity and with netting; IAS 39, which contains requirements for recognition and measurement; and IFRS 7, which deals with disclosures.

The objective of the three standards is to establish requirements for all aspects of accounting for financial instruments, including distinguishing debt from equity, netting, recognition, derecognition, measurement, hedge accounting and disclosure.

The scope of the standards is wide-ranging. The standards cover all types of financial instrument, including receivables, payables, investments in bonds and shares, borrowings and derivatives. They also apply to certain contracts to buy or sell non-financial assets (such as commodities) that can be net settled in cash or another financial instrument.

Nature and characteristics of financial instruments

Financial instruments include a wide range of assets and liabilities. They can mostly be exchanged for cash. They are recognised and measured according to IAS 39 requirements and are disclosed in accordance with IFRS 7.

Financial instruments represent contractual rights or obligations to receive or pay cash or other financial asset.

A financial asset is cash; a contractual right to receive cash or another financial asset; a contractual right to exchange financial assets or liabilities with another entity under conditions that are potentially favourable; or an equity instrument of another entity.

A financial liability is a contractual obligation to deliver cash or another financial asset or to exchange financial instruments with another entity under conditions that are potentially unfavourable.

Accounting rules and principles

An equity instrument is any contract that evidences a residual interest in the entity's assets after deducting all its liabilities.

A derivative is a financial instrument that derives its value from an underlying price or index, requires little or no initial investment and is settled at a future date. In some cases contracts to receive or deliver a company's own equity can also be derivatives.

Embedded derivatives in host contracts

Some financial instruments and other contracts combine, in a single contract, both a derivative element and a non-derivative element. The derivative part of the contract is referred to as an 'embedded derivative' and its effect is that some of the cash flows of the contract will vary in a similar way to a stand-alone derivative. For example, the principal amount of a bond may vary with changes in a stock market index. In this case, the embedded derivative is an equity derivative on the relevant stock market index.

Embedded derivatives that are not 'closely related' to the rest of the contract are separated and accounted for as if they were stand-alone derivatives (ie, measured at fair value, generally with changes in fair value recognised in profit or loss). An embedded derivative is not closely related if its economic characteristics and risks are different from those of the rest of the contract. IAS 39 sets out examples to help determine when this test is (and is not) met.

Analysing contracts for potential embedded derivatives and accounting for them is one of the more challenging aspects of IAS 39.

Classification of financial instruments

The way that financial instruments are classified under IAS 39 drives how they are subsequently measured and where changes in measurement are accounted for.

There are four classes of financial asset under IAS 39: available for sale, held to maturity, loans and receivables, and fair value through profit or loss. The factors taken into account in classifying financial assets include:

- The cashflows arising from the instrument – are they fixed or determinable? Does the instrument have a maturity date?
- Are the assets held for trading; does management intend to hold the instruments to maturity?
- Is the instrument a derivative or does it contain an embedded derivative?
- Is the instrument quoted on an active market?
- Has management designated the instrument into a particular classification at inception?

Financial liabilities are classified as fair value through profit or loss if they are so designated (subject to various conditions) or if they are held for trading. Otherwise they are classed as 'other liabilities'.

Financial assets and liabilities are measured either at fair value or at amortised cost, depending on this classification. Changes are taken to either the income statement or directly to equity.

Financial liabilities and equity

The classification of a financial instrument by the issuer as either a liability (debt) or equity can have a significant impact on an entity's reported earnings, its borrowing capacity, and debt-to-equity and other ratios that could affect the entity's debt covenants.

The substance of the contractual arrangements of a financial instrument, rather than its legal form, governs its classification. This means, for example, that since a preference share redeemable (puttable) by the holder is economically the same as a bond, it is accounted for in the same way as the bond. Therefore, the redeemable preference share is treated as a liability rather than equity, even though legally it is a share of the issuer.

The critical feature of debt is that under the terms of the instrument the issuer is, or can be, required to deliver either cash or another financial asset to the holder and cannot avoid this obligation. For example, a debenture, under which the issuer is required to make interest payments and redeem the debenture for cash, is a financial liability.

An instrument is classified as equity when it represents a residual interest in the issuer's assets after deducting all its liabilities. Ordinary shares or common stock, where all the payments are at the discretion of the issuer, are examples of equity of the issuer.

A special exception exists to the general principal of classification for certain subordinated redeemable (puttable) instruments that participate in the pro-rata net assets of the entity. Where specific criteria are met such instruments would be classified as equity of the issuer. The amendment to IAS 32 relating to puttable instruments is effective for annual periods beginning on or after 1 January 2009, with earlier application permitted.

Some instruments contain features of both debt and equity. For these instruments, an analysis of the terms of each instrument in light of the detailed classification requirements will be necessary. Such instruments, such as bonds that are convertible into a fixed number of equity shares either mandatorily or at the holder's option, must be split into debt and equity (being the option to convert) components.

A financial instrument, including a derivative, is not an equity instrument solely because it may result in the receipt or delivery of the entity's own equity instruments. The classification of contracts that will or may be settled in the entity's own equity instruments is dependent on whether there is variability in either the number of own equity delivered and/or variability in the amount of cash or other financial assets received, or whether both are fixed.

The treatment of interest, dividends, losses and gains in the income statement follows the classification of the related instrument. So, if a preference share is classified as debt, its coupon is shown as interest. But the dividend payments on an instrument that is treated as equity are shown as a distribution.

Recognition and derecognition

Recognition

Recognition issues for financial assets and financial liabilities tend to be straightforward. An entity recognises a financial asset or a financial liability at the time it becomes a party to a contract.

Derecognition

Derecognition is the term used for ceasing to recognise a financial asset or financial liability on an entity's balance sheet. The rules here are more complex.

Assets

An entity that holds a financial asset may raise finance using the asset as security for the finance, or as the primary source of cash flows from which to repay the finance. The derecognition requirements of IAS 39 determine whether the transaction is a sale of the financial assets (and, therefore, the entity ceases to recognise the assets) or whether finance secured on the assets has been raised (and the entity recognises a liability for any proceeds received). This evaluation might be straightforward. For example, it is clear with little or no analysis that a financial asset is derecognised in an unconditional transfer of it to an unconsolidated third party with no risks and rewards of the asset being retained. Conversely, it is clear that derecognition is not allowed where an asset has been transferred, but it is clear that substantially all the risks and rewards of the asset have been retained through the terms of the agreement. However, in many other cases, the analysis is more complex. Securitisation and debt factoring are examples of more complex transactions where derecognition will need careful consideration.

Liabilities

An entity may only cease to recognise (derecognise) a financial liability when it is extinguished – that is, when the obligation is discharged, cancelled or expired, or when the debtor is legally released from the liability by law or by the creditor agreeing to such a release.

Measurement of financial assets and liabilities

Under IAS 39, all financial instruments are measured initially at fair value. The fair value of a financial instrument is normally the transaction price — that is, the amount of the consideration given or received. However, in some circumstances, the transaction price may not be indicative of fair value. In that situation, an appropriate fair value is determined using data from current observable transactions in the same instrument or based on a valuation technique whose variables include only data from observable markets.

Accounting rules and principles

The measurement of financial instruments after initial recognition depends on their initial classification. All financial assets are measured at fair value except for loans and receivables, held-to-maturity assets and, in rare circumstances, unquoted equity instruments whose fair values cannot be measured reliably or derivatives linked to and which must be settled by the delivery of such unquoted equity instruments that cannot be measured reliably.

Loans and receivables and held-to-maturity financial assets are measured at amortised cost. The amortised cost of a financial asset or liability is measured using the 'effective interest method'.

Available-for-sale financial assets are measured at fair value with changes in fair value recognised in equity. For available-for-sale debt securities, interest is recognised in income using the 'effective interest method'. Available-for-sale equity securities dividends are recognised in income as the holder becomes entitled to them.

Derivatives (including separated embedded derivatives) are measured at fair value. All fair value gains and losses are recognised in profit or loss except where they qualify as hedging instruments in cash flow hedges.

Financial liabilities are measured at amortised cost using the effective interest method unless they are measured at fair value through profit or loss.

Financial assets and liabilities that are designated as hedged items may require further adjustments under the hedge accounting requirements.

All financial assets, except those measured at fair value through profit or loss, are subject to review for impairment. Therefore, where there is objective evidence that such a financial asset may be impaired, the impairment loss is calculated and recognised in profit or loss.

Hedge accounting

'Hedging' is the process of using a financial instrument (usually a derivative) to mitigate all or some of the risk of a hedged item. 'Hedge accounting' changes the timing of recognition of gains and losses on either the hedged item or the hedging instrument so that both are recognised in profit or loss in the same accounting period.

To qualify for hedge accounting, an entity (a) at the inception of the hedge, formally designates and documents a hedge relationship between a qualifying hedging instrument and a qualifying hedged item; and (b) both at inception and on an ongoing basis, demonstrates that the hedge is highly effective.

There are three types of hedge relationship:

- Fair value hedge: a hedge of the exposure to changes in the fair value of a recognised asset or liability, or a firm commitment.
- Cash flow hedge: a hedge of the exposure to variability in cash flows of a recognised asset or liability, a firm commitment or a highly probable forecast transaction.
- Net investment hedge: a hedge of the foreign currency risk on a net investment in a foreign operation.

For a fair value hedge, the hedged item is adjusted for the gain or loss attributable to the hedged risk. That element is included in the income statement where it will offset the gain or loss on the hedging instrument.

For a cash flow hedge, gains and losses on the hedging instrument, to the extent it is an effective hedge, are initially included in equity. They are reclassified to the profit or loss when the hedged item affects the income statement. If the hedged item is the forecast acquisition of a non-financial asset or liability, the entity may choose an accounting policy of adjusting the carrying amount of the non-financial asset or liability for the hedging gain or loss at acquisition.

Hedges of a net investment in a foreign operation are accounted for similarly to cash flow hedges.

Presentation and disclosure

There have been significant developments in risk management concepts and practices in recent years. New techniques have evolved for measuring and managing exposures to risks arising from financial instruments. The need for more relevant information and improved transparency about an entity's exposures arising from financial instruments and how those risks are managed has become greater. Financial statement users and other investors need such information to make more informed judgements about risks that

entities run from the use of financial instruments and their associated returns. However, the disclosures in IAS 30 (disclosure requirements for banks and similar financial institutions) and IAS 32 were no longer in keeping with such developments, and there was a need to revise and enhance the disclosure framework for risks arising from financial instruments. IFRS 7, 'Financial instruments: disclosures', was issued in August 2005 to address this need.

IFRS 7 sets out disclosure requirements that are intended to enable users to evaluate the significance of financial instruments for an entity's financial position and performance and to understand the nature and extent of risks arising from those financial instruments to which the entity is exposed.

IFRS 7 does not just apply to banks and financial institutions. All entities that have financial instruments are affected, even simple instruments such as borrowings, accounts payable and receivable, cash and investments.

7 Foreign currencies – IAS 21, IAS 29

Many entities do business with overseas suppliers or customers, or have overseas operations. This gives rise to two main accounting issues:

- Some transactions (for example, those with overseas suppliers or customers) may be denominated in foreign currencies. These transactions are expressed in the entity's own currency ('functional currency') for financial reporting purposes.
- An entity may have foreign operations – such as overseas subsidiaries, branches or associates – that maintain their accounting records in their local currency. Because it is not possible to combine transactions measured in different currencies, the foreign operation's results and financial position are translated into a single currency, namely that in which the group's consolidated financial statements are reported ('presentation currency').

The methods required for each of the above circumstances are summarised below.

Expressing foreign currency transactions in the entity's functional currency

A foreign currency transaction is expressed in the functional currency using the exchange rate at the transaction date. At the balance sheet date, foreign currency balances representing cash or amounts to be received or paid in cash ('monetary items') are reported using the exchange rate on that date. Exchange differences on such monetary items are recognised as income or expense for the period. Non-monetary balances that are not re-measured at fair value and are denominated in a foreign currency are expressed in the functional currency using the exchange rate at the transaction date. Where a non-monetary item is re-measured at fair value in the financial statements, the exchange rate at the date when fair value was determined is used.

Expressing foreign operations in the group's currency

The financial statements of a foreign operation are translated into the group's presentation currency as follows. The assets and liabilities are translated at the closing rate at the balance sheet date. The income statement is translated at exchange rates at the dates of the transactions or at the average rate if that approximates the actual rates. All resulting exchange differences are recognised as a separate component of equity.

The financial statements of a foreign operation that has the currency of a hyperinflationary economy as its functional currency are first restated in accordance with IAS 29, 'Financial reporting in hyperinflationary economies'. All components are then translated to the presentation currency at the closing rate at the balance sheet date.

8 Insurance contracts – IFRS 4

Insurance contracts are contracts where the insurer accepts significant insurance risk from another party (the policyholder) by agreeing to compensate the policyholder if the insured event adversely affects the policyholder. The risk in the contract must be insurance risk, which is any risk except for financial risk.

IFRS 4 applies to all issuers of insurance contracts whether or not the entity is legally an insurance company. It does not apply to accounting for insurance contracts by policyholders. Accounting for insurance contracts issued by insurance or financial services companies can be complex and differs from country to country.

Existing accounting policies

IFRS 4 is an interim standard pending completion of Phase 2 of the IASB's project on insurance contracts. It allows entities to continue with their existing accounting policies for insurance contracts if those policies meet certain minimum criteria. Accounting policies modelled on IAS 37, 'Provisions, contingent liabilities and contingent assets', are appropriate in cases where the insurer is not an insurance company and where there is no specific local GAAP for insurance contracts (or the local GAAP is directed at insurance companies).

Insurers can continue to measure their insurance contracts using local GAAP accounting policies. However, the amount of the insurance liability is subject to a liability adequacy test. This liability adequacy test considers current estimates of all contractual and related cash flows. If the liability adequacy test identifies that the insurance liability is inadequate, the entire deficiency is recognised in the income statement.

Disclosure

Disclosure is particularly important for information relating to insurance contracts, as insurers can continue to use local GAAP accounting policies. IFRS 4 has two main principles for disclosure; insurers should disclose:

- Information that identifies and explains the amounts in its financial statements arising from insurance contracts.
- Information that enables users of its financial statements to evaluate the nature and extent of risks arising from insurance contracts.

Income statement and related notes

9 Revenue – IAS 18, IAS 20 and IAS 11

Revenue is measured at the fair value of the consideration received or receivable. When the substance of a single transaction indicates that it includes separately identifiable components, revenue should be allocated to these components by reference to their fair values, and recognised for each component separately by applying the recognition criteria below. For example, when a product is sold with a subsequent service, revenue will be allocated initially to the product component and the service component, and recognised separately thereafter when the criteria for revenue recognition are met for each component.

Revenue arising from the sale of goods is recognised when an entity transfers the significant risks and rewards of ownership and gives up the managerial involvement usually associated with ownership and control, if it is probable that economic benefits will flow to the entity and the amount of revenue and costs can be measured reliably.

Revenue from the rendering of services is recognised when the outcome of the transaction can be estimated reliably, by reference to the stage of completion of the transaction at the balance sheet date, using requirements similar to those for construction contracts. The outcome of a transaction can be estimated reliably when the amount of revenue can be measured reliably, it is probable that economic benefits will flow to the entity, the stage of completion can be measured reliably and the costs incurred and costs to complete can be reliably measured.

Examples of transactions where the entity retains significant risks and rewards of ownership and revenue is not recognised are when :

- The entity retains an obligation for unsatisfactory performance not covered by normal warranty provisions.
- The receipt of revenue from a particular sale is contingent on the buyer in turn obtaining revenue from its sale of the goods.
- The buyer has the power to rescind the purchase for a reason specified in the sales contract.
- The entity is uncertain about the probability of return.

Income statement and related notes

Interest income is recognised using the effective interest rate method. Royalties are recognised on an accruals basis in accordance with the substance of the relevant agreement. Dividends are recognised when the shareholder's right to receive payment is established.

Government grants – IAS 20

Government grants are recognised when there is reasonable assurance that the entity will comply with the conditions related to them and that the grants will be received.

Grants related to income are recognised in the income statement over the periods necessary to match them with the related costs that they are intended to compensate. The timing of such recognition in the income statement will depend on the fulfilment of any conditions or obligations attaching to the grant.

Grants related to assets are either offset against the carrying amount of the relevant asset or presented as deferred income in the balance sheet. The income statement will be affected either by reduced depreciation charge or by deferred income being recognised as income systematically over the useful life of the related asset.

Construction contracts – IAS 11

A construction contract is a contract specifically negotiated for the construction of an asset, or combination of assets, including contracts for the rendering of services directly related to the construction of the asset (such as project managers and architects services). Typically such contracts are fixed price or cost plus contracts.

Revenue and expenses on construction contracts is recognised using the percentage-of-completion method. This means that revenue, expenses and, therefore, profit are recognised gradually as contract activity occurs. This is similar to the basis for recognising revenue in relation to services.

When the outcome of the contract cannot be estimated reliably, revenue is recognised only to the extent of costs incurred that it is probable will be recovered; contract costs are recognised as an expense as incurred. When it is probable that total contract costs will exceed total contract revenue, the expected loss is recognised as an expense immediately.

10 Segment reporting – IAS 14

All entities with listed equity or debt securities or that are in the process of obtaining a listing are required to disclose segment information under IAS 14, 'Segment reporting'. This continues to apply until the entity adopts the revised standard on segment reporting – IFRS 8, see 10A below. A two-tier approach (primary and secondary) to segment reporting is required and an entity should determine whether its primary segmentation is by business or geography; this is based on the dominant source of the entity's risks and returns. The secondary segment will be determined by default once the primary segment is determined.

Reportable segments are determined by identifying separate profiles of risks and returns and then using a threshold test. A reportable segment must earn the majority of its revenue from external customers and the segment must account for 10 per cent or more of total revenue (external or internal) or total profit or loss, or total assets. Additional segments are reported (even if they do not meet the threshold test) until at least 75 per cent of consolidated revenue is included in reportable segments.

The disclosures concentrate on the segments in the primary reporting format (either by business or geography); only limited information is presented in the secondary reporting format (either by business or geography).

Disclosures for reportable segments in the primary reporting format include, by segment: revenue (showing separately external revenue from internal), result, assets, liabilities, capital expenditure, depreciation and amortisation, the total amount of significant non-cash expenses and impairment losses.

Disclosures for reportable segments in the secondary reporting format include segment revenue, assets and capital expenditure. Segment result is not required to be shown for secondary segments.

Reconciliation is provided between the information disclosed for reportable segments and the totals shown in the financial statements.

10A Segment reporting – IFRS 8

The IASB issued IFRS 8, 'Operating segments', in November 2006 as part of convergence with US GAAP. IFRS 8 is similar to the US standard SFAS 131. It replaces IAS 14. It is effective for periods beginning on or after 1 January 2009, with earlier application permitted.

All entities with listed or quoted equity or debt instruments or that are in the process of obtaining a listing or quotation of debt or equity instruments in a public market are required to disclose segment information.

Operating segments are components of an entity, identified based on internal reports on each segment that are regularly used by the entity's chief operating decision-maker (CODM) to allocate resources to the segment and to assess its performance.

Operating segments are separately reported if they meet the definition of a reportable segment. A reportable segment is an operating segment or group of operating segments that exceed the quantitative thresholds set out in the standard. An entity may, however, disclose any additional operating segment if it chooses to do so.

All reportable segments are required to provide a measure of profit and assets in the format viewed by the CODM, as well as disclosure of the revenue from customers for each group of similar products and services, revenue by geography and dependence on major customers. Other detailed disclosures of performance and resources are required if the CODM reviews these amounts. A reconciliation of the totals of revenue, profit and loss, assets and other material items reviewed by the CODM to the primary financial statements is required.

11 Employee benefits – IAS 19

Employee benefits accounting – pensions in particular – is a complex subject. The liabilities in defined benefit pension plans are frequently material. They are long term and difficult to measure, and this gives rise to difficulty in measuring the cost attributable to each year.

Employee benefits are all forms of consideration given or promised by an entity in exchange for services rendered by its employees. These benefits include salary-related benefits (such as wages, salaries, profit-sharing, bonuses, and compensated absences such as paid holiday and long-service leave), termination benefits (such as severance and redundancy pay) and post-employment benefits (such as retirement benefit plans). Share-based payments are addressed in IFRS 2.

Post-employment benefits include pensions, post-employment life insurance and medical care. Pensions are provided to employees either through defined contribution plans or defined benefit plans.

Recognition and measurement for short-term benefits is straightforward, because actuarial assumptions are not required and the obligations are not discounted. However, long-term benefits, particularly post-employment benefits, give rise to more complicated measurement issues.

Defined contribution plans

Accounting for defined contribution plans is straightforward: the cost of defined contribution plans is the contribution payable by the employer for that accounting period.

Defined benefit plans

Accounting for defined benefit plans is complex because actuarial assumptions and valuation methods are required to measure the balance sheet obligation and the income statement expense. The expense recognised is not necessarily the contributions made in the period.

The amount recognised on the balance sheet is the defined benefit obligation less plan assets adjusted for actuarial gains and losses (see corridor approach below).

In order to calculate the defined benefit obligation, estimates (actuarial assumptions) about demographic variables (such as employee turnover and mortality) and financial variables (such as future increases in salaries and medical costs) are input into a valuation model. The benefit is then discounted to present value using the projected unit credit method. This normally requires the expertise of an actuary.

Where defined benefit plans are funded, the plan assets are measured at fair value using discounted cash flow estimates if market prices are not available. Plan assets are offset against the liability – that is, the net surplus or deficit is shown on the employer's balance sheet. Plan assets are tightly defined, and only assets that meet the definition of plan assets may be offset against the plan's defined benefit obligations.

The re-measurement at each balance sheet date of the plan assets and the defined benefit obligation gives rise to actuarial gains and losses. There are three permissible methods under IAS 19 for recognising actuarial gains and losses:

- Under the SORIE approach, actuarial gains and losses are recognised immediately in the statement of recognised income and expense.
- Under the corridor approach, any actuarial gains and losses that fall outside the higher of 10% of the present value of the defined benefit obligation or 10% of the fair value of the plan assets (if any) are amortised over no more than the remaining working life of the employees.
- Faster recognition, including immediate recognition in full in the income statement, is also allowed.

IAS 19 analyses the changes in the plan assets and liabilities into various components, the net total of which is recognised as an expense or income in the income statement. These components include:

- Current service cost. (The present value of the benefits earned by active employees in the current period.)
- Interest cost. (The unwinding of the discount on the defined benefit obligation.)

Income statement and related notes

- Expected return on any plan assets. (Expected interest, dividends and capital growth of plan assets.)
- Actuarial gains and losses, to the extent they are recognised in the income statement (see above).
- Past service costs. (The change in the present value of the plan liabilities relating to employee service in prior periods arising from changes to post-employment benefits.)

Past-service costs that arise on pension plan amendments are recognised as an expense on a straight-line basis over the average period until the benefits become vested. If the benefits are already vested, the past service cost is recognised as an expense immediately. Gains and losses on the curtailment or settlement of a defined benefit plan are recognised in the income statement when the curtailment or settlement occurs.

IFRIC 14, 'IAS 19 – The limit on a defined benefit asset, minimum funding requirements and their interaction', provides guidance on assessing the limit on the amount of a surplus that can be recognised as an asset. It also explains how the pension asset or liability may be affected by a statutory or contractual minimum funding requirement.

12 Share-based payment – IFRS 2

Share-based payment transactions are transactions in which entities receive goods or services as consideration for either equity instruments of the entity (or the entity's parent or another entity within the same group) ('equity-settled share-based payment') or for cash (or other assets), where the amount is based on the price or value of the entity's shares ('cash-settled share-based payment'). The most common application is to employee share schemes, such as share option schemes. However, entities sometimes also pay for other expenses such as professional fees, and for the purchase of assets, by means of share-based payment.

Under IFRS 2, 'Share-based payment', the accounting treatment is based on the fair value of the instruments. The accounting in this area can be difficult, due to the complex models that need to be used to calculate the fair value of options and also due to the variety and complexity of schemes. In addition, the standard requires extensive disclosures. The result generally is to reduce reported profits, especially in entities that use share-based payment extensively as part of their remuneration strategy.

All transactions involving share-based payment are recognised as expenses or assets, as appropriate, over any vesting period.

Equity-settled share-based payment transactions are measured at the grant date fair value for employee services; and, for non-employee transactions, at the fair value of the goods or services received at the date on which the entity recognises the goods or services. If the fair value of the goods or services cannot be estimated reliably – such as employee services or circumstances in which the goods or services cannot be specifically identified – the entity uses the fair value of the equity instruments granted. Since the publication of IFRIC 8, 'Scope of IFRS 2', in January 2006, management needs to consider if there are any unidentifiable goods or services received or to be received by the entity, as these also have to be measured in accordance with IFRS 2.

Once the grant date fair value has been determined, equity-settled share-based payment transactions are not re-measured.

Income statement and related notes

The treatment is different for cash-settled share-based payment transactions: cash-settled awards are measured at the fair value of the liability. The liability is re-measured at each balance sheet date and at the date of settlement, with changes in fair value recognised in the income statement.

13 Taxation – IAS 12

Tax in financial statements comprises current tax and deferred tax.

Current tax expense for a period is based on the taxable and deductible amounts that will be shown on the tax return for the current year. An entity recognises a liability in the balance sheet in respect of current tax expense for the current and prior periods to the extent unpaid. It recognises an asset if current tax has been overpaid.

Tax payable based on taxable profit seldom matches the tax expense that might be expected based on pre-tax accounting profit. The mismatch can occur because IFRS recognition criteria for items of income and expense are different from the treatment of items under tax law.

Deferred tax seeks to deal with this mismatch. It is based on the temporary differences between the tax base of an asset or liability and its carrying amount in the financial statements. For example, if an investment property is revalued upwards but not sold, the revaluation creates a temporary difference (the carrying amount of the asset in the financial statements is greater than the tax base of the asset) and the tax consequence is a deferred tax liability.

Deferred tax is provided in full for all temporary differences arising between the tax bases of assets and liabilities and their carrying amounts in the financial statements, except when the temporary difference arises from:

- Initial recognition of goodwill (for deferred tax liabilities only).
- Initial recognition of an asset or liability in a transaction that is not a business combination and that affects neither accounting profit nor taxable profit.
- Investments in subsidiaries, branches, associates and joint ventures, but only where certain criteria apply.

Current and deferred tax is recognised in the income statement, unless the tax arises from a business combination or a transaction or event that is recognised directly in equity in the same or different period. The tax consequences that accompany, for example, a change in tax rates or tax laws, a reassessment of the recoverability of deferred tax assets or a change in the expected manner of recovery of an asset, are recognised in the income statement, except to the extent that they relate to items previously charged or credited to equity.

Deferred tax assets and liabilities are measured at the tax rates that are expected to apply to the period when the asset is realised or the liability is settled, based on tax rates (and tax laws) that have been enacted or substantively enacted by the balance sheet date. Discounting of deferred tax assets and liabilities is not permitted.

The measurement of deferred tax liabilities and deferred tax assets reflects the tax consequences that would follow from the manner in which the entity expects, at the balance sheet date, to recover or settle the carrying amount of its assets and liabilities. The expected manner of recovery for land with an unlimited life is always through sale. For other assets, the manner in which management expect to recover the asset (that is, through use or through sale or through a combination of both) should be considered at each balance sheet date.

Management only recognises a deferred tax asset for deductible temporary differences to the extent that it is probable that taxable profit will be available against which the deductible temporary difference can be utilised. This also applies to deferred tax assets for unused tax losses carried forward.

14 Earnings per share – IAS 33

Earnings per share (EPS) is a ratio that is widely used by financial analysts, investors and others to gauge a company's profitability and to value its shares. EPS is normally calculated in the context of common shares of the entity. Earnings attributable to common shareholders is, therefore, determined by deducting from net income the earnings attributable to holders of more senior equity instruments.

EPS, when presented on the face of the income statement, assists the ordinary shareholders to gauge the company's current net earnings and changes in its net earnings from period to period.

All entities whose ordinary shares or potential ordinary shares are publicly traded, or that are in the process of issuing such shares or potential shares in public markets, are required to disclose with equal prominence on the face of the income statement both basic and diluted EPS.

Basic EPS is calculated by dividing the profit or loss for the period attributable to the equity holders of the parent by the weighted average number of ordinary shares outstanding (including adjustments for bonus and rights issues).

Diluted EPS is calculated by adjusting the profit or loss and the weighted average number of ordinary shares by taking into account the conversion of any dilutive potential ordinary shares. Potential ordinary shares are those financial instruments or contracts that may result in issuing ordinary shares such as convertible bonds and options (including employee stock options).

Basic and diluted EPS for both continuing and total operations are presented on the face of the income statement with equal prominence, for each class of ordinary shares. Separate EPS figures for discontinued operations are disclosed either on the face of the income statement or in the notes.

Balance sheet and related notes

15 Intangible fixed assets – IAS 38

Increasingly, an entity's ability to generate profits comes from factors that are additional to its tangible assets such as patents, brands, customer relationships and software. These intangible assets have seldom been separately recognised in business combinations in the past or have been subsumed in goodwill. There has been an increasing focus on the identification, recognition and measurement of these intangible assets in a business combination. The requirements for the recognition and measurements of separately acquired and internally generated intangible assets have also come in for more attention.

An intangible asset is an identifiable non-monetary asset without physical substance. The identifiable criterion is met when the intangible asset is separable (that is, when it can be sold, transferred or licensed), or where it arises from contractual or other legal rights.

Separately acquired intangible assets

Separately acquired intangible assets are recognised initially at cost. Cost comprises the purchase price, including import duties and non-refundable purchase taxes and any directly attributable costs of preparing the asset for its intended use. The purchase price of a separately acquired intangible asset incorporates assumptions about the probable economic future benefits that may be generated by the asset.

Internally generated intangible assets

The process of generating an intangible asset is divided into a research phase and a development phase. No intangible assets arising from the research phase may be recognised. Intangible assets arising from the development phase are recognised when the entity can demonstrate:

- Its technical feasibility.
- Its intention to complete the developments.

Balance sheet and related notes

- How the intangible asset will generate probable future economic benefits (for example, the existence of a market for the output of the intangible asset or for the intangible asset itself).
- The availability of resources to complete the development.
- Its ability to measure the attributable expenditure reliably.

Any expenditure written off during the research or development phase cannot subsequently be capitalised if the project meets the criteria for recognition at a later date.

The costs relating to many internally generated intangible items cannot be capitalised and are expensed as incurred. This includes research, start-up and advertising costs. Expenditure on internally generated brands, mastheads, customer lists, publishing titles and goodwill are further not recognised as intangible assets.

Intangible assets acquired in a business combination

Intangible assets acquired in a business combination are recognised separately if they can be reliably measured, regardless of whether they have been previously recognised in the acquiree's financial statements.

Subsequent measurement

Intangible assets are amortised unless they have an indefinite useful life. Amortisation is carried out on a systematic basis over the useful life of the intangible asset. An intangible asset has an indefinite useful life when, based on an analysis of all the relevant factors, there is no foreseeable limit to the period over which the asset is expected to generate net cash inflows for the entity.

Intangible assets with finite useful lives are considered for impairment when there is an indication that the asset has been impaired. Intangible assets with indefinite useful lives and intangible assets not yet in use should be tested annually for impairment and whenever there is an indication of impairment.

16 Property, plant and equipment – IAS 16

Property, plant and equipment is recognised when the cost of an asset can be reliably measured and it is probable that the entity will obtain future economic benefits from the asset.

Property, plant and equipment is measured initially at cost. Cost includes the fair value of the consideration given to acquire the asset (net of discounts and rebates) and any directly attributable cost of bringing the asset to working condition for its intended use (inclusive of import duties and non-refundable purchase taxes).

Directly attributable costs include the cost of site preparation, delivery, installation costs, relevant professional fees and the estimated cost of dismantling and removing the asset and restoring the site (to the extent that such a cost is recognised as a provision).

Subsequent expenditure relating to an item of property, plant and equipment is capitalised if it meets the recognition criteria.

Property, plant and equipment may have parts with different useful lives. Depreciation is calculated based on each individual part's life. In case of replacement of one part, the new part is capitalised to the extent that it meets the recognition criteria of an asset, and the carrying amount of the parts replaced is derecognised.

The cost of a major inspection or overhaul of an item occurring at regular intervals over the useful life of the item is capitalised to the extent that it meets the recognition criteria of an asset. The carrying amount of the parts replaced are derecognised.

Borrowing costs

Entities currently have a policy choice under IAS 23 and can choose to capitalise or expense borrowing costs incurred that are directly attributable to the acquisition, production or construction of a qualifying asset.

However, the IASB has revised IAS 23 for accounting periods beginning on or after 1 January 2009, with earlier application permitted. The revised IAS 23 removes the option to expense borrowing costs and requires borrowing costs directly attributable to the acquisition, construction or production of a qualifying asset to be capitalised.

17 Investment property – IAS 40

Investment property is property (land or a building, or part of a building or both) held by an entity to earn rentals and/or for capital appreciation. Any other properties are accounted for as property, plant and equipment (PPE) in accordance with IAS 16, 'Property, plant and equipment', if they are held for use in the production or supply of goods or services; or as inventory in accordance with IAS 2, 'Inventories', if they are held for sale in the ordinary course of business.

Owner-occupied property, property being constructed on behalf of third parties, property that is leased to a third party under a finance lease and property that is being constructed or developed for future use as investment property do not meet the definition of investment property.

For an investment property to be recognised as such, it should meet the recognition criteria of an asset. Initial measurement is the fair value of its purchase consideration plus any directly attributable costs. Subsequent to initial measurement, an entity may choose as its accounting policy to carry investment properties at fair value or cost. The policy chosen is applied consistently to all the investment properties that the entity owns.

The fair value model requires measurement of all of the investment properties at fair value. Fair value is the price at which the property could be exchanged between knowledgeable, willing parties in an arm's length transaction. Changes in fair value are recognised in the income statement in the period in which they arise.

The cost model requires investment properties to be carried at cost less accumulated depreciation and any accumulated impairment losses – that is, treated consistently with the treatment of PPE. The fair values of these properties are disclosed in the notes.

18 Impairment of assets – IAS 36

Nearly all assets – current and non-current – are subject to an impairment test to ensure that they are not overstated on balance sheets.

The basic principle of impairment is that an asset may not be carried on the balance sheet above its recoverable amount. Recoverable amount is defined as the higher of the asset's fair value less costs to sell and its value in use. Fair value less costs to sell is the amount obtainable from a sale of an asset in an arm's length transaction between knowledgeable, willing parties, less costs of disposal. Value in use requires management to estimate the future cash flows to be derived from the asset and discount them using a pre-tax market rate that reflects current assessments of the time value of money and the risks specific to the asset.

All assets subject to the impairment guidance are tested for impairment where there is an indication that the asset may be impaired. Certain assets (goodwill, indefinite lived intangible assets and intangible assets that are not yet available for use) are also tested for impairment annually even if there is no impairment indicator.

When considering whether an asset is impaired both external indicators (for example, significant adverse changes in the technological, market, economic or legal environment or increases in market interest rates) and internal indicators (for example, evidence of obsolescence or physical damage of an asset or evidence from internal reporting that the economic performance of an asset is, or will be, worse than expected) are both considered.

Recoverable amount is calculated at the individual asset level. However, an asset seldom generates cash flows independently of other assets and most assets are tested for impairment in groups of assets described as cash generating units (CGUs).

A cash-generating unit is the smallest identifiable group of assets that generates inflows that are largely independent from the cash flows from other CGUs.

The carrying value of an asset is compared to the recoverable amount (being the higher of value in use or fair value less costs to sell). An asset or CGU is impaired when its carrying amount exceeds its recoverable amount. Any impairment is allocated to the asset or assets of the CGU with the impairment loss recognised in the income statement.

19 Lease accounting – IAS 17

A lease gives one party (the lessee) the right to use an asset over an agreed period of time, in return for payment to the lessor. Leasing is an important source of medium- and long-term financing. Accounting for leases can have a significant impact on lessees' and lessors' financial statements.

Leases are classified as finance or operating leases at inception, depending on whether substantially all the risks and rewards of ownership transfer to the lessee. Under a finance lease, the lessee has substantially all of the risks and reward of ownership. All other leases are operating leases. Leases of land and buildings are considered separately under IFRS.

Under a finance lease, the lessee recognises an asset under a finance lease and a corresponding obligation. The lessee depreciates the asset.

Conversely the lessor recognises the leased asset as a receivable. The receivable is measured at the 'net investment' in the lease – the minimum lease payments receivable, discounted at the internal rate of return of the lease, plus the unguaranteed residual which accrues to the lessor.

Under an operating lease, the lessee does not recognise an asset. The lessor continues to recognise the leased asset and depreciates it. Normally, the minimum lease rentals are charged to the income statement of the lessee and credited to that of the lessor on a straight-line basis over the term of the lease.

Linked transactions with the legal form of a lease are accounted for on the basis of their substance rather than legal form. For example, in some cases a contract in the form of a lease is entered into primarily to achieve a particular tax result and not to convey the right to use an asset. Where specific conditions are met, these arrangements are outside the scope of IAS 17.

Equally, some transactions that do not have the legal form of a lease but that convey the right to use a specific asset are, in substance, leases and are accounted for under IAS 17. For example, a contract to purchase all of the output from a specific machine may be a lease.

20 Inventories – IAS 2

Inventories are initially recognised at cost. Cost of inventories includes import duties, non-refundable taxes, transport and handling costs and any other directly attributable costs less trade discounts, rebates and similar items.

Inventories are valued at the lower of cost and net realisable value (NRV). NRV is the estimated selling price in the ordinary course of business, less the estimated costs of completion and estimated selling expenses.

IAS 2 requires the cost for items that are not interchangeable or that have been segregated for specific contracts to be determined on an individual item basis. The cost of other items of inventory used is assigned by using either the first-in, first-out (FIFO) or weighted average cost formula. Last-in, first-out (LIFO) is not permitted. An entity uses the same cost formula for all inventories that have a similar nature and use to the entity. Where inventories have a different nature or use, different cost formula may be justified. The cost formula used is applied on a consistent basis from period to period.

21 Provisions and contingencies – IAS 37

A liability is a 'present obligation of the entity arising from past events, the settlement of which is expected to result in an outflow from the entity of resources embodying economic benefits'. A provision falls within the category of liabilities and is defined as 'a liability of uncertain timing or amount'.

Recognition and initial measurement

A provision is recognised when: the entity has a present obligation to transfer economic benefits as a result of past events; it is probable (more likely than not) that such a transfer will be required to settle the obligation; and a reliable estimate of the amount of the obligation can be made.

The amount recognised as a provision should be the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the obligation at the balance sheet date, measured at the expected cash flows discounted for the time value of money. Provisions are not recognised for future operating losses.

A present obligation arises from an obligating event and may take the form of either a legal obligation or a constructive obligation. An obligating event leaves the entity no realistic alternative to settling the obligation. If the entity can avoid the future expenditure by its future actions, it has no present obligation, and no provision is required. For example, an entity cannot recognise a provision based solely on the intent to incur expenditure at some future date or the expectation of future operating losses (unless they relate to an onerous contract).

An obligation does not generally have to take the form of a 'legal' obligation before a provision is recognised. An entity may have an established pattern of past practice that indicates to other parties that it will accept certain responsibilities and as a result has created a valid expectation on the part of those other parties that it will discharge those responsibilities (that is, the entity is under a constructive obligation).

If an entity has an onerous contract (the unavoidable costs of meeting the obligations under the contract exceed the economic benefits expected to be received under it), the present obligation under the contract is recognised as a provision. However, impairments of any related assets are recognised before making a provision.

Restructuring provisions

There are specific requirements for restructuring provisions. A provision is recognised when there is: (a) a detailed formal plan identifying the main features of the restructuring; and (b) a valid expectation in those affected that the entity will carry out the restructuring by starting to implement the plan or by announcing its main features to those affected.

A restructuring plan does not create a present obligation at the balance sheet date if it is announced after that date, even if it is announced before the financial statements are approved. No obligation arises for the sale of an operation until the entity is committed to the sale (that is, there is a binding sale agreement).

The provision only includes incremental costs necessarily resulting from the restructuring and not those associated with the entity's ongoing activities. Any expected gains on the sale of assets are not considered in measuring a restructuring provision.

Reimbursements

An obligation and any anticipated recovery are presented separately as a liability and an asset respectively; however, an asset can only be recognised if it is virtually certain that settlement of the obligation will result in a reimbursement, and the amount recognised for the reimbursement should not exceed the amount of the provision. The amount of any expected reimbursement is disclosed. Net presentation is permitted only in the income statement.

Subsequent measurement

Management performs an exercise at each balance sheet date to identify the best estimate of the expenditure required to settle the present obligation at the balance sheet date, discounted at an appropriate rate. The increase in provision due to the passage of time is recognised as interest expense.

Contingent liabilities

Contingent liabilities are possible obligations whose existence will be confirmed only on the occurrence or non-occurrence of uncertain future events outside the entity's control, or present obligations that are not recognised because: (a) it is not probable that an outflow of economic benefits will be required to settle the obligation; or (b) the amount cannot be measured reliably.

Contingent liabilities are not recognised but are disclosed and described in the notes to the financial statements, including an estimate of their potential financial effect and uncertainties relating to the amount or timing of any outflow, unless the possibility of settlement is remote.

Contingent assets

Contingent assets are possible assets whose existence will be confirmed only on the occurrence or non-occurrence of uncertain future events outside the entity's control. Contingent assets are not recognised. When the realisation of income is virtually certain, the related asset is not a contingent asset, and it is recognised as an asset.

Contingent assets are disclosed and described in the notes to the financial statements, including an estimate of their potential financial effect if the inflow of economic benefits is probable.

22 Post balance sheet events and financial commitments – IAS 10

It is not generally practicable for preparers to finalise financial statements without a period of time elapsing between the balance sheet date and the date on which the financial statements are authorised for issue. The question therefore arises as to the extent to which events occurring between the balance sheet date and the date of approval (that is, 'post balance sheet events') should be reflected in the financial statements.

Events after the balance sheet date are either adjusting events or non-adjusting events. Adjusting events provide further evidence of conditions that existed at the balance sheet date – for example, determining after the year end the consideration for assets sold before the year end. Non-adjusting events relate to conditions that arose after the balance sheet date – for example, announcing a plan to discontinue an operation after the year end.

The carrying amounts of assets and liabilities at the balance sheet date are adjusted only for adjusting events or events that indicate that the going-concern assumption in relation to the whole entity is not appropriate. Significant non-adjusting post balance sheet events, such as the issue of shares or major business combinations, are disclosed.

Dividends proposed or declared after the balance sheet date but before the financial statements have been authorised for issue are not recognised as a liability at the balance sheet date. Details of these dividends are, however, disclosed.

An entity discloses the date on which the financial statements were authorised for issue and the persons authorising the issue and, where necessary, the fact that the owners or other persons have the ability to amend the financial statements after issue.

23 Share capital and reserves

Equity, along with assets and liabilities, is one of the three elements used to measure an entity's financial position. Equity is defined in the Framework as the residual interest in the entity's assets after deducting all its liabilities. Under IFRS, the term 'equity' is often used to encompass an entity's equity instruments and reserves. Equity is given various descriptions in the financial statements. Corporate entities may refer to it as owners' equity, shareholders' equity, capital and reserves, shareholders' funds and proprietorship. Equity includes various components with different characteristics.

Determining what constitutes an equity instrument for the purpose of IFRS and how it should be accounted for falls within the scope of the financial instrument standard IAS 32, 'Financial instruments: presentation'.

Under IFRS, different classes of share capital may be treated as either debt or equity, or a compound instrument with both debt and equity components. Equity instruments (for example, issued, non-redeemable ordinary shares) are generally recorded at the proceeds of issue net of transaction costs. Equity instruments are not re-measured after initial recognition.

Reserves include retained earnings, together with fair value reserves, hedging reserves, asset revaluation reserves and foreign currency translation reserves and other statutory reserves.

Treasury shares

Treasury shares are deducted from equity. No gain or loss is recognised in profit or loss on the purchase, sale, issue or cancellation of an entity's own equity instruments.

Minority interests

Minority interests in consolidated financial statements are presented as a component of equity, separately from the parent shareholders' equity.

Disclosures

IAS 1, 'Presentation of financial statements', (see section 4), requires various disclosures. These include the total issued share capital and reserves, presentation of a statement of changes in equity, capital management policies and dividend information. IAS 1 has been revised and is required to be applied for accounting periods starting from 1 January 2009, with earlier application permitted. The key differences that affect share capital and reserves relate to the content of the statement of changes in equity.

Consolidated and separate financial statements

24 Consolidated and separate financial statements – IAS 27

IFRS requires consolidated financial statements to be prepared in respect of a group, subject to certain exceptions.

A subsidiary is an entity that is controlled by the parent. All subsidiaries are consolidated. Control is the power to govern the financial and operating policies of an entity so as to obtain benefits from its activities. It is presumed to exist when the investor holds more than 50 per cent of the investee's voting power; this presumption may be rebutted if there is clear evidence to the contrary. Control may also exist where less than 50 per cent of the investee's voting power is held and the parent has the power to control through, for example, control of the board of directors.

Consolidation of a subsidiary takes place from the date of acquisition, which is the date on which control of the net assets and operations of the acquiree is effectively transferred to the acquirer. A consolidation is prepared to show the effect as if the parent and all the subsidiaries were one entity. Transactions within the group (for example, sales from one subsidiary to another) are therefore eliminated.

An entity with one or more subsidiaries (a parent) presents consolidated financial statements unless all the following conditions are met:

- It is itself a subsidiary (subject to no objection from any shareholder).
- Its debt or equity are not publicly traded.
- It is not in the process of issuing securities to the public.
- The ultimate or intermediate parent of the entity publishes IFRS consolidated financial statements.

There are no exemptions if the group is small or if certain subsidiaries are in a different line of business.

From the date of acquisition, the parent (the acquirer) incorporates into the consolidated income statement the financial performance of the acquiree and recognises in the consolidated balance sheet the acquired assets and liabilities (at fair value), including any goodwill arising on the acquisition. The exception is for non-current assets that are classified as held for sale in accordance with IFRS 5. These are recognised at fair value less cost to sell.

In the separate (non-consolidated) financial statements of a parent entity, the investments in subsidiaries are carried at cost or as financial assets in accordance with IAS 39.

Special purpose entities

A special purpose entity (SPE) is an entity created to accomplish a narrow, well-defined objective. It may operate in a pre-determined way so that no other party has explicit decision-making authority over its activities after formation. An entity consolidates an SPE when the substance of the relationship between the entity and the SPE indicates that the SPE is controlled by the entity. Control may arise at the outset through the pre-determination of the activities of the SPE or otherwise. An entity may be deemed to control an SPE if it is exposed to the majority of risks and rewards incidental to its activities or its assets.

25 Business combinations – IFRS 3

A business combination is the bringing together of separate entities or businesses into one reporting entity. A business combination may be structured in a variety of ways for tax, legal or other reasons. In all business combinations, an acquirer has to be identified for accounting purposes. The acquirer will be the entity that has obtained control of one or more other entities or businesses (the acquiree). Control is defined as the power to govern the financial and operating policies of an entity or business so as to obtain benefits from its activities. A number of factors may influence which entity has control. These include equity shareholding, control of the board and control agreements. If an entity owns more than 50 per cent of the equity shareholding in another entity, there is a presumption of control.

The acquirer measures the cost of the combination at the acquisition date (the date on which it obtains control over the net assets of the acquiree). The cost of the combination includes cash and cash equivalents and the fair value of any non-cash consideration given, plus any costs directly attributable to the acquisition. Any shares issued as part of the consideration are fair valued. The market value of shares is used as evidence of the fair value. If any of the consideration is deferred, it is discounted to reflect its present value at the acquisition date.

A portion of the consideration may be contingent on the outcome of future events or the acquired entity's performance ('contingent consideration'). Contingent consideration that can be reliably estimated and where payment is probable is recorded in full at the date of the business combination. Contingent consideration is adjusted to reflect the actual outcome.

Once the cost of consideration is established, it is compared to the fair value of the acquiree's identifiable assets (including intangible assets not previously recognised), liabilities and contingent liabilities. The acquiree's assets and liabilities are fair valued (that is, their value is determined by reference to an arm's length transaction – the intention of the acquirer is not relevant). If the acquisition is for less than 100 per cent of the acquiree, there is a minority interest (also called 'non-controlling interest'). The minority interest represents the portion of the fair value of the net identifiable assets of an entity not owned by the entity that controls it.

The difference between the cost of acquisition and the fair value of the identifiable assets and liabilities represents goodwill. After recognising all intangibles, the goodwill balance represents synergies and certain unrecognised intangibles such as the entity's workforce. Goodwill is recognised as an intangible asset and tested annually for impairment. If the fair value of the assets and liabilities acquired exceeds the cost of acquisition, this difference is taken to the income statement. This would be expected to occur only in rare circumstances – for example, where there has been a bargain purchase.

The above summarises the current requirements. A new standard – IFRS 3 (revised) – has been published and comes into effect from July 2009.

26 Disposals of subsidiaries, businesses and non-current assets – IFRS 5

When any disposal occurs or is planned, consideration should be given to IFRS 5, 'Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations'. This standard applies to non-current assets (or disposal groups) whose value will be recovered principally through sale rather than through continuing use. It does not apply to assets that are being scrapped, wound down or abandoned. A disposal group is a group of assets to be disposed of, by sale or otherwise, together as a group in a single transaction and liabilities directly associated with those assets that will be transferred in the transaction.

Where the non-current asset (or disposal group) is available for its immediate sale in its present condition and its sale is highly probable, it should be classified as 'held for sale'. A sale is 'highly probable' where: there is evidence of management commitment; there is an active programme to locate a buyer and complete the plan; the asset is actively marketed for sale at a reasonable price; and the sale will normally be completed within 12 months from the date of classification.

Assets (or disposal groups) classified as held for sale are:

- Carried at the lower of the carrying amount and fair value less costs to sell.
- Not depreciated or amortised.
- Presented separately on the face of the balance sheet.

A discontinued operation is a component of an entity that represents a separate major line of business or geographical area that can be distinguished operationally and financially and that the entity has disposed of or classified as 'held for sale'. It could also be a subsidiary acquired exclusively for resale.

An operation is classified as discontinued at the date on which the operation meets the criteria to be classified as held for sale or when the entity has disposed of the operation. Where the criteria for that classification are not met until after the balance sheet date, there is no retrospective classification.

Discontinued operations are presented separately in the income statement and the cash flow statement. There are additional disclosure requirements in relation to discontinued operations.

The date of disposal of a subsidiary is the date on which control passes. The consolidated income statement includes the results of a subsidiary up to the date of disposal and the gain or loss on disposal is the difference between (a) the carrying amount of the net assets plus any attributable goodwill and exchange/available for sale amounts held in equity, and (b) the proceeds of sale.

27 Associates – IAS 28

An associate is an entity in which the investor has significant influence, but which is neither a subsidiary nor a joint venture of the investor. Significant influence is the power to participate in the financial and operating policy decisions of the investee, but not to control those policies. It is presumed to exist when the investor holds at least 20 per cent of the investee's voting power and not to exist when less than 20 per cent is held; these presumptions may be rebutted if there is clear evidence to the contrary.

Associates are accounted for using the equity method unless they meet the criteria to be classified as 'held for sale' under IFRS 5, 'Non-current assets held for sale and discontinued operations'. Under the equity method, the investment in the associate is initially carried at cost and is increased or decreased to recognise the investor's share of the profit or loss of the associate after the date of acquisition.

Investments in associates are classified as non-current assets and presented as one line item in the balance sheet (inclusive of goodwill arising on acquisition). Investments in associates are subject to the impairment requirements under IAS 36, 'Impairment of assets', if there are impairment indicators under IAS 39, 'Financial instruments: recognition and measurement'.

If an investor's share of its associate's losses exceeds the carrying amount of the investment, the carrying amount of the investment is reduced to nil, and recognition of further losses are discontinued, unless the investor has an obligation to fund the associate or the investor has guaranteed to support the associate.

In the separate (non-consolidated) financial statements of the investor, the investments in associates are carried at cost or as financial assets in accordance with IAS 39.

28 Joint ventures – IAS 31

A joint venture is a contractual arrangement whereby two or more parties (the venturers) undertake an economic activity that is subject to joint control. Joint control is defined as the contractually agreed sharing of control of an economic activity.

Joint ventures fall into three categories: jointly controlled entities, jointly controlled operations and jointly controlled assets. The accounting treatment depends on the type of joint venture.

A jointly controlled entity involves the establishment of a separate entity, which may be, for example, a corporation or partnership. Under IAS 31, jointly controlled entities are accounted for using either proportionate consolidation or equity accounting. However, in September 2007 the IASB issued ED 9, 'Joint arrangements', which proposes to remove the option for proportionate consolidation. This would remove the main difference between IAS 31 and US GAAP.

SIC 13, 'Jointly controlled entities – non-monetary contributions by venturers', addresses non-monetary contributions to a jointly controlled entity in exchange for an equity interest.

Jointly controlled operations and jointly controlled assets do not involve the creation of an entity that is separate from the venturers themselves. In a joint operation, each venturer uses its own resources and carries out its own part of a joint operation separately from the activities of the other venturer(s). Each venturer owns and controls its own resources that it uses in the joint operation. Jointly controlled assets involve the joint ownership of one or more assets.

Where an entity has an interest in jointly controlled operations or jointly controlled assets, it accounts for its share of the assets, liabilities and cash flows under the arrangement.

Other subjects

29 Related-party disclosures – IAS 24

Disclosures are required in respect of an entity's transactions with related parties. Related parties include:

- Subsidiaries.
- Fellow subsidiaries.
- Associates.
- Joint ventures.
- The entity's and its parent's key management personnel (including close members of their families).
- Parties with control/joint control/significant influence over the entity (including close members of their families, where applicable).
- Post-employment benefit plans.

However, they exclude, for example, finance providers and governments in the course of their normal dealings with the entity.

The name of the ultimate parent entity is disclosed if it is not mentioned elsewhere in information published with the financial statements. The names of the immediate and the ultimate controlling parties (which could be an individual or a group of individuals) are disclosed irrespective of whether there have been transactions with those related parties.

Where there have been related-party transactions, management discloses the nature of the relationship, the amount of transactions, and outstanding balances and other elements necessary for a clear understanding of the financial statements (for example, volume and amounts of transactions, amounts outstanding and pricing policies). The disclosure is made by category of related parties and by major types of transaction. Items of a similar nature may be disclosed in aggregate, except when separate disclosure is necessary for an understanding of the effects of related-party transactions on the reporting entity's financial statements.

Disclosures that related-party transactions were made on terms equivalent to those that prevail for arm's length transactions are made only if such terms can be substantiated.

In February 2007 the IASB published an exposure draft, 'Amendments to IAS 24, Related party disclosures – State-controlled entities and the definition of a related party'. It proposes certain disclosure exemptions for state-controlled entities and amendments to the definitions of related parties.

30 Cash flow statements – IAS 7

The success, growth and survival of an entity depends on its ability to generate or otherwise obtain cash.

The cash flow statement is one of the primary statements in financial reporting (along with the income statement, balance sheet and statement of changes in equity). It presents the generation and use of 'cash and cash equivalents' by category (operating, investing and finance) over a specific period of time. It provides users with a basis to assess the entity's ability to generate and utilise its cash.

Operating activities are the entity's revenue-producing activities. Investing activities are the acquisition and disposal of non-current assets (including business combinations) and investments that are not cash equivalents. Financing activities are changes in the equity and borrowings.

Management may present operating cash flows by using either the direct method (gross cash receipts/payments) or the indirect method (adjusting net profit or loss for non-operating and non-cash transactions, and for changes in working capital).

Cash flows from investing and financing activities are reported separately gross (that is, gross cash receipts and gross cash payments) unless they meet certain specified criteria.

The total that summarises the effect of the operating, investing and financing cash flows is the movement in the balance of cash and cash equivalents for the period.

Separate disclosure should be made of significant non-cash transactions (such as the issue of equity for the acquisition of a subsidiary or the acquisition of an asset through a finance lease). Non-cash transactions include impairment losses/reversals; depreciation; amortisation; fair value gains/losses; and income statement charges for provisions.

31 Interim reports – IAS 34

There is no IFRS requirement for an entity to publish interim financial statements. However, a number of countries either require or recommend their publication.

IAS 34, 'Interim financial reporting', applies where an entity publishes an interim financial report in accordance with IFRS. IAS 34 sets out the minimum content that an interim financial report should contain and the principles that should be used in recognising and measuring the transactions and balances included in that report.

Under IAS 34, entities may either prepare full IFRS financial statements (conforming to the requirements of IAS 1), or condensed financial statements. Condensed reporting is the more common approach. Condensed financial statements include a condensed balance sheet, a condensed income statement, a condensed cash flow statement, a condensed statement of changes in equity and selected note disclosures.

An entity generally uses the same accounting policies for recognising and measuring assets, liabilities, revenues, expenses and gains and losses at interim dates as those to be used in the next annual financial statements.

There are special measurement requirements for items such as tax (calculated based on a full year effective rate), revenue and costs earned/incurred unevenly over the financial year and the use of estimates in the interim financials. An impairment loss recognised in a previous interim period in respect of goodwill, or an investment in either an equity instrument or a financial asset carried at cost, is not reversed.

Current period and comparative figures are disclosed as follows:

- Balance sheet – as of the current interim period end with comparatives for the immediately preceding year end.
- Income statement – current interim period, financial year to date and comparatives for the same preceding periods (interim and year to date).
- Cash flow statement and statement of changes in equity – financial year to date with comparatives for the same year to date period of the preceding year.

32 Service concession arrangements – SIC 29 and IFRIC 12

There is no specific IFRS that applies to public-to-private service concession arrangements for delivery of public services. SIC 29, 'Service concession arrangements: Disclosures', contains disclosure requirements in respect of public-to-private service arrangements but does not specify how they are accounted for. As a result, IFRIC issued an interpretation on service concession arrangements in November 2006. The interpretation clarifies how IFRS should be applied by a private sector entity in accounting for public-to-private service concession arrangements.

IFRIC 12 applies to public-to-private service concession arrangements in which the public sector body (the grantor) controls and/or regulates the services provided with the infrastructure by the private sector entity (the operator). The regulation would also address to whom the operator should provide the services, and at what price. Furthermore, the grantor would control any significant residual interest in the infrastructure.

As the infrastructure is controlled by the grantor, the operator does not recognise the infrastructure as its property, plant and equipment; nor does the operator recognise a finance lease receivable for leasing the public service infrastructure to the grantor, regardless of the extent to which the operator bears the risk and rewards incidental to ownership of the assets.

The operator recognises a financial asset to the extent that it has an unconditional contractual right to receive cash irrespective of the usage of the infrastructure.

The operator recognises an intangible asset to the extent that it receives a right (a licence) to charge users of the public service.

Under both the financial asset and the intangible asset models, the operator accounts for revenue and costs relating to construction or upgrade services in accordance with IAS 11, 'Construction contracts'. The operator recognises revenue and costs relating to operation services in accordance with IAS 18, 'Revenue'. Any contractual obligation to maintain or restore infrastructure, except for upgrade services, is recognised in accordance with IAS 37, 'Provisions, contingent liabilities and contingent assets'.

IFRIC 12 is applicable for accounting periods beginning on or after 1 January 2008, with earlier application permitted. The change in accounting policy is accounted for retrospectively, except when this is impractical, in which case special transitional rules apply.

Industry-specific topics

33 Agriculture – IAS 41

Agricultural activity is defined as the managed biological transformation of biological assets (living animals and plants) for sale into agricultural produce (harvested product of biological assets) or into additional biological assets.

All biological assets are measured at fair value less estimated point-of-sale costs, with the change in the carrying amount reported as part of profit or loss from operating activities. Agricultural produce harvested from an entity's biological assets is measured at fair value less estimated point-of-sale costs at the point of harvest.

Point-of-sale costs include commissions to brokers and dealers, levies by regulatory agencies and commodity exchanges and transfer taxes and duties. Point-of-sale costs exclude transport and other costs necessary to get assets to market.

The fair value is the quoted price in any available market. However, if an active market does not exist for biological assets or harvested agricultural produce, the following may be used in determining fair value: the most recent transaction price (provided that there has not been a significant change in economic circumstances between the date of that transaction and the balance sheet date); market prices for similar assets, with adjustments to reflect differences; and sector benchmarks, such as the value of an orchard expressed per export tray, bushel or hectare and the value of cattle expressed per kilogram of meat. When any of this information is not available, the entity uses the present value of the expected net cash flows from the asset discounted at a current market-determined pre-tax rate.

34 Retirement benefit plans – IAS 26

When retirement benefit plans prepare financial statements in accordance with IFRS, they should comply with the requirements of IAS 26.

For a defined contribution plan, the report includes: a statement of net assets available for benefits; a statement of changes in net assets available for benefits; a summary of significant accounting policies; a description of the plan and the effect of any changes in the plan during the period; and a description of the funding policy.

For a defined benefit plan, the report includes:

- Either a statement that shows the net assets available for benefits, the actuarial present value of promised retirement benefits and the resulting excess or deficit, or a reference to this information in an accompanying actuarial report.
- A statement of changes in net assets available for benefits.
- A cash flow statement.
- A summary of significant accounting policies.
- A description of the plan and the effect of any changes in the plan during the period.

The report also explains the relationship between the actuarial present value of promised retirement benefits and the net assets available for benefits, and the policy for the funding of promised benefits. Investments held by all retirement plans (whether defined benefit or defined contribution) are carried at fair value.

35 Extractive industries – IFRS 6

IFRS 6, 'Exploration for and evaluation of mineral resources', addresses the financial reporting for the exploration for and evaluation of mineral resources; it does not address other aspects of accounting by entities engaged in the exploration for and evaluation of mineral reserves (such as activities before an entity has acquired the legal right to explore or after the technical feasibility and commercial viability to extract resources have been demonstrated). The activities outside the scope of IFRS 6 are accounted for according to the applicable standards (such as IAS 16, 'Property, plant and equipment', IAS 37, 'Provisions, contingent liabilities and contingent assets', and IAS 38, 'Intangible assets').

The accounting policy adopted for the recognition of exploration and evaluation assets should result in information that is relevant and reliable. However, as a concession, certain further rules of IAS 8, 'Accounting policies, changes in accounting estimates and errors', need not be applied. This permits companies in this sector to continue, for the time being, to apply policies that were followed under national GAAP that would not comply with the requirements of IFRS. The accounting policy may be changed only if the change makes the financial statements more relevant and no less reliable, or more reliable and no less relevant – in other words, if the new accounting policy takes it closer to the Framework requirements.

Exploration and evaluation assets are initially measured at cost. Exploration and evaluation assets are classified as tangible or intangible assets, according to the nature of the assets acquired. Management should apply that classification consistently.

After recognition, an entity should apply either the cost model or the revaluation model to the exploration and evaluation assets, based on IAS 16, 'Property, plant and equipment', or IAS 38, 'Intangible assets', according to nature of the assets. As soon as technical feasibility and commercial viability are determined, the assets are no longer classified as exploration and evaluation assets.

The exploration and evaluation assets are tested for impairment when facts and circumstances suggest that the carrying amounts may not be recovered. The assets are also tested for impairment before reclassification out of exploration and evaluation. The impairment is measured, presented and disclosed according to IAS 36, 'Impairment of assets', except that exploration and evaluation assets are allocated to cash-generating units or groups of cash-generating units no larger than a segment.

Management should disclose the accounting policy adopted as well as the amount of assets, liabilities, income and expense and investing cash flows arising from the exploration and evaluation of mineral resources.

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