The first part of this book introduces management accounting, its purpose and basic concepts.

In Chapter 1 management accounting is defined as processes and techniques that are focused on the effective use of organisational resources to support managers in their task of enhancing both customer value and shareholder value. We outline the recent changes in the business environment that have influenced the development of management practices and management accounting systems, and management accounting is distinguished from financial accounting.

The processes and techniques of management accounting that are used to enhance value include systems to support the formulation and implementation of strategy; process improvement and cost management techniques to help develop and manage a firm’s competitive advantage; planning and control systems to help managers manage resources; and estimates of the cost of products and services to support strategic and operational decisions.

In this first chapter we also consider the design of a management accounting system, including an awareness of the behavioural implications of management accounting information, and the costs and benefits of designing, producing and using management accounting information. A case study of Steers, one of South Africa’s leading burger franchises, is used to illustrate many of the management accounting concepts.
Chapter 2 introduces some of the basic concepts and terminology used in management accounting. Management accounting systems often include costing, budgeting and performance measurement systems. Contemporary management accounting systems may also include cost management systems, which focus on the identification and elimination of wasteful activities.

Much of this chapter focuses on the different ways in which costs can be classified and reported to managers. These classifications include variable and fixed costs, direct and indirect costs, and controllable and uncontrollable costs. We use the concept of the value chain to explore the various cost classifications, paying particular attention to the classification of manufacturing costs as direct material, direct labour and manufacturing overhead costs. The essential message in this chapter is that costs can be classified in different ways to meet the different information needs of managers.
After completing this chapter, you should be able to:

1. describe the changes that have taken place in the business environment in recent years;
2. define management accounting in terms of value creation;
3. describe the major differences between management accounting and financial accounting information;
4. explain where management accountants are located in organisations;
5. describe the major processes that management accounting systems use to manage resources and create value;
6. explain the basic concepts of strategy and how management accounting systems can support strategies;
7. recognise how various management accounting techniques have been developed to support a firm’s competitive advantage;
8. explain how planning and control mechanisms can be used to support resource management;
9. explain how costing systems can provide information to support a range of operational and strategic decisions;
10. describe the behavioural issues and the cost–benefit trade-offs that need to be considered in the design of management accounting systems;
11. identify the organisational responses and management accounting responses to changes in the business environment;
12. after studying the appendix, describe how the focus of management accounting has evolved; and
13. after studying the appendix, discuss the professional qualifications that are relevant to becoming an accountant, and the ethical standards to which accountants must adhere.
Introduction

We all deal with many different types of organisations as part of our daily lives. Manufacturers, retailers, service providers, not-for-profit organisations and government enterprises provide us with a vast array of goods and services. These organisations seem very different, but they have three things in common. First, every organisation should have a stated purpose and objectives. For example, a police department may state that its purpose is to make the community a safer place in which to live. The specific objectives of an organisation flow from its purpose. In the case of the police department, the objectives may be to reduce the crime rate by 50 per cent and decrease the number of road fatalities by 30 per cent within the next five years. The objectives of organisations generally focus on adding value from the perspective of major stakeholders—in particular, owners and customers.

Second, in pursuing objectives managers need to make many decisions, and for this they need information. The information needs of managers extend across financial, production, marketing, legal and environmental areas. Generally, the larger the organisation, the more complex are its operations, and the greater is management’s need for information. In the police department, senior officers will need information to assess progress towards objectives. Relevant information could include crime statistics for each quarter of the year, explanations of why crime rates may be meeting or exceeding targets, and details of the strategies put into place to reduce crime.

Finally, to help achieve the organisation's objectives, managers need to manage their resources effectively and efficiently. Resource management can involve using resources more effectively (that is, achieving better outcomes) and using resources more efficiently (that is, using fewer resources to achieve an objective). In the police department, management will need to know the cost of new crime-reduction programs that have been put in place.

Management accounting information helps to satisfy the information needs of managers so that they can manage resources effectively and add value for customers and the organisation as a whole.

Throughout this book we use case studies to bring management accounting principles and concepts to life. This chapter is based on the story of South Africa’s well-known burger specialists, Steers, but before we move to the Steers story, let’s explore the business environment in which management accounting has evolved and operates.

South African organisations in the 21st century

Throughout the 1990s many South African organisations became exposed to global competition for the first time. South African companies could no longer ignore the activities of companies operating in Asia, Europe and the US. From the early 1990s, import tariffs, quotas and restrictions were gradually reduced or eliminated. Many overseas companies became direct competitors for South African businesses. For example, decreasing tariffs affected the South African textile and clothing sectors in a profound way with many textile and clothing manufacturers being forced to close down their operations. Even South African automotive manufacturers, such as General Motors, VW and Toyota, as well as their local suppliers were affected, although in a more positive way. High-quality motor vehicles manufactured overseas were imported into the domestic markets at competitive prices, to compete directly with locally produced cars. South African automotive component suppliers also found that they were competing directly with overseas suppliers, as Toyota and the other South African car manufacturers began to source their supplies globally. However, at the same time, South African automotive manufacturers and component suppliers have been successful in exporting to Europe and the USA. The South African government provides incentives in terms of the Motor Industry Development Programme although the pricing of motor vehicles in South Africa is being investigated by the competition authorities. However, the motor industry in South Africa remains one of the country’s success stories and represents about one-third of the country’s manufacturing base. Textile and clothing manufacturers have not been able to withstand
global competition and we have seen the demise of many clothing manufacturers as retailers increasingly source merchandise from China.

Changes in the regulatory environment have affected many different industries. Deregulation of the telecommunications industry in the 1990s saw a variety of companies, such as MTN and Vodacom, enter the market as indirect competitors to Telkom, a business that once held a monopoly in the telecommunications market in South Africa. Although Telkom retains a monopoly over fixed-line telephony services, a new competitor to Telkom should start operations in the near future. In the airline sector, such airlines as Nationwide and 1Time have emerged to challenge the two dominant domestic airlines, South African Airways (SAA) and Comair (BA). Comair successfully launched a low-cost airline, called kulula.com, and SAA responded by introducing its own low-cost provider, Mango. In the 1990s, many former public utilities and government bodies were commercialised, or corporatised. Some public enterprises also found themselves competing directly with private companies. The process of corporatisation and privatisation of the public sector has continued into the new century. For example, we have seen the privatisation of parts of Transnet (ex. sale of the V&A), Telkom and the introduction of toll roads, which represents a partial privatisation of the road system. Many public hospitals and local government councils now operate as commercial businesses. There have also been major changes in the regulation of labour markets, which have significant implications for the competitiveness of businesses.

Over the past few decades we have seen a shift from South Africa as a primary producer and exporter of mineral resources to its becoming also a service-based economy. Growth areas in the service sector include tourism and ‘knowledge-based’ industries, such as software programming and business process outsourcing. Demand from China has given a renewed impetus to the role of resources and there has been increasing consolidation in the retail and banking sectors. In the banking sector there are really only four banking groups – Standard Bank, ABSA, First Rand and Nedcor. Perhaps we can also include Investec. Globalisation has affected the banking sector, as ABSA is now part of Barclays plc, a UK-based banking group.

South African businesses, in common with their overseas counterparts, operate in an environment that is subject to rapid and unpredictable change. Customers make increasingly strong demands on businesses for specific product requirements. The rise of the Internet and e-commerce has challenged the traditional modes of business operation, and the increase in outsourcing and a greater reliance on various forms of business networks and relationships has led to the emergence of virtual organisations. The Internet, for example, has changed banking in South Africa fundamentally, while information technology has affected all industries. For example, inventory control has been improved by the use of bar codes.

The changing environment has provided both opportunities and threats for South African organisations. Companies have had to evolve and adapt to find better ways to compete. New organisational structures, strategies and management philosophies have been adopted to enable organisations to be more responsive to customer needs and better able to make quick and informed decisions within global markets.

It is little wonder that the practice of managing businesses effectively in the 21st century is very different from even five years ago. In addition, the focus of management accounting has had to keep pace with the information needs of contemporary organisations. In the appendix to this chapter there is a detailed account of the changing focus of management accounting over the past few decades.

**Steers: A South African success story**

Steers, part of the Famous Brands retail franchise group,1 is an incredible South African success story, with more than 450 restaurants selling over 30 million flame grilled burgers per year. Steers was the brainchild of George Halamandaris who, in the 1960s, decided to introduce the American concept of fast-food catering to South Africa. Steers is one of South Africa’s leading burger franchises in the country and the company prides itself on providing consistent quality, cleanliness and great service.
The company describes its brand values as follows:

The three pillars of the Steers brand are: Innovation, value for money and being the flame grilled burger specialists. Steers remains the market leader by offering the widest range of classic and gourmet burgers using a unique flame grilled process. It also offers the best value for money: a lot more for a little more — offering the consumer more quality and more satisfaction.

Steers opened its first fast-food store in Jeppe in 1970 and the Steers franchising concept was launched in 1983. Since then its franchising and retail operations have continued to grow and develop. The Steers story is one of growth driven by energy, enthusiasm and commitment. In 2004 Steers achieved sales turnover of R700 million from its South African stores and in 2008, Steers achieved a turnover of over R1 Billion. While South Africa has always been its primary market, Steers has not escaped the influences of globalisation, described earlier. During the 1990s Steers began expanding into Africa and now has restaurants in Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Senegal, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

In 1994 Steers Holdings (now known as Famous Brands) was listed on the JSE Securities Exchange. The group expanded and now includes the following brands: Steers, Wimpy, Debonairs Pizza, FishAway, Brazilian and House of Coffees. Steers has pursued growth and profitability strategies, leveraging off Steers' position in the fast-food sector, as well as diversifying into other activities such as sauce and spice production, operating bakeries and butcheries. The sauces and other products are also marketed through the supermarket chains. The franchise network under the Famous Brands banner consists of over 1500 restaurants located in South Africa on the African continent and in the UK as Wimpy.

Steers and the Famous Brands group provide a rich setting to explore the information needs of managers and the nature of management accounting.

What is management accounting?

Management accounting refers to the processes and techniques that focus on the effective and efficient use of organisational resources, to support managers in their tasks of enhancing both customer value and shareholder value. Let's look more closely at this definition.

Value creation is a central focus for contemporary managers and can refer to both customer value and shareholder value. Customers have always been a key concern for organisations. However, it is only in recent years that managers have come to recognise explicitly that understanding customer value—the value that a customer places on particular features of a product—and satisfying customers is critical to achieving increased sales and market share, and therefore to achieving shareholder value.

Shareholder value is also a key focus for managers and involves improving the worth of the business from the shareholders', or owners', perspective. So what is important to shareholders? Shareholders are usually interested in increased profitability, increased share price, and dividends, and management is charged with the responsibility of delivering this.

However, increasing customer value comes at a cost and, at times, managers may need to make trade-offs between undertaking actions that increase customer value, and actions that increase shareholder value. For example, more seating at Steers' outlets may enhance customer value, and by increasing sales also enhance shareholder value. On the other hand, the push towards bigger sites with seating comes at a cost—which may have a detrimental effect on the potential to grow shareholder value. Where there is a conflict between increasing customer value and increasing shareholder value, shareholder value is likely to be given priority as this is the key strategic objective for most organisations. (Alternative objectives and priorities can be expected in not-for-profit organisations.) Resolving this conflict is not always straightforward. For example, increasing customer value may decrease shareholder value in the short run as costs also increase, but may increase shareholder value in the longer run, as market share increases.

To enhance customer value or shareholder value, managers need to understand what drives
value. That is, they need to understand and make decisions about the activities or aspects of their business that lead to improvements in customer value or shareholder value. How important is seating. Do most Steers’ customers want to ‘eat in’ or ‘take away’ their burgers? Later in this book we will learn about management accounting processes and techniques that may be used to assist managers to identify and manage those drivers, and to make decisions. Important decisions for managers include which products to produce or services to offer, what prices should be set, what equipment should be purchased and so on.

The effective and efficient use of resources is essential to creating both customer and shareholder value, and management accounting provides information to assist managers to perform this role. Effectiveness focuses managers on the successful achievement of an objective, whereas efficiency focuses managers on achieving the objective with the least possible consumption of resources. Resources can be defined broadly to include not only the financial resources of the organisation, but also non-financial resources such as information, work processes, employees, committed customers and suppliers. Non-financial resources determine the capabilities and competencies of the organisation, which allow it to survive and prosper in an increasingly turbulent global environment.

We will see in later chapters that there are a variety of management accounting techniques and skills that can be used to manage resources in order to achieve increased customer and shareholder value.

Management accounting systems

A management accounting system is an information system that produces the information required by managers to manage resources and to create value. It forms part of an organisation’s wider management information systems. Management accounting information can be provided on a regular basis and can include estimates of the costs of producing goods and services, information for planning and controlling operations, and information for measuring performance. Management accounting systems also provide information on an ad hoc basis, to satisfy the short-term and long-term decision-making needs of management. The management accounting system may not be able to provide all of the information to satisfy managers’ decision-making needs; sometimes information also needs to be obtained from other sources, including those outside the organisation. For example, the costing system at the Steers butchery provides regular reports on the cost of beef patties produced. Steers processes 3360 tons of beef patties per year. However, from time to time Steers managers may need information about the prices from other manufacturers, which are both competitors of Steers and potential suppliers to franchisees. Indeed, as franchising law requires the franchise system to ensure fair trading, Steers management needs to be sure that the price of Steers’ own beef patties is competitive in the market.

Management accounting information

The focus of management accounting is on the needs of managers within the organisation. Because accounting standards apply only to external financial reports, there is great flexibility in deciding the type of information that should be generated for managers. As managers’ information needs vary, and as the nature of the resources that they manage also varies, the type of management accounting information required will also need to vary. Other factors that cause management accounting systems to differ include differences in production or service technologies, organisational structure and organisational size, the external environment in which the organisation competes, and the levels of sophistication of computer systems. These aspects can affect managers’ needs for, and the supply of, information, and will be an important influence on the design of a management accounting system. For example, when George Halamandaris set up the first Steers store in 1970, the cash register provided daily sales information, and recording payments to his small staff and purchases was straightforward. Now, with more than 350 stores located across South Africa and the rest of Africa and its own butchery, bakery and sauce and spice production facility, the information needs of Steers managers across the organisation are far more complex. Stores still
collect daily sales information, but now this information can be analysed at the head office, in real
time, to produce a wide range of reports about sales by store, region and product line.

Finally, it should be noted that management accounting information is relevant to managers
from the top of the organisation through to managers in operational areas of a business. Senior
managers need information that provides them with an overview of the entire organisation,
whereas middle managers require more detailed information about their areas of responsibility.
Also, operational managers will need information to help them manage their specific operations
on a day-to-day basis, to help ensure that their performance targets are met. (Operational man-
agers are managers who have responsibility for activities in the manufacturing areas of
manufacturing firms, or for the areas that directly provide services to customers in service
firms.)

Steers requires management accounting information reports on its value drivers. Different
reports are prepared for different levels of management. The business has a separate division that
works directly with franchisees on individual store reports. One critical measure of franchisees’ per-
formance is the rent-to-sales ratio. As well as informing store managers, this information and other
forms of business intelligence are reported at head office, where trends in products, revenue, costs
and the broader business model are tracked. Business analysts also collect and monitor a range of
workforce and new product development indicators, as well as stock and distribution information.
These reports are tailored to meet the needs of particular managers. For example, workforce reports
are developed for the human resources manager, supply and distribution reports go to the logistics
manager, and so on. Top management at head office receives a monthly scorecard on the perform-
ance of the overall group that includes information about the workforce (including employee
development), incremental income from innovation, trends in unit sales and average transactions,
and so on, thus providing an overview of performance in the Steers’ key areas of people, innovation
and growth.

Differences between management accounting and financial
accounting information

It should be clear from the above discussions that the orientation of management accounting is
quite different to the external reporting focus of financial accounting. Exhibit 1.1 contrasts manage-
ment accounting and financial accounting information.

Financial accounting is concerned with preparing and reporting accounting information for
parties outside the organisation. The balance sheets and income statements within the annual
reports distributed by Pick ’n Pay and BHP Billiton to their shareholders are examples of the output
from a financial accounting system. Users of financial accounting information include current and
prospective shareholders, lenders, investment analysts, unions, consumer groups and government
agencies. In contrast, management accounting focuses on satisfying the needs of internal users (that
is, managers).

Financial accounting reports are based on past information that emphasises objectivity and ver-
ifiability. Management accounting information and reporting are not constrained by accounting
standards or regulations, so the content and design of management accounting information is deter-
mined by managers’ needs. The nature of management accounting information is current and
future-oriented. Relevance and timeliness are considered more important than objectivity and reli-
ability.

There is clearly some overlap between management accounting information and financial
accounting information, because both draw data from an organisation’s transaction-based
accounting system. However, to manage the wider resources of the organisation, management
accounting also draws on data from many other sources, both internal and external to the orga-
nisation. These may include data from operations (production) systems, personnel systems and
customer information systems, as well as market-share data and competitor costs from external
bureaux. Also, the level of detail and the frequency of reporting of management accounting informa-
tion is greater than for financial accounting.
One part of a firm’s accounting system that is common to both financial accounting and management accounting is the costing system. The **costing system** (or **cost accounting system**)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Users of information</th>
<th>Management accounting</th>
<th>Financial accounting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal: managers and employees at all levels.</td>
<td>External: shareholders, creditors, banks, stock exchange, trade unions, government agencies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Regulations | No accounting standards or external rules are imposed. Information is generated to satisfy managers’ information needs. | Accountants preparing reports must comply with accounting standards. Incorporated bodies must comply with applicable accounting standards and requirements of the *Companies Act*. |

| Source of data | Both financial and non-financial data drawn from many sources—the core accounting system; physical and operational data from production systems; market, customer and economic data from databases external to the organisation. | Financial data almost exclusively drawn from the organisation’s core transaction-based accounting system. |

| Nature of the information | Historic, current and future-oriented; subjective; relevant; timely; supplied at various levels of detail to suit managers’ specific needs. | Historic; objective; auditable; reliable; not timely; not always relevant; highly aggregated. |

Exhibit 1.1 Management accounting versus financial accounting

One part of a firm’s accounting system that is common to both financial accounting and management accounting is the costing system. The **costing system** estimates the cost of goods and services, as well as the cost of organisational units, such as departments. Managers may need information about product costs for a range of strategic and operational purposes including setting prices, controlling operations and making decisions about the continuation of a particular product. These are management accounting uses. However, product cost data are also used to value inventory on a manufacturer’s balance sheet and cost of goods sold on the income statement, which are financial accounting uses.

Management accounting is broader than just the preparation and reporting of financial information. Management accounting also includes analyses of non-financial resources, including manufacturing and sales performance data, and a range of techniques for managing costs and other organisational resources. Exhibit 1.2, which is drawn from a number of job advertisements, illustrates the diverse role of the management accountant and highlights the broad range of information provided to managers.

### Management accountants within organisations

To appreciate the management accountant’s role in an organisation, we need to understand how organisations are structured and where the accounting staff may be located. However, the structures of organisations vary considerably and frequently change. Many large South African businesses are structured with a corporate head office and a series of operating divisions. These divisions may relate to different geographical locations of the company. Alternatively, they may focus on different product markets—Famous Brands has separate divisions for its franchising, food services and corporate services. Organisational structures often identify significant functions, especially at the corporate level. For example, the organisational structure of the Standard Bank includes units for domestic and international banking. Domestic banking is further divided into Retail banking and Corporate and Investment banking.
The accounting function

Most large South African organisations have a ‘finance function’, which is the group of staff who undertake a variety of accounting activities. As you will note from Exhibit 1.2, within the finance function the senior accountant may have a variety of titles, including financial controller, finance director, financial analyst, business analyst, general manager of accounting and group accountant. (Indeed, the ‘Real life’ below indicates more creative titles such as strategic resource manager and e-commerce strategist!) The financial controller is usually responsible for both management accounting and financial accounting activities. As the organisation’s most senior management accountant, the controller acts as an adviser to managers. Moreover, most financial controllers influence resource management decisions across all management levels and functional areas of the enterprise. In the 21st century, financial controllers are usually important members of the senior management team. In recent years, former accountants have served as chief executives in companies such as Bidvest and Old Mutual.

In some businesses accounting staff may be found in each operating division, as well as at the corporate level. Accounting staff are increasingly being located close to the operations of the business. This allows them to work more closely with operations managers and other employees.

In some organisations, accountants are clearly designated as either management accountants or financial accountants. In other businesses the distinction may be blurred, with many accountants being responsible for both functions. However, it should also be noted that the various processes and techniques that we describe as ‘management accounting’ increasingly involve managers in other areas of a business, and are not solely the domain of the accountants. For example, the design and operation of performance measurement systems, an important aspect of management accounting, may involve managers in the human resource-management area. A new costing system may be designed, and perhaps even initiated, by production engineers.

Clearly, management accountants have an important role to play in co-ordinating many aspects of the management accounting system, and as a part of the management team. However, we should not necessarily assume that they are the sole custodians of management accounting information across every organisation! In the appendix to this chapter you may read about the changes that have taken place in the positioning of management accounting in organisations over the past few decades.

The ‘Real life’ section outlines some of the changing skills and roles of accountants in organisations.
Management accounting processes and techniques

So far in this chapter we have explained that management accounting is focused on the effective management of resources to support managers in their quest for improved customer value and shareholder value. But what are the processes and techniques that management accounting uses to achieve this?

Management accounting:

- supports the organisation’s formulation and implementation of strategy;
- contributes to improving the organisation’s competitive advantage in terms of quality, delivery, time, flexibility, innovation and cost, through modern process improvement and cost management techniques;

A recent survey by international consultant Robert Half International of 1400 chief financial officers (CFOs) highlighted the sweeping changes that are taking place in the accounting and finance profession and in the necessary skills and competencies of accountants within organisations. For example, 82 per cent of CFOs indicated that their accounting departments had become more involved with their company’s technology initiatives in the past five years, and 49 per cent had become involved in e-commerce projects in the past three years.

The mandatory skills for accountants were identified as:

- **Technical.** An understanding of new applications and software, including wireless technologies.
- **Communication.** Strong written and verbal skills, including the ability to explain financial information in non-financial terms.
- **Interpersonal.** Persuasion, diplomacy, negotiation, coaching and team-building skills, to enable accountants to relate to colleagues from many different backgrounds and professions.
- **Managerial.** Expertise in the areas of management, marketing and operations, to allow accountants to understand the areas and function of the business.

The survey also revealed the many different job titles that now apply to senior accounting positions. These include financial manager, financial analyst, financial specialist, strategic resource manager, consultant, e-commerce strategist, asset manager and assurance services provider.

Source: Williams (2001)
provides information to help manage resources, through systems for planning (such as budgets) and control (such as performance measures); and

- provides estimates of the costs of the organisation’s output (goods and services), to support both the strategic and operational decision needs of managers.

Let’s look at examples of each of these areas.

### Management accounting and strategy

In many organisations in the 21st century management accountants play an important strategic role by contributing to the organisation’s formulation and implementation of strategy and by helping managers improve the organisation’s competitive advantage.

To make sense of this role we introduce some basic strategy concepts:

- mission statement
- vision
- objectives
- strategies.

Let’s define each of these terms.

Many organisations prepare a mission statement that defines the purpose and boundaries of the organisation (Johnson & Scholes, 1999; Viljoen & Dann, 2000). Mission statements tend to change very infrequently.

Steers does not have a specific mission statement, but the statement of strategic intent of Steers parent company, Famous Brands, is set out on the company’s website, www.famousbrands.co.za.

It is the Group’s intention to remain the leading marketer and developer of branded franchised QSR (Quick Service Restaurant) concepts on the African continent. Famous Brands Limited will continue to dominate the QSR industry through strong brands such as Steers, Wimpy, Debonairs Pizza, House of Coffees and Brazilian, as well as through other brands that may be acquired or established during the coming years.

The group is specific about how it will achieve its strategic intent:

To ensure we maintain and grow our dominant position in the market, unwavering attention is focused on the cornerstones of the group’s brand portfolio: affordability (value for money), accessibility (situated within arms’ reach of desire), and appeal (high quality innovative offerings). At the forefront of our strategy is to establish the concept of quick service and casual dining restaurants as a way of life.

A vision is the desired future state or aspiration of an organisation (Johnson and Scholes, 1999). The vision of Unitrans Ltd, one of South Africa’s leading transportation, distribution and logistics companies, is to be ‘a customer-centric international provider of diversified services, delivering sustainable profit growth’. The vision is often used by senior management to focus the attention and energies of staff throughout the organisation.

Steers has acted on its vision is to grow its business by creating owner-operated franchised stores. Steers provides support to its franchisees in relation to site selection, training, operations and marketing. In return Steers earns an initial fee, an advertising royalty of 5 per cent of turnover and a franchise royalty of 5 per cent of turnover. Steers even indicates what a standard Steers store owner can earn, as shown in Exhibit 1.3 (from its website), although this return is not guaranteed, as many factors will determine the returns earned by individual stores.

While not all organisations specify a mission statement and vision, they all have some form of objectives. Objectives (or goals) are specific statements of what the organisation aims to achieve,
### Exhibit 1.3 Business plan for a standard Steers store

**Source:** www.steers.co.za (August 2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INCOME STATEMENT</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>2 034 618</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
<td>2 339 811</td>
<td>2 690 783</td>
<td>3 094 400</td>
<td>3 558 560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less cost of sales</td>
<td>813 847</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>935 924</td>
<td>1 076 313</td>
<td>1 237 760</td>
<td>1 423 424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Margin</td>
<td>1 220 771</td>
<td>60.00%</td>
<td>1 403 887</td>
<td>1 614 470</td>
<td>1 856 640</td>
<td>2 133 136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenses</td>
<td>804 653</td>
<td>39.55%</td>
<td>925 351</td>
<td>1 064 154</td>
<td>1 223 777</td>
<td>1 407 343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting &amp; Audit fees</td>
<td>10 200</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
<td>11 730</td>
<td>13 490</td>
<td>15 513</td>
<td>17 840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank charges</td>
<td>20 346</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>23 398</td>
<td>26 908</td>
<td>30 944</td>
<td>35 585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit card fees</td>
<td>12 208</td>
<td>0.60%</td>
<td>14 039</td>
<td>16 145</td>
<td>18 567</td>
<td>21 352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td>10 173</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
<td>11 699</td>
<td>13 454</td>
<td>15 472</td>
<td>17 793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity</td>
<td>50 865</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
<td>58 495</td>
<td>67 269</td>
<td>77 359</td>
<td>88 963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas</td>
<td>17 294</td>
<td>0.85%</td>
<td>19 888</td>
<td>22 871</td>
<td>26 302</td>
<td>30 247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>12 936</td>
<td>0.64%</td>
<td>14 879</td>
<td>17 111</td>
<td>19 677</td>
<td>22 629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone &amp; Fax</td>
<td>7 200</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
<td>8 280</td>
<td>9 522</td>
<td>10 950</td>
<td>12 593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Stationery</td>
<td>7 121</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
<td>8 189</td>
<td>9 418</td>
<td>10 830</td>
<td>12 455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating costs</td>
<td>9 000</td>
<td>0.44%</td>
<td>10 350</td>
<td>11 903</td>
<td>13 668</td>
<td>15 741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>156 000</td>
<td>7.67%</td>
<td>179 400</td>
<td>206 310</td>
<td>237 257</td>
<td>272 845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repairs &amp; Maintenance</td>
<td>7 200</td>
<td>0.35%</td>
<td>8 280</td>
<td>9 522</td>
<td>10 950</td>
<td>12 593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Royalties</td>
<td>101 731</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
<td>116 991</td>
<td>134 539</td>
<td>15 472</td>
<td>17 798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Royalties - Advertising</td>
<td>101 731</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
<td>116 991</td>
<td>134 539</td>
<td>15 472</td>
<td>17 798</td>
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<tr>
<td>RSC.Levies</td>
<td>6 307</td>
<td>0.31%</td>
<td>7 253</td>
<td>8 341</td>
<td>9 592</td>
<td>11 031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salaries / Wages</td>
<td>151 200</td>
<td>7.43%</td>
<td>173 880</td>
<td>199 962</td>
<td>229 956</td>
<td>264 450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFP</td>
<td>2 419</td>
<td>0.12%</td>
<td>2 782</td>
<td>3 189</td>
<td>3 697</td>
<td>4 231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms</td>
<td>3 600</td>
<td>0.18%</td>
<td>4 140</td>
<td>4 761</td>
<td>5 417</td>
<td>6 296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff food</td>
<td>15 120</td>
<td>0.74%</td>
<td>17 388</td>
<td>19 996</td>
<td>22 996</td>
<td>26 445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security + cash collection</td>
<td>12 000</td>
<td>0.59%</td>
<td>13 800</td>
<td>15 870</td>
<td>18 251</td>
<td>20 988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owners salaries</td>
<td>84 000</td>
<td>4.13%</td>
<td>96 600</td>
<td>111 090</td>
<td>127 754</td>
<td>146 917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6 000</td>
<td>0.29%</td>
<td>6 900</td>
<td>7 935</td>
<td>9 125</td>
<td>10 494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/I before interest &amp; depr</td>
<td>416 118</td>
<td>20.45%</td>
<td>478 336</td>
<td>550 316</td>
<td>632 864</td>
<td>727 793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depreciation</td>
<td>180 000</td>
<td></td>
<td>180 000</td>
<td>180 000</td>
<td>180 000</td>
<td>180 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/I before interest</td>
<td>236 118</td>
<td>11.61%</td>
<td>298 336</td>
<td>370 316</td>
<td>452 864</td>
<td>547 793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest on loan</td>
<td>50 259</td>
<td>2.45%</td>
<td>41 377</td>
<td>51 390</td>
<td>61 377</td>
<td>74 573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/I before taxation</td>
<td>185 879</td>
<td>9.14%</td>
<td>257 159</td>
<td>338 926</td>
<td>432 277</td>
<td>540 336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taxation</td>
<td>55 764</td>
<td>29.00%</td>
<td>77 148</td>
<td>101 678</td>
<td>129 818</td>
<td>162 101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/I after taxation</td>
<td>130 115</td>
<td>6.40%</td>
<td>180 011</td>
<td>237 248</td>
<td>302 999</td>
<td>378 235</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CASHFLOW**

| N/I before interest & depr | 416 118 |        | 478 336    | 550 316    | 632 864    | 727 793    |
| Loan repayment            | 120 120 |        | 120 120    | 120 120    | 120 120    | 120 120    |
| Net Income for Reinvestment | 295 998 |        | 358 416    | 430 196    | 512 744    | 607 673    |

Source: www.steers.co.za (August 2006)
often quantified and relating to a specific period of time. Many organisations focus their objectives around some of the following:

- profitability
- growth
- cost minimisation
- product leadership
- innovation
- product quality
- quality of service
- community service
- employee welfare
- environmental responsibility.

Unitrans Ltd set out its corporate objectives as follows:

- Revenue growth
- Headline earnings growth
- Growth in the international component of the group’s businesses
- Reposition Freight and Logistics as a supply chain service provider
- Expand in the commuter bus transport market
- Growth in the group’s car rental operations
- Expand Motors’ retail footprint
- Increase return on shareholders’ funds.

Organisational strategies

The strategies of an organisation specify the direction that the organisation intends to take over the long term, to meet its mission and achieve its objectives (based on Johnson and Scholes, 1999). The strategies will focus on ways to manage the organisation’s resources to create value for customers and shareholders.

In formulating an organisation’s strategies, major decisions include:

- In what business will we operate?
- How should we compete in that business?
- What systems and structures should we have in place to support our strategies?

The first decision involves formulating corporate strategy. Corporate strategy involves making choices about the types of businesses in which the organisation as a whole will operate. This includes decisions about what businesses to divest or acquire, and how best to structure and finance the company. In publicly listed companies the choice of corporate strategy is heavily influenced by expectations of major shareholders and the share market.

The decision by Steers to diversify business activities by, for example, acquiring Debonairs Pizza and Wimpy is an example of a change in corporate strategy to become a leader in the Quick Service Restaurant sector rather than to remain focused on flame-grilled burgers. The second type of decision involves business strategy. Business (or competitive) strategy is concerned with the way that a business competes within its chosen market. For example, Famous Brands operates its fast food divisions on a competing basis. If an organisation consists of several different business units, each with its own distinct market, then there will be a competitive strategy developed for each unit.

The third question is concerned with strategy implementation, which involves planning and managing the implementation of strategies. This can include introducing new structures and
systems, such as setting up new business units, implementing new production processes, implementing new software packages, developing new marketing approaches, and introducing innovative human resource management policies.

In implementing its strategies, Steers has recognised the importance of getting the experience right, and will also focus on the selection of franchisees that will result in owner-operated stores as this together with other factors is seen as critical to the success of the brand.

A closer look at business strategy
To create shareholder value a business must develop and manage its sources of competitive advantage. A well-known model for thinking about competitive advantage was developed by Michael Porter of Harvard University. **Competitive advantage** refers to advantages that a business may have over another, which are difficult to imitate. Porter suggests that a firm can gain a sustainable competitive advantage through adopting a business strategy of cost leadership or product differentiation.

When a firm is a low-cost producer, this allows the business to sell its goods or services at a lower price than competitors (**cost leadership**). Alternatively, firms may derive competitive advantage by offering goods or services that have characteristics that are superior to those offered by competitors (**product differentiation**). Forms of product differentiation include superior quality, customer service, delivery performance and product features such as innovation. Within the one industry there may be successful cost leaders and successful differentiators. Many firms will develop a business strategy that emphasises both cost leadership and some form of differentiation. However, a firm may choose to place greater emphasis on either type of competitive strategy.

Businesses that choose to place a greater emphasis on cost leadership may achieve this in several ways, such as through economies of scale in production, superior process technology, tight cost control and cost minimisation in areas such as marketing, production, research and development, and customer service.

In South Africa examples of businesses that compete primarily on the basis of cost include Mr Price, Fruit & Veg, Shoprite, and Massmart. In these businesses attention is also paid to aspects of differentiation, such as customer service and quality, but it is the firm’s cost performance that provides the basis for competitive advantage. However, for Woolworths Food, the focus is on quality rather than on price.

When a differentiation strategy is followed, the emphasis is on creating some characteristic of the good or service that is perceived by customers as unique. Successful differentiators are able to set selling prices that more than offset the cost of the added product features that are valued by customers. Differentiation may be on the basis of a number of characteristics such as high-quality products (Mercedes Benz), strong brand image (Coca-Cola, Rayban), superior customer service (Standard Bank) and product innovation (Nokia, Motorola). Many firms pursue a combination of differentiation strategies (for example, the Edgars department stores focus on quality and superior customer service).

The emphasis at Steers is on value-for-money experiences and customer service rather than on price. The overall experience is the key. The company’s credo is ‘real food made real good’ and the company is committed to using the best ingredients and ensuring that all food is freshly prepared in each restaurant.

Management accounting: contributing to strategy
Management accountants should tailor information to support the formulation and implementation of their organisation’s strategies.

**Strategic planning**
**Strategic planning** is the term given to long-term planning, usually undertaken by senior managers, with a three- to five-year timeframe. Strategic planning involves making **corporate strategy** decisions about the types of businesses and markets in which the organisation operates, and business (or
competitive) strategy decisions about how the business is to compete within its particular markets. Strategic planning draws on a wide range of management accounting information from the costing, budgeting and performance measurement systems, as well as information from special studies internal and external to the organisation.

**Implementing strategies**
Once strategies have been formulated, managers at all levels of the organisation share the responsibility for implementing them. Management accountants can play an important role in this process using the planning and control systems described below. Long-term plans need to be linked to the budgeting system, to produce annual budgets that support the organisation’s strategies. Likewise, performance measurement systems can be used to compare actual outcomes to budgets and other targets that focus on the organisation’s strategic objectives.

**Management accounting: contributing to competitive advantage**
L.O. 7
Well-managed organisations focus their objectives and strategies on building and maintaining sources of competitive advantage. To be an effective contributor to strategy, the management accounting information should be shaped around the organisation’s sources of competitive advantage. If a firm competes primarily on the basis of low cost, its management accounting information should focus on product costs and tight cost control. If a firm follows a differentiation strategy, the focus should be on performance around the sources of differentiation such as quality, delivery, time, flexibility and innovation. For example, the management accounting reports at Steers monitor costs, but they also provide a lot of information about product and process innovation, and about people—a key driver of customer service (and ultimately of quality and innovation).

With an increasing emphasis on strategy in organisations, several such strategic management accounting techniques have evolved since the 1990s. These include performance measurement systems that focus directly on aspects of business strategy, and techniques for improving the organisation’s competitive advantage through modern process improvement and cost management, with an emphasis on reducing costs while also enhancing customer value.

**Planning and control**
L.O. 8
Planning and control systems are a vital element of management accounting. As part of strategy implementation, organisations need to put in place plans to set the direction of the organisation, and control systems to ensure that operations are proceeding according to plan. Planning and control systems provide the framework for effective resource management to generate customer and shareholder value.

**Planning**
Planning is a broad concept that is concerned with formulating the direction for future operations. Plans are necessary so an organisation can consider and specify all of the resources that will be needed in the future—whether financial or non-financial. Planning activities occur at many levels within an organisation. As described above, many organisations develop strategic plans that normally involve a three- to five-year timeframe. However, most organisations also prepare short-term or operational plans, called budgets. A budget is an example of a plan that summarises the financial consequences of an organisation’s operating activities for a specified future time period, usually one year.

To examine the nature of planning, let’s consider the planning processes at Steers during the 1990s. McDonald’s, a multinational fast food giant, began setting up stores across South Africa with significant advertising, resulting even in long queues for the initial stores. Although the Steers experience
was very different to that of McDonald’s, it seemed that consumers were affected at least temporarily by the allure of McDonald’s, which also offered burgers at a lower cost. Nonetheless, the strength of the Steers brand, great site selection, a focus on value for money, freshly prepared food and flame-grilled burgers enabled the company to withstand the competition from McDonald’s, and the sales revenue of Famous Brands has grown from R292 million in 2003 to close to R900 million in 2007.

The repositioning of Steers and the creation of Famous Brands was a huge undertaking, which required detailed planning, supported by extensive information. The group needed estimates of the resources required to develop and produce new products, new store designs, new marketing campaigns, and so on. Planning for such an operation entails more than formulating resource budgets: it also includes formulating detailed schedules and time-lines for its implementation, and selecting performance measures and targets to assess its success. Much of this information was future-oriented and financial in nature, and management accounting assisted in providing and analysing this data. This future orientation is a particular characteristic of management accounting information that distinguishes it from financial accounting information. Non-financial information was also important in formulating and evaluating these plans, and the inclusion of non-financial information is another distinguishing feature of management accounting information.

**Implementing plans: information for decisions**

Almost every organisation has some sort of plans, whether detailed budgets or something less formal, and managers are responsible for implementing these plans (and sometimes for adapting them to take account of unplanned circumstances). Planning, implementing plans and controlling requires managers to make many decisions; and to make decisions, managers need information.

Many decisions made by managers occur frequently, so information to support these decisions, such as budgets, performance reports and product costs, is prepared on a regular basis. However, management accounting information is also needed to support non-routine decisions. For example, in making decisions about the development and implementation of their project, the Steers leadership team relied on information drawn from regular management accounting reports, such as sales performance and product and store costs. However, the project also required a lot of additional information that was not available from routine management accounting reports, such as estimates of the costs of new store designs, costs of new product lines, estimated uptake of new ideas by franchisees, and so on.

Management accounting systems are designed to produce frequently required information (often for control purposes), but need to be flexible enough to generate some of the information that is needed for decisions that occur very infrequently, or only once.

**Controlling**

Effective resource management must also include systems for control. Control involves putting in place mechanisms to ensure that operations proceed according to plan and that objectives are achieved. There is sometimes confusion between the terms ‘planning’ and ‘control’, probably because of their interdependence. Plans will not be effective unless there is some way of ensuring that they are achieved. This is the role of control and control systems. Control systems are the systems and procedures that provide regular information to assist with control.

Exhibit 1.4 describes the various components of planning and control, and how they relate. In providing information for control, an aim of management accounting systems is to motivate employees to act in the interests of the organisation. This can be achieved by setting targets and then measuring the performance of managers and business units against those targets.

Thus, the control function is an important aspect of management accounting, as it directly assists in managing the use of resources in order to achieve plans for creating value.

Let’s evaluate the implementation of a family-image concept for an ice-cream company’s stores in order to illustrate the nature of control. During the planning stage, targets are set for the number of stores converting to the new image, as well as for store growth (measured in sales
Rands), customer counts and average transaction value. Targets are also set to monitor the development of new products and various ‘people skills’, as well as movements in product mix expected with the new concept. For example, if an ice-cream retailer shifts to a more adult positioning, then soft-serve sales would be expected to become less important. The management accounting system at a company will need to produce reports that compare these targets (and many others) with actual performance. When actual performance moves away from the targets, the reasons need to be investigated and actions need to be taken to correct any problems. In this way, management are able to exercise a degree of control over the operations underlying the implementation of their new concept.

### Costing goods and services

Estimates of the cost of producing goods and services are often needed to support a range of operational and strategic decisions that confront managers. In manufacturing firms, and in some service firms, routine systems are established to estimate the cost of goods and services. Sometimes this forms a part of the financial accounting system. However, sometimes costs that are estimated for management decisions are produced outside of the financial accounting framework. Why is this so?

Financial data within an organisation’s primary accounting system is usually prepared for external reporting purposes. Thus, it is governed by traditional accounting conventions (‘generally accepted accounting principles’ or GAAP) and legally enforceable accounting standards. However, the costing information produced by the financial accounting system may not be adequate for managers’ decisions. For example, let’s consider decisions that require an estimate of the cost of producing a product. Products that are costed for financial reporting purposes – for example, to
value inventory or cost of goods sold – consist of manufacturing costs only. Many managers believe that for some decisions, such as whether or not to continue to produce a product, product costs should also include other product-related costs, such as marketing and customer support. Managers will also require information about the future revenues and costs of the product. However, future costs do not form part of the primary accounting systems of a business. (These issues will be discussed further in Chapter 4.)

Some managers also believe that the simplistic methods used to value products for external reporting purposes are too inaccurate to be used for managers’ decisions. Thus, in the 1990s, some companies began to use activity-based costing (ABC) systems to provide more accurate estimates of product costs for use in managers’ decision-making. These costing systems are described in Chapter 8.

Some important considerations in the design of management accounting systems

Several important considerations influence the choice and design of management accounting systems. We will introduce these issues briefly here, and they will be considered further throughout the text.

Behavioural issues

When designing and implementing management accounting systems, we need to be conscious of the ways in which information impacts on individual behaviour. There may be expected and unexpected outcomes of management accounting systems. The reactions of both individuals and groups of individuals to management accounting information will significantly affect the activities and decisions within an organisation. For example, at Steers the accounting staff need to consider how franchisee sales staff might behave if made accountable for a very tight cost budget. Will they reduce customer satisfaction by reducing serve sizes? How much detail should be included in the reports to franchisees, and how often should they receive this information? If too much detail is provided, will they be overloaded with information and distracted from the main points?

Understanding the behavioural implications of management accounting information is a real challenge for the Steers accounting team, given the potential impact on staff within the Steers corporate team, who are employees, and their franchisees, who are external to the business.

Motivating managers and other employees

We have seen that organisations have objectives or goals. However, organisations are made up of people who have goals of their own. The goals of individuals are diverse, and they do not always match those of the organisation. A key purpose of the management accounting system is to motivate managers and other employees to direct their efforts towards achieving the organisation’s goals. One way of achieving this is through the design of tools such as budgeting and performance measurement. In management accounting, performance measurement systems are a key source of information for motivation. One means of motivating people to commit to the organisation’s goals is to measure their performance in achieving performance targets. Such performance can be used as the basis for providing rewards. Rewards may include positive feedback (such as words of congratulation from the manager), promotions, bonuses and pay rises. For example, many large companies base the salaries of senior executives, in part, on achieving profit targets. In this way managers are encouraged to take actions that maximise the company’s objectives. A growing trend in South African companies is to involve employees at all levels of the business in employee share plans. Many South African companies have employee share schemes in place. One reason for these schemes is to encourage all employees to identify more closely with their company and its goals.
A company may use a sophisticated planning and control system that extends beyond financial budgets and performance measurement. For example, the performance of each member of a company’s leadership team may be measured by a number of key performance indicators (KPIs), and their remuneration is linked to KPI achievement. Both short-term and long-term objectives may be rewarded, with long-term incentives based on three-year plans. There may also be franchisee

REAL LIFE: WHAT INFORMATION SHOULD MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTANTS SUPPLY?

A survey of North American managers examined the type of information that managers used in their day-to-day activities and for performance evaluation. Accounting information was found useful for performance evaluation, but inadequate for the management and control of operational tasks. Many managers had given up using accounting reports and had developed their own systems. The authors recommended that:

1. Management accountants should help in the provision of physical unit data to managers. This includes daily information on physical measures for operational control, such as the number of units produced, number of units rejected, time lost to injuries, rescheduled shipments, quantity variances and units in inventory. Unlike financial measures, these are items that production managers can actually control.

2. Management accountants should play a major role in ensuring effective interdepartmental communication between sales and production. The information flows between sales and production are irregular and often undertaken on an informal basis.

3. Management accountants should redefine their roles to include managing the development and implementation of information systems. The traditional role of management accountants, as the primary providers of information within businesses, has slipped away. The scope of accounting information is regarded as too limited by many managers, and it often arrives too late to be of use for control or decision-making purposes.

Managers regarded relevance, accuracy and timeliness as important characteristics of information. However, much accounting information provided to managers did not rank highly on these criteria, because some management accountants were tied to financial models of reporting. To regain their role as primary information providers, management accountants need to become more directly involved in the operation of data-collection and reporting systems, and move closer to the managers they are serving.


A company may use a sophisticated planning and control system that extends beyond financial budgets and performance measurement. For example, the performance of each member of a company’s leadership team may be measured by a number of key performance indicators (KPIs), and their remuneration is linked to KPI achievement. Both short-term and long-term objectives may be rewarded, with long-term incentives based on three-year plans. There may also be franchisee
reward programs, operating in an environment of continual performance reporting to the franchisee community.

Costs and benefits of information

Information is a commodity, much like wheat or wool. Like other goods, information can be produced, purchased and consumed. It can be of high or low quality, timely or late, appropriate for its intended use or totally irrelevant. The generation and provision of information entails both costs and benefits. The costs of providing management accounting information to managers include the salary cost of accounting personnel, the cost of purchasing and operating computers, the cost of the time spent by managers to read, understand and use the information, and the cost of gathering, processing and storing information.

The benefits include improved decisions, more effective planning, greater efficiency of operations at lower costs, better control, and improved customer and shareholder value.

Thus, there are both costs and benefits that need to be assessed when considering whether to provide particular information. However, some accountants, eager to show that they have not overlooked anything, provide too much information. When managers receive more information than they can use effectively, information overload occurs. Struggling to process large amounts of information, managers may be unable to recognise the most important facts. In deciding how much and what type of information to provide, management accountants should consider human information-processing limitations.

The Alcoa case, in the ‘Real life’, describes a situation in which the costs of information provided by the management accountant seemed to outweigh its benefits. And this is not an isolated example. A survey of 720 Australian organisations, from both private and public sectors, identified monthly reports of less than 10 pages as ‘best practice’ in management reporting. Yet 80 per cent of respondents exceeded this target, with 30 per cent producing reports of 30 pages or more each month. The report noted that a number of accountants seemed to:

... have a ‘communicable’ disease ... [that] manifests itself in reports growing in the number of pages, print size becoming squint size and report formats not designed to aid the manager [to] locate key information ... Busy executives want their reports to be concise. Best practice is to give them fast, brief reports that highlight the matters worthy of their attention and requiring action.

We will reinforce the need to trade off the costs and benefits of management accounting information throughout this text. Of course, a difficulty with this principle is that, while we can quantify the costs of providing information, the mainly intangible benefits of improved information cannot be determined with accuracy.

Management accounting responses to the changing business environment

At the start of this chapter, we outlined some of the recent changes that have taken place in the business environment leading into the 21st century. Exhibit 1.5 provides a summary of key changes in the business environment, changes that have taken place within organisations to allow them to compete effectively, and new management accounting techniques that have been developed to support managers’ changing needs.

To improve shareholder value, firms need to increase their competitiveness. By the 1990s, many firms realised that they needed to improve product or service quality, delivery responsiveness, cost performance, and ultimately market share and profits. This led to organisations adopting some of the new management structures, systems and practices listed in Exhibit 1.5. Throughout the following chapters we will refer to conventional and contemporary management accounting
Part 1
Introduction to Management Accounting

Conventional approaches include budgeting systems, costing systems and financial performance measurement systems. These systems have been in wide use for many decades. Contemporary approaches are more recent developments, and some of these newer techniques are identified in Exhibit 1.5. For example, activity-based costing, a more accurate method for determining the costs of goods, services, customers, projects and activities within organisations, as well as for budgeting, is described in Chapters 7 and 8, and revisited in Chapters 11, 15, 16, 18 and 19. Chapter 12 introduces economic value added, a measure of shareholder value. New approaches to measuring performance are explored in Chapter 14. Chapter 15 presents new methods of cost management and time management. These include activity-based management, business process re-engineering and target costing. In Chapter 16, we describe new techniques for managing customers and suppliers, and in Chapter 17 we explore recent developments in management accounting for the environment and social responsibility. Of course, even in chapters that focus primarily on more traditional management accounting techniques, contemporary adaptations and developments are also described.

REAL LIFE: THE VALUE OF MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING INFORMATION AT ALCOA

Alcoa is one of the world’s major aluminium producers. Interviews with a sample of managers selected across a range of refineries and mining sites in Western Australia found that senior managers were so swamped with information that the analysis of cost reports was delegated to subordinate managers.

The interviews unearthed several other problems with the management accounting information. For example, many managers, both senior and junior, considered the monthly reports of the differences between budgeted and actual results to be ‘pointless’ for control. Senior managers were aware of the inevitable fluctuations in production processes that occurred during the year, which undermined the value of the variance reports. Junior managers considered that the budgets were unrealistic and provided no constraint on their spending. Managers in the mine sites also viewed the routine management accounting reports as ‘largely superfluous’ for decision-making purposes. These managers regarded information from online systems, or the informal reports that the mine managers generated themselves, as much more valuable.

The evidence suggested a need for the Alcoa management accounting team to evaluate the costs and benefits of the information they provided to their managers. Indeed, the interviews were part of a total quality management program in the accounting function at Alcoa that addressed this issue.
The 1990s have passed, and we are now well into the 21st century. However, introducing change in organisations can be a difficult and slow process. Some South African organisations are yet to implement many of the organisational changes and new management accounting techniques, whilst many others are in the midst of implementing change.

A range of contemporary management accounting techniques have been developed in recent years to support the adoption of a range of new organisation structures, systems and practices, which are a response to changes in the business environment. As we move through the chapters of this book we will learn about both traditional and more contemporary management accounting techniques.

### Summary

Management accounting refers to the processes and techniques that are focused on the effective use of organisational resources, to support managers in their tasks of enhancing both customer value and shareholder value. Key points include:

- By the 1990s South African companies had been exposed to increased competitiveness and rapid and unpredictable change.

Management accounting can be distinguished from financial accounting. Financial accounting focuses on preparing and reporting accounting information for external parties, deals with past information, is regulated by International Financial Reporting Standards, and emphasises objectivity and verifiability. Management accounting draws data from wider sources than the transaction-based accounting system, is not subject to external regulations, considers current and future information, and emphasises relevance to managers.
Management accountants in organisations may be located in accounting departments or closer to the aspects of the business that they support, such as the manufacturing operations areas. In some organisations, management accounting activities are also performed by managers from other functional areas of the business.

The processes and techniques that are used by management accounting to improve value include:

- systems to support the formulation and implementation of strategy
- process improvement and cost management techniques to help develop and manage the firm’s competitive advantage
- information to help managers manage their resources through planning and control systems
- estimates of the cost of products to support strategic and operational decisions.

The objectives of an organisation flow from the vision and mission statement, and strategies are developed to achieve these objectives. Management accounting provides information to support the development and evaluation of strategies, and strategy implementation.

Management accounting may contribute to activities that seek to improve the organisation’s performance in terms of quality, delivery, time, flexibility, innovation and cost, through modern process improvement and cost management techniques.

Planning and control systems are part of strategy implementation and assist in improving the management of resources. Planning systems set the direction of the organisation, while control systems help to ensure that operations are proceeding according to plan.

Costing systems provide information about the costs of goods and services, which is important in a range of operational and strategic decisions.

Some important considerations in the design of a management accounting system include an awareness of the behavioural implications of management accounting information, and of the costs and benefits of designing, producing and using management accounting information.

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Famous Brands website: www.famousbrands.co.za
Famous Brands: 2005 annual financial statements
McKinnon, SM & Bruns, WJ 1993, ‘What production managers really want to know . . . management accountants are failing to tell them’, Management Accounting (US), January, pp. 29–35.
Steers web site: www.steers.co.za
1 Find a website that contains an organisation’s mission statement and objectives.
   (a) Do these statements correspond with the definitions in this chapter? If not, explain why.
   (b) What type of management accounting information could be collected to help managers assess whether these objectives are being achieved?

2 Find the annual report of a South African company on the Internet. Consider the financial information that is provided. Do you consider this information suitable for management decisions? Explain your answer.
Appendix to Chapter 1

Evolution and change in management accounting

L.O. 12 The area of activity that we now call management accounting has developed over the past 50 years. Exhibit 1.6 summarises changes in the focus of management accounting since the 1950s. Prior to the 1950s the focus was on cost accounting, primarily for inventory valuation, and financial control, and the emphasis was on the management accountant as a scorekeeper for management. Cost accounting, rather than management accounting, was the name given to this area of accounting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The focus of management accounting</th>
<th>Management accounting technologies</th>
<th>The positioning of management accounting within organisations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prior to 1950</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>Cost determination and financial control</td>
<td>Budgeting and cost accounting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1965 ⇒ Profitability</strong></td>
<td>Provision of information for planning and control</td>
<td>Decision analysis and responsibility accounting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1985 ⇒ Waste reduction</strong></td>
<td>Reduction of waste through strategic cost management</td>
<td>Process analysis and contemporary cost management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1995 ⇒ Resource management and value creation</strong></td>
<td>Creation of value through strategic resource management—the effective and efficient use of all resources</td>
<td>Analysis of drivers of customer value, shareholder value and organisational innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2000s</strong></td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
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</table>

Source: IFAC (2002)

Exhibit 1.6 The changing focus of management accounting

Between 1950 and 1965 the term management accounting began to be used, and referred to the provision of information to management for planning and control. This area of accounting now included investment appraisal, decision analysis and responsibility accounting, as well as the established techniques of budgeting, and planning and control. From the mid-1980s, the focus of management accounting moved to waste reduction, and new techniques involving process analysis and cost management were added to the existing range of management accounting techniques. From the mid-1990s, the focus of management accounting started to shift towards the broader techniques of resource management, and focused on the creation of customer value and shareholder value through the effective use of resources.

In the 21st century management accounting has not abandoned the concepts of cost accounting and financial control, nor the provision of information for planning and control. These objectives now form part of the broader function of resource management. Management accounting still
involves many of the techniques that were developed in past decades, such as budgets and basic product costing principles, but these are now supplemented by modern technologies that better assist managers in value creation. (We wait to see what new developments will arise in the 21st century!) As you read this book, you will become familiar with many of the terms used in Exhibit 1.6.

Notice that in Exhibit 1.6, with each of the changes in focus, there was a repositioning of management accounting within organisations (IFAC, 2002). Prior to the 1950s cost accounting was simply a technical activity. From the mid-1960s, management accounting emerged as a staff function, providing support to line management. Staff management are managers who support the activities of an organisation as a whole, and are only indirectly involved in the operations of a business. Line management are managers who are directly involved in the core activities of the business. In the 1980s, with the emergence of new process improvement technologies and waste reduction, management accounting often became a part of team-based activities. Management accountants played a role in decision-making teams and key aspects of management accounting came to be practised across the organisation. From the mid-1990s the domain of management accounting started to become a dimension of the management process. While in many organisations the management accounting responsibilities were clearly the responsibility of the accounting specialists, in other organisations a broader range of managers, such as marketing managers and engineers, became more involved in the production and analysis of management accounting information.

Given the major changes that have taken place in the business environment described earlier in this chapter, it is not surprising that there have been significant changes in the focus and positioning of management accounting. However, it is important to note that in some organisations management accounting may not yet be focused on resource management, and may rely on more traditional tools than some of the more contemporary technologies discussed above. In general, however, we can assume that as managers’ information needs change, management accounting systems should continue to evolve to satisfy those needs better.

Management accountants play an important role in many enterprises. As a member of the management team, they need to be in touch with the heartbeat of the organisation. In most businesses, management accountants interact frequently with sales personnel, finance specialists, production people, and managers at all levels. To perform their duties effectively, management accountants must be knowledgeable, not only in accounting but in other major business disciplines. Strong oral and written communication skills are also becoming increasingly important for success as a management accountant.

### Professional accounting organisations

In South Africa, many management and financial accountants are members of the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA). There are also South African management accountants who are members of US or UK management accounting bodies. These are the Institute of Management Accountants (IMA) and the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA).

SAICA is the most prominent South African professional accounting body and the chartered accountant designation CA (SA) is highly respected in South Africa and internationally. There are over 24,000 chartered accountants in the country, many of whom work in the management accounting field. A South African chartered accountant will have a CTA or equivalent degree which represents at least four years of study at a tertiary institution. Members are required to write and pass Part I and Part II of the Qualifying Examination. Further, members will have completed a three-year training contract with a firm of chartered accountants in public practice or with an approved training organisation in commerce and industry. Thereafter, members are required to undertake continuing professional development. The CA (SA) qualification is designed for all types of accountants, whether they are corporate treasurers, auditors, financial accountants or management accountants.
There are also specialist qualifications that may be completed by chartered accountants in many different areas, one of which is management accounting. To qualify as a management accounting specialist, a CA will usually complete a postgraduate course in management accounting, as well as have experience in the area.

In the past, most members of The South African Institute of Chartered Accountants were employed in public practice. However, since the 1990s more than 50 per cent of members have been employed in commerce and industry, and many in the management accounting area.

The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA) is an international professional accounting body with over 155,000 members and students which is based in the United Kingdom. The focus is on accounting services for business. Members have the right to use the title of Chartered Management Accountant. Members have to complete three levels of qualification and have three years of relevant industry experience. The focus of the CIMA qualification is Management Accounting although students will undertake modules in Financial Management, Taxation, Auditing and Financial Accounting.

ACCA (the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants) is probably the largest international accountancy body with 110,000 members in 170 countries. ACCA has 260,000 students worldwide. In order to obtain the ACCA professional qualification members are required to complete three levels of qualification and obtain supervised, relevant practical experience. ACCA’s headquarters is in London and there are over 50,000 ACCA members in the UK alone.

Advantages of professional membership

The qualifications offered by the professional bodies provide employers with a level of assurance of the competence and skills of the accountant. Membership of a professional accounting body allows accountants to keep up to date with developments in their field. They can participate in conferences, seminars and specialist discussion groups, and gain valuable contact with other management accountants working in various organisations.

Professional ethics

The professional accounting associations offer support to members troubled by ethical issues. As professionals, management accountants have an obligation to themselves, their colleagues and their organisation to adhere to high standards of ethical conduct. In recognition of this obligation, the SAICA and CIMA professional accounting bodies have issued ethical standards in a code of conduct for their members. SAICA has determined that skills and integrity are the pre-eminent professional attributes of chartered accountants in South Africa. The Code of Professional Conduct of SAICA is consistent in all material respects with the Code of Ethics for Professional Accountants issued by the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC). The fundamental principles of the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants Code of Professional Conduct are as follows:\footnote{2}

A professional accountant is required to comply with the following fundamental principles:

**Integrity**

A professional accountant should be straightforward and honest in all professional and business relationships.

**Objectivity**

A professional accountant should not allow bias, conflict of interest or undue influence of others to override professional or business judgements.

**Professional Competence and Due Care**

A professional accountant has a continuing duty to maintain professional knowledge and skill at the level required to ensure that a client or employer receives competent professional service based
on current developments in practice, legislation and techniques. A professional accountant should act diligently and in accordance with applicable technical and professional standards when providing professional services.

Confidentiality
A professional accountant should respect the confidentiality of information acquired as a result of professional and business relationships and should not disclose any such information to third parties without proper and specific authority unless there is a legal or professional right or duty to disclose. Confidential information acquired as a result of professional and business relationships should not be used for the personal advantage of the professional accountant or third parties.

Professional Behaviour
A professional accountant should comply with relevant laws and regulations and should avoid any action that discredits the profession.

Each of these principles is discussed in greater detail in the Code and readers should visit the SAICA website, www.saica.co.za for the complete Code of Professional Conduct.

CIMA requires that its members uphold the highest standards of ethical behaviour. CIMA revised its Code of Ethics for Professional Accountants in 2006 and the fundamental principles of the Code are based on the Code of Ethics issued by IFAC. This means that CIMA and SAICA's Code of Ethics are very close in relation to the fundamental principles of each Code. CIMA provides extensive guidance to its members and provides online support to members facing difficult ethical issues. Readers should refer to CIMA's website, www.cimaglobal.com for the complete Code which sets out the fundamental principles, detailed guidance to members, threats and possible safeguards.

ACCA's Code of Ethics and Conduct is in line with the Code issued by the IFAC and this represents a principles-based approach to setting ethical standards. Readers should visit ACCA's website, www.accaglobal.com, for more information about ACCA and its Code of Ethics and Conduct.
Questions

1.1 Select an organisation with which you are familiar, and outline some of the main changes that have taken place in its business environment in recent years.

1.2 Examine the definition of management accounting provided in this chapter, and explain what is meant by customer value and shareholder value.

1.3 Consider two different products you are familiar with, and describe the aspects that you value as a customer.

1.4 What is meant by resource management? Why should management accounting be concerned with non-financial resources?

1.5 Briefly explain the key differences between financial accounting and management accounting.

1.6 Explain the key differences between cost accounting and management accounting.

1.7 ‘Some accounting information that is produced by the financial accounting system of a business is of limited use for management accounting purposes. This is because of the accounting procedures, or accounting standards, that are used in its preparation.’ Provide an example to illustrate this issue.

1.8 Where in an organisation would you expect to find management accountants?

1.9 ‘We don’t have an accountant in our organisation but we do have a financial controller. His job is to control the finances.’ Discuss.

1.10 Explain the relationship between an organisation’s mission statement, vision and strategies. Select a well-known company to illustrate your answer.

1.11 Formulate a mission statement and vision for each of these organisations: The Surf Lifesaving Association of South Africa, Subway sandwich chain, and a university.

1.12 For the three organisations listed in the previous question, formulate some objectives that each organisation might wish to achieve over the next 12 months.

1.13 Explain the differences between corporate strategy and business strategy.

1.14 Give examples of how management accounting information could assist in managing resources in a winery.

1.15 Explain why senior managers, middle managers and operations managers require different types of management accounting information.

1.16 What types of management accounting information might assist management in a business that followed a differentiation strategy based on innovation?

1.17 What types of management accounting information might assist management in a business that followed a cost leadership strategy?

1.18 ‘Our management accounting system measures costs. Nothing else matters here as our strategy is based on cost leadership.’ Discuss.

1.19 Do you think that a management accountant can play an important role in a not-for-profit organisation? Choose a specific not-for-profit organisation with which you are familiar to explain your answer.
‘Planning systems and control systems are two unrelated parts of a management accounting system.’ Discuss.

1.21 How do planning and control systems relate to strategies?

1.22 How might managers’ behavioural characteristics affect the way they use information? How can management accountants take this into account when designing management accounting systems?

1.23 Explain how specific aspects of management accounting systems may be used to motivate employees and managers.

1.24 Explain how costs and benefits are relevant to the design of management accounting systems.

1.25 (appendix) Briefly describe changes in the focus of management accounting that have occurred since the 1950s.

1.26 (appendix) Explain what is meant by each of the following ethical standards for accountants: competence, confidentiality, integrity and objectivity.

1.27 (appendix) What do you think it means to be a professional? In your view, are management accountants professionals? Explain.

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**Exercises**

**E1.28 The nature of management accounting systems**

Classify each of the following statements as true or false. In each case, provide reasons to explain your answer.

1. Management accounting is more concerned with physical information than with financial information.
2. Management accounting systems need to be flexible enough to provide information for financial statements.
3. Management accounting systems may draw on data that are internal and external to the organisation.
4. Management accounting systems are concerned with customer service.
5. Management accounting systems need to produce information that is reliable, objective and relevant to managers’ needs.

**E1.29 The nature of management accounting**

Complete each of the following statements by selecting the best answer.

1. Management accounting:
   (a) often involves predicting future outcomes
   (b) is based on objective, verifiable information
   (c) emphasises the importance of accuracy
   (d) is based on financial information only
   (e) none of the above

2. Management accounting:
   (a) has changed very little since the 1950s
   (b) is tailored to the needs of the managers
   (c) involves aggregate rather than detailed analysis
(d) is another name for cost accounting
(e) none of the above

3 Management accounting:
(a) often causes information overload for managers
(b) is not relevant to strategy decisions
(c) is an exact science
(d) can have a major influence on the behaviour of employees
(e) none of the above

E1.30 Differences between management accounting and financial accounting
Which of the following roles belongs to:
(a) management accounting
(b) financial accounting
(c) cost accounting
(d) none of the above?
1 Preparing a balance sheet.
2 Preparing a profit forecast by product line.
3 Estimating the depreciation expense for a factory's equipment.
4 Monitoring the effects of a quality improvement program.
5 Estimating the cost of goods produced.
6 Estimating the cost of a prototype for a new product being developed.
7 Preparing a sales forecast.
8 Monitoring the effects of a waste reduction program.
9 Preparing a report on customer satisfaction.
10 Preparing an income statement.

E1.31 Management accounting information
Give an example of management accounting information that could be used by a manager to make each of the following decisions. Remember to consider non-financial information where relevant.
1 The manager of a discount department store is deciding how many security personnel to employ to reduce shoplifting.
2 A local council is deciding whether to build an extension to the council library.
3 The manager of a rental car agency is deciding whether to add luxury cars to the rental car fleet.
4 The production manager in a car manufacturing plant is deciding whether to have routine maintenance performed on a machine weekly or every two weeks.

E1.32 Major influences on management accounting
Classify each of the following statements as true or false. In each case, provide reasons to explain your answer.
1 The growth of the service sector in South Africa has led to the widespread development of new management accounting techniques.
2 As hierarchical organisational structures give way to team-based structures, management accountants need to learn how to provide their services to employees at all levels of the organisation.
3 Management accounting has only a limited role to play in developing measures of customer service.
4 Advances in information technology have changed the way that many businesses conduct their operations, and the way that management accountants supply information to managers.

E1.33 Management accounting information
Identify management accounting information that could assist managers in making each of the following decisions. Remember to consider non-financial information where relevant.
1 A marketing manager is considering whether or not to launch a new product.
2 A travel company is considering whether it should increase its staff numbers by one third.
3 A production team leader is considering whether an important customer order should be produced next week, or during overtime hours tonight.
4 A fruit-picking company is considering purchasing a new cherry-picking machine.

E1.34 Evolution of management accounting (appendix)
Complete each of the following statements by selecting the best answer.

1 Most of the costing and budgeting techniques used in the 20th century were developed:
   (a) before 1950
   (b) between 1950 and 1965
   (c) between 1965 and 1985
   (d) between 1985 and 1995

2 The term management accounting began to be used because:
   (a) costing systems became more sophisticated
   (b) the role expanded to include information for planning and control
   (c) accountants were moved into managerial roles
   (d) the role focused on scorekeeping for management

3 From the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s, management accountants:
   (a) became more interested in waste reduction because of the emphasis on the environment
   (b) made detailed inventory valuation as their primary focus
   (c) added process analysis and cost management to their techniques
   (d) introduced the concept of responsibility accounting to their organisations

4 From 1995 onwards, management accounting:
   (a) added a customer focus because managers were sick of hearing about costs
   (b) added a shareholder perspective to ensure consistency with financial accounting reports
   (c) introduced the concept of investment appraisal to satisfy investor concerns
   (d) recognised the importance of both customer and shareholder value

5 Over time the management accountant has increasingly become:
   (a) a technical adviser
   (b) a staff role, supporting line managers
   (c) a part of the management team, providing strategic advice
   (d) an expert on financial accounting reports

Problems

P1.35 Designing a new management accounting system
You have just been appointed as the new management accountant for Coronet Casino, a major new entertainment complex. The casino consists of 30 restaurants, most of which are managed by the casino, 20 shops (which are leased to tenants), 4 cinemas, 6 gaming rooms and 500 bedrooms. The new complex will not open for another nine months. You are a little uncertain as to what your role will be in this new business, as consultants have been engaged to design the new management accounting systems. You thought that as a management accountant you would be responsible for developing the new systems!
Required:
1 Write a report to senior management explaining how you, as the management accountant, may contribute to the design and operation of the new management accounting systems for the casino.
2 Outline the types of management accounting information that you believe senior managers may require on a regular basis (say, weekly and monthly) to manage the operations of the casino. Consider both financial and non-financial information.
3 The casino plans to invest in the latest computer technology to run various aspects of the business, including the management information systems. Discuss the opportunities that this may present for the way in which you supply weekly and monthly reports to managers.

P1.36 Role of the divisional accountant
A divisional manager is responsible for each division of Inland Products Ltd. Each divisional accountant (appointed by the chief accountant) manages the division’s accounting system and provides an analysis of financial information for the divisional manager. The divisional manager evaluates the performance of the divisional accountant and makes recommendations for salary increases and promotions. However, the final responsibility for promotion and salary increases rests with the chief accountant.

Each of Inland’s divisions is responsible for product design, sales, pricing, operating expenses and profit. However, corporate management exercises tight control over divisional financial operations. For example, all capital expenditures above a modest amount must be approved by corporate management. The method of financial reporting from the division to corporate headquarters provides further evidence of the degree of financial control. The divisional manager and the divisional accountant submit to corporate headquarters separate and independent commentaries on the financial results of the division. Corporate management states that the divisional accountant is there to provide an independent view of the division’s operations, not as a spy.

Required:
1 Discuss the arrangements for management reporting at Inland Products Ltd.
2 Inland Products’ dual reporting system for divisions may create problems for the divisional accountant.
   (a) Identify and discuss the factors that make the divisional accountant’s role difficult in this type of situation.
   (b) Discuss the potential effect of the dual reporting relationship on the motivation of the divisional accountant.

(CMA, adapted)

P1.37 Information for management
Joe Murphy retired a few years ago at the age of 48, having built up a substantial retirement portfolio through a range of entrepreneurial activities. He moved to the Drakensberg to follow his dream of a peaceful mountain life. However, after a few months Murphy became restless and opened a ski equipment store. This single store soon grew into a chain of four outlets spread from the Drakensberg to the Lesotho highlands. Visitors who were not aware of the limited skiing the mountains offered were enthralled to try it out. As Murphy put it, ‘I can’t believe how fast we’ve expanded. It’s basically been uncontrolled growth—growth that has occurred in spite of what we’ve done.’

Although business was profitable, the chain did have its share of problems. Sales tended to be seasonal, with a slowdown once the snow had disappeared. Murphy therefore added fishing and camping equipment to his product line. The need to finance required inventories, which seemed to be bulging and left cash balances at very low levels, occasionally giving rise to short-term bank loans.

Part of Murphy’s business focused on skiing trips, which were arranged through local ski lodges, and included ski hire, lessons and lift passes. Reports from the company’s financial...
accounting system seemed to indicate that this part of the business was losing money because of increasing costs, but Murphy could not be sure. ‘The traditional income statement is not too useful in assessing the problem,’ he noted. ‘Also, my gut feeling is that we are not dealing with the best suppliers in terms of quality, delivery reliability and prices.’ Additional complications were caused by an increasingly competitive marketplace, with many former customers now buying equipment through the Internet.

Murphy was not sure what to do. The company's accountant was very good at keeping the books and preparing the financial statements and tax return, but she did not understand the way the business really worked.

Required:
1 Describe the types of information that Murphy needs to run his business more effectively.
2 Murphy approaches the accountant to seek her help in gathering and analysing this information, but she responds: ‘You must be joking—I'm an accountant. My job is to look after the money side of the business!’ Do you agree with this statement?
3 What actions would you recommend that Murphy takes?

P1.38 Management accounting information for resource management
You have just been appointed as the management accountant for Wild Surf, a surfing equipment company. This company employs a team of 12 designers who design surfboards, skis, T-shirts and board shorts. These products are manufactured by independent companies. Wild Surf then sells the products to the public through six sales outlets located at popular surfing beaches, and to major department and sporting equipment stores.

Required:
1 Identify the specific types of management accounting information that may be needed by the following employees, on a monthly basis, to help them control operations:
   (a) the manager of each retail outlet
   (b) the manager of the design team
   (c) the marketing manager responsible for planning advertising campaigns and identifying customer needs
   (d) the manager who manages and renegotiates contracts with the outside manufacturers
2 The managing director of Wild Surf is interested in developing more sophisticated planning systems, but has some doubts over the value of undertaking strategic planning. Prepare a report outlining the importance of planning systems. In your report, consider the interrelationships between the objectives of the company, its strategies and short-term planning systems. Explain how management accounting information may assist in improving the planning function of the company.

P1.39 Behavioural issues; ethics (appendix)
Janet Kaniva is the head of the sales department for a large book distributor. She manages a team of five salespeople, including her close friend, Ima Lyer. Each salesperson is responsible for particular product lines and is entitled to receive an annual salary bonus provided that he or she exceeds the profit forecast for his/her product group by more than 10 per cent. Profit for each product group is estimated by deducting from sales revenue the cost of the books sold, plus a charge for corporate overheads. Corporate overheads are charged as a percentage of sales revenue, using a complex formula based on different percentages of revenue for different product lines; and salespeople can never make any sense of their annual overhead charge.

As the year end approaches, Lyer, who sells religious and philosophical texts, learns from the accountant, Stanley Riteous, that she will not receive a bonus, as she will not achieve her annual profit forecast. She is feeling very frustrated, as she has heard that the rest of the sales team will come in more than 20 per cent above their forecast.
Lyer approaches Riteous, suggesting that an accounting entry is made to move some of the overhead charges to the other salespeople, who, after all, will still earn their bonus. Riteous refuses on the grounds that he is a CA, but he is subsequently instructed by Kaniva to make this journal entry.

**Required:**

1. Discuss the behavioural implications of the bonus system.
2. What relevance does Riteous’ CA status have to this situation?
3. How should Riteous respond to Kaniva’s instruction to move overhead charges from Lyer to the other salespeople?

**P1.40 Disclosure of confidential information; ethics (appendix)**

SmartWorx Ltd, a developer and distributor of business applications software, has been in business for five years. The company’s main products include programs used for sales management, billing and accounting for mail order shopping businesses. SmartWorx’s sales have increased steadily to the current level of R15 million per year, and the company has 250 employees.

Erin McFail joined Smart Worx approximately one year ago as accounting manager. McFail’s duties include supervision of the company’s accounting operations and preparation of the company’s financial statements. McFail has noticed that, in the past six months, Smart Worx’s sales have ceased to rise and have actually declined in the two most recent months. This unexpected downturn has resulted in cash shortages. Compounding these problems, Smart Worx has had to postpone the introduction of a new product line because of delays in documentation preparation.

Smart Worx contracts most of its printing requirements to Web Graphics, a small company owned by Rob Rodent. Rodent has dedicated a major portion of his printing capacity to Smart Worx’s requirements, because Smart Worx’s contracts represent approximately 50 per cent of Web Graphics’ business. Erin McFail has known Rodent for many years—as a matter of fact, she learned of Smart Worx’s need for an accounting manager through Rodent.

While preparing Smart Worx’s most recent financial statements, McFail became concerned about the company’s ability to maintain steady payments to its suppliers. She estimated that payments to all vendors, normally made within 30 days, could exceed 75 days. McFail is particularly concerned about payments to Web Graphics. She knows that Smart Worx has recently placed a large order with Web Graphics for printing the new product documentation, and that Web Graphics will soon be placing an order for the special paper required for Smart Worx’s documentation. McFail is considering telling Rodent about Smart Worx’s cash problems, although she is aware that a delay in the printing of the documentation would jeopardise Smart Worx’s new product.

**Required:**

1. Describe Erin McFail’s ethical responsibilities in this situation.
2. Independent of your answer to requirement 1, assume that Erin McFail learns that Rob Rodent of Web Graphics has decided to postpone the special paper order required for Smart Worx’s printing job; McFail believes that Rodent must have heard rumours about Smart Worx’s financial problems from some other source, because she has not talked to Rodent. Should Erin McFail tell the appropriate Smart Worx officials that Rodent has postponed the paper order? Explain your answer.
3. Independent of your answers to the first two requirements, assume that Rob Rodent has decided to postpone the special paper order because he has learned of Smart Worx’s financial problems from some other source than McFail. In addition, McFail realises that Jim Grason, Smart Worx’s purchasing manager, knows of her friendship with Rob Rodent. Now McFail is concerned that Grason may suspect she told Rodent of Smart Worx’s financial problems when Grason finds out Rodent has postponed the order. Describe the steps that Erin McFail should take to resolve this situation.

(CMA, adapted)
C1.41 Objectives, strategy and management accounting systems

At a recent meeting, the marketing manager of Cakes R Us, Ralph Slick, stated that the company should expand its product offerings, or there may be no future for the company. Specifically he believes that there are untapped markets for gourmet pies. The managing director is uncertain; he states: ‘I really don’t think that we can afford to invest time and money into fads. We sell cakes, we are not a gourmet caterer!’ Ralph points out that it is these new items that customers are asking for, so it makes sense from a strategic point of view to develop these products. However, the managing director is still uncertain: ‘I have no idea whether we are going to make a profit this year, and cash is always tight. We don’t need strategies, I prefer to just sell good products.’

Cakes R Us operates a series of bakeries in Durban that specialise in supplying a range of cakes to restaurants and coffee shops. Major products include chocolate cakes, scones, éclairs and custard tarts. Until last year, sales levels were fairly stable. However, sales have been decreasing for the last 18 months. Ralph Slick is worried, and has visited major customers to find out the reasons for their decreasing sales orders. The comments of the owner of one of the most popular Durban coffee shops sum up the general response: ‘Ralph, your style of cakes is old-fashioned. They are not what people want any more. Our customers prefer lighter, tastier food. They want variety, and are willing to pay more for high quality innovative creations.’

Ralph understands why the managing director is resisting his plea to be more innovative with products—the bakery has been producing the same line of cakes for 30 years. Ralph also knows that there has never been any formal planning undertaken within the company, or consideration of objectives or strategies.

Required:
1. Ralph Slick has asked for your help. As the new management accountant, prepare a report for the managing director outlining the advantages of implementing processes to determine organisational objectives, strategies and planning systems.
2. Consider the nature of the control system that you could design to report on monthly performance. What types of information do you think may be of interest to Ralph and the managing director? Consider both financial and non-financial data.

C1.42 Management accounting and ethical issues (appendix)

James Van Rooyen lives in Harding, and has recently joined the staff of his community hospital as the financial controller. He has lived in this town for most of his life, plays for the town’s bowls club, attends church on a regular basis and is an active member of the Hospital Foundation. The Foundation runs a number of very successful fundraising events each year, such as charity auctions, trivia nights and an annual ball, a highlight of the Harding social calendar. The hospital is funded primarily through the public health system, but also depends on funds raised by the Foundation. James is a very experienced accountant, approaching retirement age. Although the salary for this position is considerably lower than for his last job, he has become passionate about the value of this hospital and wants to ‘give back’ to his community.

Hospitals operate in a high-risk environment because of their responsibility for human life and the potential for litigation in the case of error. During his first three months in the new role James completes a risk-management audit, identifying the likelihood of particular risks and assessing the systems for managing them. The audit covers processes in the areas of quality, occupational health and safety, and financial management. It uncovers some potential problems in the quality area, particularly around the identification and recording processes for patient mismanagement. The major risks in the occupational health and safety area relate to back injuries for nursing staff handling...
patients, and the processes for disposing of hazardous wastes. He is relieved that a review by the hospital’s senior accountant, Craig Stevens, finds no significant problems of the financial management system.

Amalie Lester, the daughter of one of James’s closest friends at the bowls club, is the treasurer of the Foundation. At the Foundation’s most recent annual ball James noticed that Amalie spent most of the evening in Craig’s arms. According to James’s wife, who is the local gossip, Craig had become involved with Amalie when he completed an internal audit of the Foundation’s books. She is appalled by this behaviour, as Craig’s mother, who is part of her crochet group, has no idea that this is happening, and Craig’s wife is due to have their baby in just a few weeks. Amalie owns a small business, located on the outskirts of Harding, that sells a range of funky clothes and accessories. The rumour around town is that Amalie’s business is not doing well and that she owes a substantial amount to her landlord.

Although Harding is a fairly close-knit community, until now James has always been very careful to keep his work and social interests separate. However, given his accounting experience, James wonders whether he may be able to help Amalie solve her business problems or at least exit from the business without any further losses. He is convinced that her outskirts location is all wrong, as fashion businesses depend on a high volume of pedestrian traffic. However, her father tells James that there is no need to worry, as recently she seems to be doing much better. She has been able to pay all overdue rent and buy a ‘new’ car, a bright red mini, which her father describes as a relic from the 1960s! Although very relieved, Amalie’s father is unable to explain the cause of this dramatic turnaround, other than to attribute it to good luck combined with good management.

A couple of days later James has a chance to think over this conversation. From experience he knows that ‘good luck’ is rarely an underlying factor in business turnarounds and, anyway, what miracle can have occurred to enlighten Amalie’s previously lacklustre approach to management? He becomes increasingly concerned. Over the last few months, the Foundation has been through a very successful period of fundraising. Although Craig’s recent internal audit and review of the hospital’s financial management system had shown no cause for concern ‘something is not right here’, he laments to his wife over dinner that evening. A lively discussion on the possible influences of infatuation follows and next morning James leaves for work very early.

It does not take long for James to discover that in her role as treasurer, Amalie has been stealing Foundation funds. When confronted, Craig initially denies any knowledge of this situation but later admits to his involvement. He appeals to James to show sympathy, if not for Amalie’s sake, then to protect her father, one of James’s closest friends. Craig reminds him that, in a place like Harding, word will spread rapidly, ruining the lives of Amalie and her family as well as causing considerable distress to Craig’s pregnant wife.

Required:
1 Review the accounting professional code of ethical conduct set out in the appendix to this chapter. Which of the standards are relevant to this case from Craig Stevens’ perspective?
2 Which of the standards are relevant to this case from James Van Rooyen’s perspective?
3 What actions would you advise James to take, given the ethical code of conduct of the accounting profession?

Endnotes
1 A franchise is the granting of a licence by one person (the franchisor) to another (the franchisee) for a fee, which entitles the franchisee to sell the physical product under the trade name of the franchisor. The franchisor usually retains control over the nature of the product being sold, including the way the product is marketed. Please go to www.steers.co.za for more information.
2 The summary is adapted from the Code of Professional Conduct, SAICA. Copyright SAICA. Reproduced with the permission of SAICA. The rules of ethical conduct of CIMA and ACCA are similar to those of SAICA.