Barriers to Implementing the International Integrated Reporting Framework: A Contemporary Academic Perspective

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Barriers to Implementing the International Integrated Reporting Framework: A Contemporary Academic Perspective

Abstract

**Purpose:** This paper is motivated by the International Integrated Reporting Council’s (IIRC) call for feedback from all stakeholders with knowledge of the International Integrated Reporting Framework (IIRC, 2013). We specifically focus on possible barriers and emphasise the specific issues we feel could be rectified to advance the IIRC’s (2013) framework, along with the areas that may potentially hinder wider adoption and implementation.

**Design/methodology/approach:** The paper draws upon and synthesises academic analysis and insights provided in the IR and IR academic literature as well as various directives, policy and framework pronouncements.

**Findings:** The flexibility and lack of prescription concerning actual disclosures and metrics in the IIRC’s framework could allow it to be used for compliance, regardless of the other benefits lauded by the IIRC. Thus we see forces, both external and internal, driving IR adoption, with one prominent example being the European Union Directive on non-financial reporting. Because of the different ways in which IR is understood and enacted, there are numerous theoretical and empirical challenges for academics. Our paper highlights potential areas for further robust academic research, and the need to contribute to IR policy and practice.

**Research limitations/implications:** The paper provides the IIRC, academics, regulators and reporting organisations with insights into current practice and the IR framework. We highlight the need for further development and evidence to help inform improvements both from a policy and a practice perspective. A key limitation of our work is that we draw upon a synthesis of the existing literature which is still in an early stage of development.

**Originality/value:** The paper provides the IIRC with several insights into the current IR framework, and specifically with the enablers, incentives and barriers to its implementation. Also, it provides academic researchers with a number of important observations and an agenda upon which they can build their future research.
Keywords: Sustainability reporting, integrated reporting, <IR> Framework, International Integrated Reporting Council, barriers to reporting.
1 Introduction

This paper is motivated by the International Integrated Reporting Council’s (IIRC) call for feedback from all stakeholders with knowledge of the International Integrated Reporting Framework, and specifically of the enablers, incentives and barriers to its implementation (IIRC, 2017). Feedback was particularly sought from those involved with the preparation of integrated reports, the providers of financial capital and other users of integrated reports (IIRC, 2017). As academics, the authors of this paper have been researching IR practices - and actively continue to do so - since 2009, well before the emergence of the IIRC and the <IRF>. Accordingly we make a distinction between IR as a concept and the IIRC’s version of <IR> as espoused in the <IR> Framework (<IRF>) (IIRC, 2013), because the term IR was used in business parlance well before the formation of the IIRC and the publication of the <IRF> (see Beck et al., 2017).

While a range of companies have started to adopt the <IRF>, regulated financial and voluntary environmental, social and governance reporting is still dominant (Dumay, 2016; Dumay et al., 2016). The turning point and the current level of interest in the <IRF>, combined with the IIRC’s call for feedback, represent an excellent opportunity to explore the potential barriers that may be preventing companies from implementing the <IRF> in practice, through our eyes as academics who research both IR as concept and the <IRF> (see Dumay et al., 2015; Dumay et al., 2016; Beck et al., 2017; Dumay and Dai, forthcoming; Bernardi and Stark, In Press) and through the eyes of other scholars.

This paper is an extension of the IR and <IRF> literature and answers Adams (2015) “call to action” whereby she encourages “academics to engage with the process and to contribute to the development of new forms of accountings to help ensure [the <IRF>’s] potential is reached”. We seek to explore the barriers hindering its adoption, so that they may be overcome (see Dumay, 2012). Additionally, as Dumay (2016, p. 175) points out, the call to action “provides evidence that <IR> has a long way to go before it can become the corporate reporting norm because even its supporters admit that they have not achieved the groundswell of support required to achieve this objective. If the case were opposite, the ‘call to action’ is not needed.” Thus, we address the call to action by outlining specific reasons derived from the academic literature as to why the IIRC and the <IRF> have not yet achieved their “breakthrough” (IIRC, 2017).

To present our arguments next section of the paper explores a number of enablers, incentives and barriers to implementing the <IRF>, from insights from contemporary accounting research. Section 3 explores the internal dimension of <IR>, as represented by integrated thinking. Section 4 sets out our findings and agenda for future research into <IR>. Also, it provides a guide to the further development of policy and practice. The final section draws conclusions.
2 Barriers to <IR> implementation

The call for feedback from the IIRC is rather comprehensive, and addressing each issue would be impractical in one paper. However, we assume that the questions posed by the IIRC are directed to a wide audience to capture a spectrum of opinions and expertise. As academics, our position should be balanced and critical, highlighting both the enablers and barriers to implementing the <IRF> in practice. But, given the adoption of <IR> is somewhat limited, we see more merit in focusing on the barriers. It is worth keeping in mind that several aspects of the <IRF> can act as a double-edged sword – as both an enabler and a barrier. Thus, in our paper, we emphasise the specific issues we feel could be rectified to advance the cause of <IR>, along with the areas that may potentially hinder its wider adoption and implementation.

2.1 What is <IR>?

The first issue that needs addressing is providing a definition of <IR>. Our review finds that scholars and practitioners alike refer to three distinct models as “integrated reporting” (Tweedie and Martinov-Bennie, 2015; Dumay et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2017), but only one is the specific model proposed by the IIRC (2013). Therefore, we argue that one barrier to <IR> adoption is confusion about what it means. When different versions of integrated reporting exist, it is difficult for practitioners to know which they should use.

The first version of an IR model is that espoused in the King II and King III Reports, as issued by the Institute of Directors in Southern Africa (IoDSA) (2009). However, King III recommends IR on an “apply or explain” basis. While there is strong institutional pressure for listed South African companies to follow all the recommendations of King III, it is essentially a policy on corporate governance, not a specific reporting framework. In fact, “Integrated reporting and disclosure” is “Recommendation 9” of nine “Governance Elements” that fall under the “apply or explain” regime of King III, and its Recommendation 9 outlines what could be included in an integrated report (IoDSA, 2009, pp. 48-49). Notably, King III was implemented in 2009, well before the formation of the IIRC as we know it today.

When King III refers to IR, it emphasises “financial and sustainability performance” (IoDSA, 2009, p. 48), whereas the <IRF> specifies “financial stability and sustainability” (IIRC, 2013, p. 2). Additionally, shortly after the publication of the <IRF>, the IoDSA issued a practice note to clarify the difference between it and Recommendation 9 of the King III Report to “provide guidance on reconciling the two documents” (IoDSA, 2014, p. 3). As the practice note highlights, the main difference is that “King III recommends a stakeholder inclusive approach to governance, which is also evidenced in the Companies Act”, while the <IRF> Framework “is geared towards the primary purpose of the report being to explain to providers of financial capital how an organisation creates value over time”. Thus, while an <IRF> compliant integrated report could potentially include other stakeholders and still satisfy the
King III recommendations, they are essentially different reports, with different purposes. Additionally, a King III integrated report embraces corporate governance from an inclusive stakeholder perspective, while the <IRF> advocates an investor perspective.

The King IV Report on Corporate Governance for South Africa, 2016 released by the King Committee on 1 November 2016, replaces King III entirely, and is effective with respect to financial years starting on or after 1 April 2017. Unlike the previous version, the new Code adopts an “apply and explain” basis, which requires companies to apply all principles, and explain how the principles are applied. Also, rather than being rules-based, King IV is principle- and outcomes-based. The 75 principles in King III have been reduced to 17 basic principles in King IV, one of which applies to institutional investors only. Therefore, any organization can apply 16 of these principles, all of which being required to substantiate a claim that good governance is being practised.

A second IR model was proposed by Eccles and Krzus (2010) in their book One Report. This model of IR was developed before the International Integrated Reporting Committee (renamed as the International Integrated Reporting Council in 2012) was formed in 2009. Thus, the ideas the Council used to develop its draft framework were, in part, influenced by the ideas of Eccles and Krzus, along with the recommendations in the King III Report. Eccles and Krzus (2010, p. 10) outline that IR within their One Report framework is much more than just combining financial and non-financial information into an annual document, rather:

*It involves using the Internet to provide integrated reporting in ways that cannot be done on paper, such as through analytical tools that enable the user to do his or her own analysis of financial and non-financial information. It also involves providing information that is of particular interest to different stakeholders.*

By contrast, the current <IRF> advocates a “periodic integrated report by an organization about value creation over time” and does not mention how <IR> would benefit from using the internet and the power of the industrial revolution 4.0 to allow users to perform their own analysis (Burritt and Christ, 2016).

While One Report and the <IRF> have similar aims, it is apparent that <IR> will find penetrating the reporting regimes of major US companies challenging. In fact, US corporations and scholars appear to like the concept of an integrated report, but not necessarily the Framework proposed by the IIRC. Recent research by Adams (Forthcoming), analysing ten publicly available integrated reports from large US companies, highlights that only three companies mention the <IRF> in their integrated reports, and just one uses six capitals from the <IRF> as inputs for its business model. Conversely, only one company uses the term One Report in its report’s title, and the remainder does not follow or mention any specific approach.
The third model is the recent version of <IR> outlined in the <IRF> (IIRC, 2013). According to the IIRC (2016b), the <IRF> is now an integral part of the new King IV corporate governance guidelines (IoDSA, 2016). However, as with the King III and IV Report, using the current <IRF> is not a requirement. The Integrated Reporting Committee of South Africa, in fact, has only endorsed the <IRF> as “good practice on how to prepare an integrated report” but it is the substance of the report - referred to as an “outcomes-based approach”- that is important, not its form (IoDSA, 2016, p. 7). The outcomes-based approach determines that companies in South Africa may prepare an IR in any form they choose as long as they demonstrate compliance with all of the King IV governance principles on an “apply and explain” basis, and this does not explicitly demand or necessitate the <IRF>.

Similarly, there is a widely held misconception that an integrated report complying with the current <IRF> is a listing requirement of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE). The listing requirements refer to the concept of IR enclosed in the King III – the first model emphasising a stakeholder inclusive approach to governance. In fact, the JSE only issued a “Guidance Letter” about integrated reporting (27 June 2013) when the <IRF> Draft was in effect. The letter “applauds the work of the International Integrated Reporting Council” but states “In conclusion, the JSE wishes to advise Issuers that the production of an Integrated Report is not a mandatory principle from a Requirements perspective and neither is the application and compliance with the Draft Framework” (JSE, 2016, p. 445). Therefore, we argue that the misconceptions surrounding the meaning of IR present a barrier that is amplified in regulatory context where IR is mandatory. For example, South African companies, could produce reports that comply with the substance of either the King III, and now the King IV, corporate governance guidelines or the requirements of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange, without adopting and complying specifically with the <IRF>.

2.2 IIRC as a victim of regulatory capture

Another barrier to implementing the <IRF> is the appearance that it is largely controlled by the accounting profession and multinational enterprises in what Flower (2015, p. 1) refers to as “regulatory capture”. Flower’s argument is supported by Reuter and Messner (2015, p. 375) who revealed that submission letters received by the IIRC during the consultation period for developing the current guidelines mainly came from report preparers (21.1%) and accounting and sustainability professionals (32.9%). Therefore, the evidence shows the substantial influence of large business and the professions.

Although the Flower (2015) article traces the early history of the IIRC, it seems little has changed in terms of the IIRC’s composition or the influence of the accounting professional associations and multinational enterprises. For example, the IIRC’s website lists its three main partners as the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA), the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA) and the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC), firmly reinforcing Flower’s (2015) argument. Similarly, the IIRC symbolises a veritable “who’s who” of the accounting profession, with more than a dozen
professional accounting organisations represented, including the Big Four accounting firms and mid-tier firms such as Grant Thornton. Hence, there is no doubt that the accounting profession continues to be a major financial supporter and influence in the development of the <IRF>.

One of Flower’s (2015, p. 1) major criticisms of <IR> and the IIRC is that, despite its founding principle to promote sustainability in accounting, the release of the <IRF> in 2013 abandoned sustainability accounting, and this has subsequently become another barrier to implementing the <IRF>. Flower’s view is consistent with Milne and Gray (2013, p. 20), who argued “the IIRC’s discussion paper, Towards Integrated Reporting is a masterpiece of obfuscation and avoidance of any recognition of the prior 40 years of research and experimentation” and “despite its claims for sustainable development and sustainability, it is exclusively investor focused and it has virtually nothing - and certainly nothing substantive - to say about either accountability or sustainability”. This lack of engagement with sustainability accounting has distanced scholars and report preparers concerned with social and environmental sustainability. Thus, it is not surprising that the GRI and other corporate ESG reporting frameworks (e.g. United Nations Global Compact (UNGC), 2009) still dominate the global corporate reporting landscape (Dumay, 2016).

While the present <IR> framework has not changed, the formation of the “Corporate Reporting Dialogue” highlights that the IIRC is attempting to address the gap between reporting on economic sustainability for investors and accounting for ESG. The objective of the dialogue is to “respond to market calls for greater coherence, consistency and comparability between corporate reporting frameworks, standards and related requirements” and involves sustainability reporting-focused organisations such as the GRI, the Climate Disclosure Standards Board, and the Sustainability Accounting Standards Board. However, given that the <IRF> and IIRC is being driven by the accounting profession, aiming to become “the corporate reporting norm” (IIRC, 2013, p. 4), a radical rethink and a successful re-positioning strategy is needed to satisfy critics that the IIRC is truly concerned about social and environmental sustainability as much as it is concerned with “financial stability and sustainability” (IIRC, 2013, p. 2).

2.3 Vague definitions

One of the advantages and subsequent disadvantages of implementing the <IRF> is that two of its prime concepts, ‘integrated thinking’ and ‘value creation’, are vaguely defined. While definitions that require professional judgement and allow for interpretation are adaptable so that organisations can adjust them to suit their needs, they also present a barrier to implementing the <IRF> because how they can or should be applied is not clear.
2.3.1 Integrated thinking

The IIRC defines integrated thinking as “the active consideration by an organization of the relationships between its various operating and functional units and the capitals that the organization uses or affects. Integrated thinking leads to integrated decision-making and actions that consider the creation of value over the short, medium and long term” (IIRC, 2013, p. 33). However, if taken literally, it requires managers and employees to understand a matrix of considerations that combines each of the six capitals (i.e. financial, manufactured, intellectual, human, social and relationship, and natural) and each functional unit within an organisation. This may be useful for senior management with a deep understanding and knowledge of the organisation developed over a long term, but few employees are in a position to conceptualise integrated thinking using this definition.

Research by Feng et al. (2017) examines how key stakeholders interpret integrated thinking and how organisations apply integrated thinking in practice. Their study traces the precursors and precedents of integrated thinking as a concept but does not find any “clear precedents” of integrated thinking from a reporting context (Feng et al. 2017, p. 334). One explanation of integrated thinking is provided by the World Intellectual Capital Initiative (2013) background paper on <IR> connectivity, which outlines integrated thinking as a strategy that connects governance, past performance and future prospects with functional departments. In this conceptualisation, the temporal dimension of integrated thinking includes the past and the present, as opposed to the short, medium and long-term, and does not contain any relationship to the six capitals. Thus, integrated thinking, as it currently stands in the current <IR> Framework, is a newly invented abstract concept broadly open to interpretation. Accordingly, Feng et al. (2017) outline that “the IIRC has not fully defined and articulated the concept of integrated thinking, and there is no shared consensus among practitioners”.

One advantage of integrated thinking, as a general concept, is that there is an evolving acceptance of it within practice (Feng et al., 2017). However, the issue then becomes translating the concept of integrated thinking into practice because it requires changes in behaviour, which is arguably a form of management control known as a cultural control (Merchant and Van der Stede, 2007). Dumay and Dai (forthcoming) identify that for integrated thinking to work as anticipated by the IIRC, it must replace some of the existing organisational culture, because not doing so allows the status quo to remain. However, strong organisational cultures are not readily or easily replaced, especially if associated with an organisation’s past success.

2.3.2 Value Creation

Another vague concept used in the <IRF> is value creation because it is “usually presented as a simple, strategically relevant and all-embracing concept” (Bourguignon, 2005, p. 353). However, the IIRC (2013, p. 33) defines value creation as “the process that results in increases, decreases or transformations of the capitals caused by the organization’s business
activities and outputs”. Yet, when a business considers operationalizing the IIRC’s definition, it is vague and arguably makes little sense. For example, if a company takes cocoa beans (natural capital) produced with the help of poor farmers and their children (human and social capital) on the farms of the Ivory Coast (natural capital) that are fertilised with chemicals (manufactured capital) and then the beans are transformed with other ingredients into chocolate (natural and manufactured capital) that is then sold (business model) to create a profit (financial capital) (Food Empowerment Project, 2016), how does this equate to value creation? Moreover, is it acceptable that human, social and natural capitals are depleted to create manufactured and financial capitals? In the end, if natural, social and human capital resources are depleted, then even financial capital is no longer sustainable.

Reconciling what constitutes value is another barrier to implementing the <IRF>. Put simply, requiring all organisations that report on value creation to identify clearly all of their “increases, decreases or transformations of the capitals caused by the organization’s business activities and outputs” demands full disclosure of not just value creation, but also the value destruction that companies cause. This might well be one of the reasons why so few companies even bother to report on the six capitals. Therefore, the vague definition makes <IR> challenging. Also, the trade-off between capitals and its measurement is unclear. For example, the website corporateregister.com, as of April 2017, classifies integrated reports registered with them at one of the following two levels:

- Level 1: The IIRC and / or the <IR> are referenced in the report
- Level 2: The IIRC and / or the <IR> are referenced in the report, and the report includes information about at least two of the capitals as defined in the <IR> framework

If companies were using the <IRF> to report on value creation as intended by the IIRC, one would expect to see the majority of reports classified at Level 2. Disappointingly, as at April 2017, 866 reports are classified as Level 1, whereas 560 reports are classified as Level 2. Thus we argue that this evidence shows how the majority of the reports that refer to the <IRF> lack both form and substance when it comes to reporting on value creation. One can surmise that disclosing the substance of how a firm transforms the six capitals into outputs creates a barrier because disclosing value creation also requires the firm to disclose value destruction. While the promise of extra financial capital is a desirable outcome, there is no guarantee that the other five capitals will be created, when in fact, it is more likely that the net balance of these capitals will be negative. Thus, as demonstrated in relation to the “sustainable development” discourse (Tregidga et al., 2014), the abstract concept of value creation reflects a strategic and manipulative manoeuvre to place <IR> practice in a hegemonic business discourse obfuscating sustainability priorities.
2.4 <IR> for providers of financial capital

Given the IIRC primarily aims “to improve the quality of information available to providers of financial capital to enable a more efficient and productive allocation of capital” (IIRC, 2013, p. 2), it is worth considering the evidence as to whether an integrated report provides such information. Several studies have investigated the impact of implementing integrated reporting on an “apply or explain” basis in South Africa. Some of these studies concern capital market outcomes of integrated reporting in general, as opposed to the effectiveness of using the IIRC’s framework because the current <IRF> is not mandated, nor do all companies producing an integrated report fully have to comply with the <IRF>.

Zhou et al. (2017) study the effectiveness of the IIRC’s Framework and find that analysts’ forecast errors are reduced the more a company’s reports align with the <IRF>, and that, for some firms, this results in a reduction in the cost of equity capital. Additionally, in a value relevance framework, Lee and Yeo (2016) find evidence of a relationship between the degree of compliance of IR and market value, the relationship being stronger for firms with higher degrees of organisational complexity and with higher external financing need. Bernardi and Stark (In Press) “… provide some support for those who advocate the virtues of integrated reporting”. They study the impact of the adoption of mandatory IR in South Africa and find that the higher the disclosure levels of ESG activities, the more integrated reporting increases analyst forecast accuracy.

In examining the relevance of the value IR can create, Baboukardos and Rimmel (2016) find that an integrated reporting approach improves the usefulness of financial reporting for investors. Barth et al. (2016) also find that IR is associated with positive economic benefits – greater stock liquidity, higher firm value and higher future operating cash flows. Interestingly, the higher firm values and future cash flows are attributed to improved internal decision making, while the improved liquidity is credited to more comprehensive and holistic information disclosures. Finally, Maroun and Solomon (2014) provide evidence that, although the South African investment community identifies obstacles and concerns about IR, it still encourages its implementation and regards it as value-relevant to investment decisions.

Overall, the South African evidence suggests that IR in general, and the <IRF> Framework in particular, produce capital market outcomes consistent with improvements in the information environment. By way of contrast, however, Abhayawansa et al. (2016) examine whether the <IRF> is achieving its intended purpose by studying international sell-side analysts’ views on the decision-usefulness of the <IRF> using practice theory. The authors find that analysts are largely unaware of a company’s integrated report and are not interested in the information offered by <IR>. Their analysis reveals that integrated reports do not provide the information generally required by the sampled analysts in sufficient detail and format. Further, using an international sample of companies, Maniora (2017) casts doubt on whether the <IRF> is superior to other non-financial reporting frameworks for the sample of firms examined in
terms of whether the use of <IR> is associated with higher financial and ESG performance ratings. Obviously, if there is no real benefit for companies to switch to <IR>, this presents another barrier to implementing the <IRF> in practice.

The above outlines that there are two competing views on the usefulness of IR in general and the IIRC’s framework. The South African evidence suggests the information provided is useful and, further, is perceived to be so by at least one group of users, being those relying on analyst forecasts to buy and sell shares. Research in other countries suggests otherwise. Given the different histories, cultures and legal environments in place in South Africa versus other nations, it is possible that these country differences also represent barriers or enablers to the implementation of the <IRF>.

Finally, even if studies can convincingly argue that improvements in the information environment arise from the adoption of IR in general, organisations are likely to take other factors into account in making the decision to adopt the <IRF> voluntarily. Other issues, such as maintaining, increasing or repairing organisational legitimacy through ESG disclosures, may well be taken into account (see Suchman, 1995; Deegan, 2002).

2.5 Lack of regulation

A further significant barrier to implementing the <IRF> in practice is that IR is a voluntary endeavour. Moreover, research indicates that the majority of companies are not actually using the <IRF> to produce their corporate reports (Dumay, 2016). Here, we must reiterate that while most scholars and practitioners are under the impression that the <IRF> as issued by the IIRC (IIRC, 2013) is required in South Africa, it is evident from the evidence presented in Section 2.1 that it is not, and there is a significant difference between IR as a concept and the specifics of the <IRF>. As Adams (Forthcoming) shows in her research, a company can issue what it calls an integrated report using any framework of its choosing. In South Africa, a firm can issue an integrated report that substantially aligns with the 16 corporate governance principles of the King IV Report and there is no need to explain why they did not use the <IRF>. Similarly, in a guideline letter to auditors (10 October 2014), the JSE answers the frequently asked question, “Is an Integrated Report required in terms of the Listings Requirements?”, with the answer, “No, this is not a requirement.” (JSE, 2016, p. 463).

Therefore, despite the belief by many academics and practitioners that the <IRF> is the basis for mandatory reporting in South Africa, it is not.

There is evidence that even in South Africa, where IR has its philosophical and epistemological origins, <IRF> has not yet penetrated to a stage where all companies are following the <IRF>. For example, searching the corporateregister.com database for “South Africa” and <IR> returns 23 Level 1 reports issued by 10 companies and only 11 Level 2 reports published by six companies. Additionally, our analysis of the <IR> Examples Database in Table I shows only 494 organisations have issued integrated reports since 2013, and of these only 160 are from Africa. There are over 350 companies listed on the JSE, and
several reports in the database are from organisations, not companies, adding further weight to this argument. Additionally, while some reports are classified at Level 2, most of those fail to use the <IRF> comprehensively. Recent research by the ACCA finds that, from a sample of reports by 41 companies participating in the IIRC’s <IR> Business Network, only “21 of the 41 reports reviewed were clearly identified as integrated reports, while only three stated that they follow the principles of the Framework, and seventeen organisations had not explicitly implemented Integrated Reporting (<IRF>)” (Chen and Perrin, 2017, p. 7).

Source: <IR> Examples Database as at 29 April 2017

Lack of regulation is an early academic criticism of the IIRC’s ambitions. Flower (2015, p. 1) summarises these sentiments, arguing that “the IIRC’s proposals will have little impact on corporate reporting practice, because of their lack of force”. Thomson (2015, p. 21), responding to Flower, adds “it is difficult to understand how these unregulated integrated reports could enable system level sustainability reforms.” Thus, without regulation, the ambitions of the IIRC seem doomed (Flower, 2015; Thomson, 2015). Research from Australia also supports Flower’s initial criticisms with Stubbs and Higgins (In press, p. 1) concluding from their study of voluntary versus regulatory approaches to <IR> that, while report preparers support voluntary approaches to <IR>, most “investors support mandatory [<IR>] because, in their experience, voluntary sustainability reporting has not led to more substantive disclosures or increased the quality of reporting”.

Lack of regulation is also linked to weak voluntary assurance practices for integrated reports (Simnett and Huggins, 2015; Tweedie and Martinov-Bennie, 2015), thus undermining improvements in the reliability and credibility of <IR>. As Tweedie and Martinov-Bennie (2015, p. 56) outline, while recent documents issued by the IIRC “stress that assurance can improve the credibility of an integrated report, the IIRC stops short of recommending or requiring such assurance”. Instead, the King III “provides the strongest guidance stating that, ‘sustainability reporting and disclosure should be independently assured’. Additionally, King IV does not prescribe an assurance model, but allows organisations to “exercise judgement in this regard” (IoSDA, 2016, p. 31). Thus, lack of regulation may lead a weak credibility of <IR> and users trust, which can obstruct <IR> adoption.

Adams (Forthcoming) identifies further barriers to entry from a US context. The current regulatory regime in the US requires companies to issue a 10-K report that includes an analysis of business operations, risks and financial performance, which broadly mirrors the <IRF>. Thus, the <IR> framework does not significantly depart from current regulated corporate reporting practice “already subject to an extensive and well-established reporting environment”. As shown in Table 1, the current take up of <IR> is minuscule when considered in terms of the US, the world’s largest capital market, with over 40,000 listed companies.
Australia already has well-established corporate governance reporting frameworks (ASX Corporate Governance Council (ASX CGC), 2014) that require extensive disclosures on an “if not, why not” approach. While the ASX CGC does not prescribe IR, a company in Australia, as in South Africa, can produce a report complying with the <IRF> to satisfy some elements of the corporate governance framework. However, the challenge is in aligning specific corporate governance principles to an integrated report because the content elements of the <IRF> do not neatly correlate to the ASX CGC guidelines.

Arguably, one of the greatest opportunities for regulatory promotion of the <IRF> is offered by the European Union (EU). The European Directive on the disclosure of non-financial and diversity information (2014/95/EU) will come into effect for about 6,000 companies in the 2017 financial year with the first reports expected in early 2018.

The objective of the Directive is to lay the foundation for a new model of corporate reporting that complements financial transparency with environmental and social information necessary to understand a company’s development, performance and position, as well as the impacts of its activities on society.

Frank Bold (2017).

However, the <IRF> needs to become more relevant and provide specific metrics, types of disclosure in line with the expectations of the EU Directive if it to be used to comply. As outlined in Table II, the recommended disclosures relate to a host of issues that do not align with the <IR> framework’s capitals and business model. Arguably, issues such as diversity policy could be included in human capital, while links to the business model and value creation are not emphasised.

As with the Australian ASX CGC guidelines, the EU Directive does not prescribe using a particular framework, but we argue that because of human ties between the EU Directive and the IIRC that the <IR> is a prime framework for complying the EU Directive. The human tie is evident because the main architect of the EU Directive is Richard Howitt, who, as a member of the European Parliament, championed the Directive on non-financial information, while at the same time was an Ambassador for the IIRC. In September 2016, the IIRC announced that Richard Howitt would take over as CEO from Paul Druckman, who had launched the <IR> initiative in 2011 (IIRC, 2016c). As a member of the European Parliament for 22 years, Howitt knows EU law and policy-making processes like few others and has all the connections and influence to push for a more explicit recognition of the <IRF> in the EU. His political and activist profile differs from his predecessor, Paul Druckman, a former...
software entrepreneur and past president of ICAEW. In essence, Howitt can use his influence to have the <IRF> recommended as one of the reporting frameworks that can be used to comply with the EU Directive (Monciardini et al., 2016).

The key advisory company, Frank Bold, which has been involved in the legislative process and the European Commission Expert Group on Non-financial Reporting, already lists the <IRF> as one of seven reporting frameworks that companies can consult when preparing reports to comply with the EU Directive (Frank Bold, 2017). They indicate that some of the other most relevant international reporting frameworks include: Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) G4; UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights Reporting Framework; Sustainability Accounting Standards Board (SASB) reporting standards; Climate Disclosure Standards Board (CDSB) Framework for reporting environmental information; Future Fit Benchmark; and the Recommendations of the FSB Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures. Hence, there is already some acceptance of the <IRF>, however these is a number of other competing frameworks. The challenge will be how to correlate the content required by the EU with the content elements of the <IRF> because, again, they are not currently aligned.

However, it is worth noting that regulation has potential disadvantages because regulation can result in a compliance-based approach, whereby firms are more concerned with the form of the report rather than the substance of the disclosures in the report. (de Villiers et al., In Press-a). Thus, there is a danger of regulation causing a tick the box exercise to complying with the <IRF> rather than reporting in the spirit of integrated reporting. Additionally, if the <IRF> was legislated to comply with, for example, the EU Directive, then the framework would need to change and specifically outline how it can be used to comply with legislation. At this point in time, the <IRF> is already behind the GRI from a compliance perspective as the GRI has already published guidelines as to how it can be used to comply with the EU Directive (GRI and Global Sustainability Standards Board, 2017). Therefore, if the IIRC wants to position the <IRF> as a primary reporting framework to comply with the EU Directive, it appears that it needs to act soon to revise the framework so it is clear how the <IRF> can be used.

### 2.6 Rhetorical diffusion

Another possible barrier to implementing the <IRF> offered in this paper is based on Green’s (2004) theory of rhetorical diffusion. Green (2004, p. 661) proposes that “a managerial practice for which the diffusion process follows a rhetorical sequence that starts with pathos, moves to logos, and ends with ethos will have a rapid rate of initial adoption, a broad diffusion and a slow abandonment”. To understand <IR> and its claimed benefits, emerging research by two authors of this paper examines the rhetoric used by the IIRC to promote <IRF>. Although rhetoric carries some negative connotations, we argue for and support its use because new ideas need rhetoric to promote and establish them as important practices to
explore. The findings of this research show that the IIRC’s rhetorical strategy to promote IR started with ethos, then moved to pathos, then logos, and finally returned to ethos.

Initially, ethos-based rhetoric attempted to convince the audience that the IIRC’s work is necessary, good and desirable, and, as such, the IIRC should be perceived as legitimate. In this regard, Humphrey et al. (2017, p. 56) observe that “the signing up of so many supportive and powerful actors (through the various Memoranda of Understanding) may have given IR a sense of institutional commitment that could help significantly in riding the wave of teething troubles of unmatched expectations that early IR practice may encounter”. Additionally, Young (1995, p. 174) outlines that gaining legitimacy and convincing users of the propriety and need for their work allowed the IIRC, as a self-proclaimed standard setter, to shape and define IR as a new accounting practice – a strategy typical of standard setters and accounting regulators attempting to introduce change into accounting practice (Young, 1995; Durocher et al., 2007).

Then, rhetorical appeals to pathos were used in an attempt to engender change and promote the idea that changing corporate reporting is the right thing to do. Pathos appeals to emotions, and this rhetoric urged managers to adopt IR, emphasising the social value of IR through dramatic messages. IR was presented as the solution to concerns that financial accounting, as it is currently constructed, is failing to meet the needs of financial capital providers and “should be the next step in the evolution of corporate reporting” (IIRC, 2013, p. 2). Analogies and metaphors liken IR to the life-cycle of butterflies in two reports prepared by Black Sun, a PR company engaged by the IIRC to promote research into IR’s benefits (Black Sun, 2012; Blesner, 2014). Thus, positive emotional rhetoric portrays the change process associated with IR as a metamorphosis and underpins the idea that IR is an important and worthwhile journey to undertake.

Logos was used as the next rhetorical appeal to address technical issues concerning IR and lend rationality to IR. However, the analysis found several unsound and questionable arguments in Black Sun’s research (Black Sun, 2012; Blesner, 2014). In particular, their claims were based on a biased sample of current IR supporters and report preparers, rather than an unbiased sampling of corporate report preparers. Thus, using a biased sample may potentially harm the argument put forward by the IIRC to report preparers, rather than support it.

The final stage of promotion relies again on ethos. The assumed authority the IIRC has gained in the initial stages of IR is reinforced through deterministic, imperative and self-referential rhetoric and leveraged to affirm the IRF as the corporate reporting norm. Further, the opinions and viewpoints of prominent international organisations and regulators are extensively used to and referred to demonstrate support for the IIRC and the IRF. For example, as disclosed on the IIRC website:
<IR> is helping businesses to think holistically about their strategy and plans, make informed decisions and manage key risks to build investor and stakeholder confidence and improve future performance. It is shaped by a diverse coalition including business leaders and investors to drive a global evolution in corporate reporting.

Such use of third-party authorities enhances the IIRC's legitimacy and authority, further demonstrating its work as desirable and proper. Through support from external institutions, the IIRC aims to demonstrate and increase its legitimacy to maintain authority, a typical goal of standard setters (Young, 1995, p. 173). In contrast to Green (2004), in the case of <IR>, the IIRC attempts arguments based on ethos, before turning to those based on logos, and then returns to ethos.

Arguably, the IIRC’s rhetoric is persuasive, but not convincing. It is grounded on few sound and rational arguments. As outlined above, there is some support for arguing that IR in general and the <IR> framework in particular can improve information for capital market participants. Nevertheless, there is also evidence that such improvements are not necessarily universal and that <IR> may not be superior when compared to current ESG reporting practices. The use of questionable logos also causes us concern.

3 Implications for <IR>’s internal processes

Although <IR> commonly relates to external reporting practices, its rise in practice is mainly driven by internal needs of organisations. As discovered in early research on the IR concept undertaken by Todd (2005, p. 2), “there does not appear to be a significant external demand for integrated reporting” and “the main drivers are likely to be internal”, since integrated reporting “can be helpful in building internal understanding of and support for sustainability”. Such an internal dimension is represented by integrated thinking (IIRC, 2013). The focus of most recent academic research analyses early evidence of integrated reports in practice, by assessing the quality of the information they provide, as well as the impacts of IR on corporate reporting needs and external users (e.g. Eccles et al., 2015; Melloni, 2015; Setia et al., 2015; Stent and Dowler, 2015; Veltri and Silvestri, 2015). Nevertheless, although <IR> is also meant to connect to the internal activities of organisations, such an aspect has not been widely explored in <IR> research (e.g. Stubbs and Higgins, 2014; Guthrie et al., 2017b; Stubbs and Higgins, In press).

One main challenge for <IR>, in fact, is to change firms’ internal processes in relation both to disclosure activities aimed at producing an integrated report and internal decision making. In this respect, de Villiers et al. (2014, pp. 1059-1061) highlight the need for further exploration of the internal aspects of <IR> and point out issues and research questions about the internal processes underpinning <IR> in practice. The authors call for research concerning the integration of <IR> processes in management control systems, the effects of <IR> on the
engagement of senior executives, CEOs and CFOs in internal processes, implications for internal risk assessment, and the influence on management orientation and decision making.

Also, de Villiers et al. (In Press-b, pp. 6-17) call for a need to examine the impacts of <IR> on top management thinking and what internal transformations take place when firms embark on the journey towards <IR>. They argue that given the potential of integrated thinking: “managers and boards of directors could change their views and start to see the business and its long-term prospects in a different light” (p. 16). However, even though Atkins et al. (2015) found, in a UK study, that adopting IR led to the emergence of private meetings on environmental, social and governance issues between managers and investors, demonstrating the actual internal changes and benefits of its implementation, as well as understanding IR practices remains a challenge for both researchers and the IIRC alike. Integrated thinking is currently under the spotlight of practitioners and scholars (Feng et al., 2017; de Villiers et al., In Press-b) and the IIRC continues to emphasise its role as a component of the <IRF> (IIRC, 2016a). Atkins and Maroun (2015, p. 197) find that the South African institutional investment community sees current integrated reports as an improvement of the traditional annual financial reports, because of the emphasis on non-financial measures and their integration with financial metrics for showing a better understanding of organisational sustainability. However, other characteristics, like “the length of reports, repetition and a check box approach to reporting”, undermine usefulness and the development of a credible integrated thinking. Thus, producing an integrated report by combining financial and non-financial information requires structural and cultural changes to the decision-making process (Dumay and Dai, forthcoming).

As claimed by the IIRC, one main aim of <IR> is to lead changes to the internal processes of an organisation in relation to internal reporting processes to produce integrated reports as well as its internal use to support decision making. However, despite the claimed internal effects of <IR> (see for example Black Sun, 2012), accounting academic research outlines several challenges in practice. Steyn (2014, p. 476) finds that while IR adoption necessarily implies “substantial changes to management information systems”, no “better resource allocation decisions” and “cost reductions” are observed as an internal outcome of adopting IR. Additionally, South African companies do not perceive any additional outcome by “reconsidering its business model and encouraging sustainable product development”, and assessing value creation and strategy. Similarly, Stubbs and Higgins (2014, p. 1068) investigate the internal mechanisms underlying the <IR> early adoption in Australia and find that even though it implies some changes in internal processes and structures, its adoption does not stimulate “new innovations in disclosure mechanisms” and radical changes, but rather “incremental changes to processes and structures that previously supported sustainability reporting”.

Another claimed internal benefit of integrated thinking is its ability to encourage connections and collaborations in “teams from across an organization, breaking down silos and leading to
more integrated thinking” (Black Sun, 2012, p. 4). Ballou et al. (2012, p. 265) survey 178 corporate responsibility officers to understand “how accountants can add value to sustainability initiatives” and their results demonstrate that “accounting professionals are rarely involved in sustainability initiatives, but their involvement is highly associated with strategic integration”. Additionally, Velte and Stawinoga (2016, p. 40) conclude that “the integrated thinking process is very costly and not yet well implemented”, and, little is known about its costs and benefits.

As Lodhia (2015, p. 597) observes, “integrated reporting is a complex process involving a sequence of activities rather than merely an outcome in the form of an integrated report” and for an effective integrated report “organizations need to consider the entirety of business operations”, by being “clear about their teleoffective structures”, which implies the acknowledgement of economic, social and environmental issues, “their ethical values, principles and associated structures and processes”. These important internal mechanisms signal significant challenges for implementing the <IRF>.

Hence, we advocate two types of internal processes can be examined. First, those concerning operating activities for adopting the <IRF> and producing an integrated report. Second, those related to the claimed benefits of integrated thinking as a result of implementing the <IRF>. Theoretically, these are linked in a supportive dynamic, and both are affected by factors that influence the implementation of <IR>. To examine these internal processes, the first step is to identify and explore possible barriers to implementing the <IRF>, which in turn informs the examination of how organisations can realise internal changes to processes and modifications to human behaviour. Therefore, moving from just a minimum compliance with norms, regulations, directives or guidelines to actually changing employees understanding and behaviour towards sustainable development.

4 Conclusion

In this paper we ask “What is integrated reporting?” is and identify at least three different versions of the concept based on The King III Report Recommendation 9 (IoDSA, 2009), Eccles and Krzus’ (2010) One Report, and the <IRF> (IIRC, 2013). In fact, any organisation can issue a report combining financial and non-financial information and call it an integrated report without following any of the above three forms. Thus, researchers need to clarify what version of IR is being used when presenting research results based on an IR overall concept or specifically on the current <IR> framework.

Academic literature on <IR> has developed considerably (Dumay et al., 2016) since the IIRC’s published the <IRF> (IIRC, 2013). Several empirical studies are increasingly examining the overall impact of the <IR> model, but most studies include data from prior to when the <IRF> came into effect. Also, very few studies examine companies fully complying
with the <IRF>. Thus, the evidence from the field highlights that currently few companies fully apply the complete <IRF> (Stent and Dowler, 2015).

The challenge for the IIRC is to convince report preparers that the current <IRF> is good corporate reporting. We commend the IIRC on revisiting the framework and the issues, by examining both the enablers and barriers to implementing the <IRF>. As academics, we answered the call to engage in the process to help <IR> achieve its potential (Guthrie et al., 2017a).

In this paper, we have taken a critical approach to understanding the barriers to implementing the <IRF>, which can also be seen as enablers. We see that the biggest opportunity for applying the <IRF> lies with companies complying with the next evolution in regulated reporting, being the European Directive on non-financial disclosure (2014/95/EU), where the <IRF> could be adapted to comply with the Directive. What happens next with the impending changes to the <IRF> as a result of the current feedback initiative (IIRC, 2017) combined with the influence of Richard Howitt as the IIRC’s CEO who has close links with policy makers and politicians involved with legislating the Directive, remains to be seen.

Considering the consulting company Frank Bold (2017) has already identified the <IRF> as one of a number of international frameworks which has the potential to comply with the EU Directive, we can comfortably predict that the <IRF> will play a role for companies complying with the Directive which will affect over 6,000 European businesses. In this case, the flexibility and lack of prescription concerning actual disclosures and metrics of the <IRF> could allow it to be used for compliance, regardless of the other benefits lauded by the IIRC. Thus, we see forces, both external and internal, driving <IR> adoption.

However, as in the case of South Africa, there will still be no legal requirement for companies to use the <IRF>, and thus we also expect only partial adoption to suit the needs of businesses, rather than the IIRC’s ideology as espoused in their rhetorical arguments supporting the <IRF>. Thus, from a rhetorical perspective, the IIRC may not need to supply further evidence (sound logos) of the espoused benefits of <IR>, but rather its success may depend on how it provides changes to the current <IRF> to make it clear how the <IRF> is the correct framework (pathos) that companies can apply to comply with the EU Directive.

While we are optimistic about the future of the <IRF> in the EU, we are not so optimistic about the potential in other jurisdictions such as the US and Asia. In the case of the US, there already appears to be a mature model of disclosing important information relevant to investors, and thus the need for the <IRF> is limited, and the low level of take-up to date is ample evidence of the current regulatory environment as an overarching barrier to implementing the <IRF>. While we recognise that many companies may implement the IR concept, there does not appear to be any regulatory changes on the corporate reporting horizon that would cause companies to take up the <IRF>. Additionally, there is some empirical evidence to argue that integrated reporting, and <IR> specifically produce capital market outcomes such as improving the accuracy of analysts’ forecasts, increasing liquidity
and market value, the latter outcome consistent with improved internal decision-making. Perhaps because this evidence is only recently available, it does not appear yet to have noticeably affected the take-up of the <IRF>.

In closing, we argue that for the IIRC to take down the barriers identified in this review of contemporary integrated reporting academic literature it needs to adjust its rhetoric for the <IRF> towards the view that it supports all manner of corporate ESG disclosures in many different jurisdictions, rather than trying to oversell the benefits of <IR>. Supporting <IR> with more unsound logos may actually do the IIRC and the <IRF> more harm than good. Otherwise, the <IR> framework may be yet another corporate reporting fad, similar to intellectual capital reporting (Guthrie et al., Forthcoming), that briefly enjoys a moment in the spotlight but ultimately fails to live up to its promises and potential (see O'Donnell et al., 2006).
5 References


Frank Bold (2017), *Compliance and reporting under the EU Non-Financial Reporting Directive: Requirements and opportunities April 2017*, Brussels, Belgium; Brno, Czech Republic.


Table 1: Companies listed on the <IR> Examples Database

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>115</td>
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<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
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<td>North America</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grand Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>494</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: <IR> Examples Database as at 29 April 2017 (http://examples.integratedreporting.org/reporters?start=A&page=1)

Table 2: The European Directive recommended disclosures.

Environment matters: The actual and potential impacts on the environment, and health and safety, land use, water use, use of materials, greenhouse gas emissions and energy use, air pollution, protection of biodiversity, and waste management.

Social & employee related matters: The implementation of fundamental conventions of the International Labor Organization, working conditions, health and safety, respect for the right of workers to be informed and consulted, human capital management and dialogue with local communities. Human rights matters: Mechanisms and actions in place to prevent, mitigate, and remedy human rights abuses and their application, in the company’s own activities and through its business relationships, including its supply and subcontracting chains, the occurrence of severe impacts, and specific disclosure on handling complaints and providing a remedy.

Anti-corruption & bribery matters: Policies, organisation, decisions, and management instruments concerning fighting corruption. Disclosure of the abovementioned matters should cover supply chain matters insofar as it is necessary to understand the company’s development, performance, position or impact (the latter to be understood in line with the international standards).

Supply Chains: Specifically for supply chains of tin, tantalum, tungsten and gold from conflict-affected and high-risk areas, companies are expected to disclose information on their due diligence and concrete risks identified and their management.

Diversity: Policies for diversity in relation to the reporting entities’ administrative, management, and supervisory bodies on topics such as age, gender, or educational and professional background.

Source: Adapted from Frank Bold (2017)