

ACA NOTES

WWW.ACANOTES.COM

2025/2026

Sample pages: 35

Complete notes: 336

ADVANCED AUDITING & ASSURANCE – FAE - **SAMPLE**

Demonstrate a detailed working knowledge of the statutory and regulatory framework governing the responsibilities of directors and auditors	✓
Evaluate potential engagements, in the context of the Ethical Code	✓
Apply pre-engagement procedures and make a recommendation on the appropriateness of the engagement	✓
Evaluate completed audit work papers, demonstrating an ability to recognise and assess the work of the audit team – to include making recommendations to audit staff where appropriate	✓
Evaluate whether the audit evidence obtained supports the financial statement assertions, given the risks identified	✓
Demonstrate an awareness of the implications of audit issues for other aspects of the audit or for other levels of the audit to include selection and appraisal of the work of experts, specialists, internal auditors and component auditors	✓

Evaluate the system of internal control, including identification of risks within the system and related controls (or lack thereof)	✓
Identify appropriate points for the Management Letter and draft these in a suitable format for approval by the Audit Engagement Partner	✓
Your understanding of the above issues in the context of a given sector should enable you to <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assess materiality and identify any risk of material misstatement Assess the impact of identified risk at the financial statement and assertion levels Develop appropriate responses to the identified risks 	✓

Determine the nature of a non-audit engagement from a description of its content and identify the procedures to be performed in these engagements	✓
Formulate reports for these engagements	✓
Discuss the principles underpinning reporting engagements that fall into the following categories: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reviews of financial statements and of interim financial information Examination of prospective financial information Assurance engagements other than audits or reviews of historical information Engagements to perform agreed upon procedures regarding financial information Engagements to compile financial information 	✓

Describe common fraud methodologies and the associated risk factors, with reference to examples of committed fraud	✓
Demonstrate the ability to recognise and assess the risk factors associated with fraud in a given scenario	✓
Explain what can and ought to be done when fraud occurs, including the duty and right of the auditor to report to third parties	✓
Demonstrate an awareness of the legal and regulatory environment associated with fraud, including money laundering	✓

Discuss the principles underpinning audit reports, with reference to the relevant standards and legislation	✓
Evaluate the audit evidence and justify the appropriate audit report	✓
Draft the appropriate audit report, in line with relevant standards and legislation	✓

Design and apply audit tests which will provide appropriate audit evidence to support financial statement assertions, including accounting estimates, taking into account identified risks	✓
Choose and apply appropriate sampling techniques	✓
Assess the quality and sufficiency of audit evidence	✓
Consider the advent of big data in auditing to include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The impact of artificial intelligence on the auditing profession Integration of evidence Formalisation of audit through automation 	✓

AUDITOR'S ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES

When performing an audit of financial statements, the auditor must remain alert to possible instances of **non-compliance with laws and regulations**. This non-compliance can manifest through illegal or unethical activities that could lead to material misstatements in the financial statements or have other significant consequences for the client entity.

Key Points:

- **Risk Assessment:** During planning and throughout the audit, the auditor should consider whether there are any indications of non-compliance.
- **Material Effects on Financial Statements:** For laws and regulations that directly impact the numbers or disclosures, auditors must gather sufficient appropriate audit evidence to ensure compliance.
- **Reporting:** If non-compliance is suspected or identified, auditors may need to report to relevant authorities—especially in regulated industries.

Types of Laws and Regulations

The applicable laws and regulations can be divided into two broad categories:

1. **Type 1** – Laws and regulations **directly relating** to the preparation of financial statements
 - Examples include company law disclosure requirements, accounting record obligations, and taxation statutes.
 - Because these rules directly affect reported figures or disclosures, the auditor must obtain enough evidence to confirm compliance.
2. **Type 2** – Laws and regulations that create the **legal framework** within which the entity conducts business
 - These can be broad-ranging and industry-specific (e.g., environmental regulations, regulatory rules in financial services).
 - Auditors only need to undertake procedures to identify instances of non-compliance that might have a **material effect** on the financial statements.
 - For example, a major legal violation—such as an environmental breach or a government investigation—could incur substantial penalties or liabilities.

Failure to comply with either category could adversely affect the entity's financial statements (through fines, legal costs, or reputational damage), so auditors maintain a general awareness of both.

Audit Procedures when Non-Compliance is Identified or Suspected

If the auditor becomes aware of possible non-compliance—whether through inquiries, analytical procedures, inspection of correspondence, or other sources—they should:

1. **Gain an Understanding:** Determine the nature of the act, the circumstances in which it occurred, and gather any further information.
2. **Evaluate Financial Impact:** Assess the possible effects on the financial statements and decide whether the non-compliance could be material.

Auditors in certain regulated industries (e.g., financial services) must know the pertinent legislation and how to spot breaches that may significantly affect the entity's financial statements. Providing misleading, false, or deceptive explanations to an auditor can constitute a criminal offense under company law.

Reporting to Authorities and Confidentiality Concerns

Laws or regulations may require prompt reporting of significant non-compliance to authorities—particularly in regulated entities where issues might be “of material significance” to a regulator. While auditors may fear legal repercussions for breaching confidentiality, auditing standards and legal frameworks often grant safe-harbour provisions allowing or requiring auditors to disclose such concerns to the relevant regulators without breaching professional duties.

If an auditor suspects or confirms material non-compliance but finds management or those charged with governance have not taken corrective action, the auditor should seek legal advice and may need to escalate the matter to external authorities.

Error vs. Fraud

- **Errors** typically result from unintentional mistakes—incorrect accounting estimates, misinterpretations of facts, or mere clerical oversights.
- **Fraud**, on the other hand, involves deliberate acts of deception, such as manipulation or misrepresentation, aimed at obtaining an unjust or illegal advantage.

1. Errors

- Usually smaller in scope.
- Lack intentional deception.
- Often straightforward to detect with standard audit procedures.

2. Fraud

- Always intentional, involving deceit.
- More difficult to detect because perpetrators often conceal their actions.
- Can lead to significant legal and financial consequences.

Types of Fraud

Fraud can arise from the misappropriation of assets or from fraudulent financial reporting. Statistics from fraud examination bodies highlight that while misappropriation of assets happens more frequently, fraudulent financial reporting tends to result in higher average losses.

Misappropriation of Assets

Theft or unauthorized use of an entity's assets, often involving employees, managers, or external parties.

Typical Methods

- Embezzling cash receipts (e.g., diverting accounts receivable collections to personal bank accounts).
- Stealing physical or intellectual property.
- Creating false vendor payments.
- Using the entity's assets (including collateral) for personal gain.

Real-World Illustrations

- Employees forging checks and altering bank statements to hide thefts.
- Credit controllers redirecting customer payments into personal accounts.
- Reception staff pocketing cash payments and omitting transactions from the accounting records.

Key Takeaways

- Even small-scale thefts can accumulate over time if not detected.
- Perpetrators often start small and expand their fraud once they realize that internal controls are weak or missing.
- Strong segregation of duties, regular reconciliations, and independent reviews are critical in deterring and detecting this type of fraud.

Fraudulent Financial Reporting

Intentional misrepresentation or omission in financial statements to gain a financial advantage or to project a misleading impression of the entity's performance and position.

Typical Methods

- Manipulating or falsifying accounting records.
- Intentional misapplication of accounting principles (e.g., recognizing revenue prematurely, postponing the recording of expenses).
- Omitting or misrepresenting significant events or transactions.

Motivations

- Increasing bonuses or share-based incentives tied to reported profits.
- Securing loans or credit by inflating financial strength.
- Maintaining a favourable stock price or market perception.
- Hiding poor performance to avoid scrutiny from shareholders.

Consequences

- Potentially massive financial losses for investors.
- Damage to corporate reputations.
- Legal repercussions for top management (e.g., jail sentences, fines, or corporate failures).

Importance of Professional Scepticism

Auditors must approach every engagement with ongoing, critical questioning—remaining alert to red flags in both evidence and individual behaviour. Some indicators suggesting possible fraud include:

- **Strange or Defensive Behaviour:** Employees or management may show excessive interest in the audit process or become evasive under questioning.
- **Unusual Journal Entries:** Particularly at period-end, these may be used to inflate revenue or hide expenses.
- **Missing or Altered Documentation:** Substituted invoices or lack of original supporting evidence.
- **Unexplained Bank Reconciliation Items:** Stale checks, missing deposits, or excessive unexplained items.
- **Overly High or Low Inventory Levels:** Relative to expected turnover or industry norms.
- **Large or Round-Sum Payments:** Lacking proper authorization or documentation.

Maintaining a healthy degree of scepticism is especially crucial where management override of controls is possible, as executives may collude to conceal fraudulent activity.

Emerging Threat: Cyberattacks

Modern fraud schemes increasingly involve cybercrime tactics such as phishing, malware, or ransomware. Some attacks aim to:

- Steal funds directly from the victim's financial accounts.
- Access and sell customer data.
- Disrupt operations, potentially rendering an entity insolvent.

The shift to remote work and increased digital activity can exacerbate these risks. From an audit perspective:

- A crippling cyberattack might lead to material financial losses, thus impacting the financial statements.
- Entities could face regulatory fines if they fail to protect customer data.
- Adequate controls (e.g., robust IT security measures) must be evaluated as part of the audit risk assessment.

Examples of Significant Accounting Frauds

Numerous large-scale corporate fraud cases have captured public attention over the past few decades, demonstrating how financial misreporting can severely harm investors, employees, and overall market confidence. Although not an exhaustive list, some classic examples include:

- **Manipulating revenue recognition** to inflate profits.
- **Understating expenses or liabilities** to improve apparent solvency.
- **Engaging in off-balance-sheet transactions** to hide debt.

Outcomes of these scandals often involve bankruptcy, steep legal penalties, and reputational damage for all parties involved.

Fraud, whether in the form of asset misappropriation or fraudulent financial reporting, represents a serious threat to organizations. While misappropriation of assets is more prevalent, fraudulent financial reporting typically causes more substantial financial harm. Auditors play a key role in identifying potential red flags, applying professional scepticism, and performing procedures aimed at detecting material fraud. Yet, management's ability to override controls and the expanding realm of cybercrime pose ongoing challenges. Strong internal controls, segregation of duties, and a vigilant, sceptical audit approach serve as the main lines of defence against these risks.

AUDIT PROCEDURES AND FRAUD [The 11 Step Process]

1. Professional Scepticism

Auditors are required to approach every engagement with professional scepticism, a questioning mindset that neither assumes dishonesty nor unquestioned honesty. This entails:

- **Remaining Alert:** Watch for inconsistencies or circumstances indicating possible misstatement due to fraud.
- **Testing Evidence Objectively:** Evaluate whether evidence corroborates or contradicts the auditor's understanding of the entity.
- **Avoiding Familiarity Threats:** Long-term or close relationships with management can erode scepticism. Ethical standards emphasize that auditors must guard against over-trusting management representations.

When dealing with potential fraud, professional scepticism is vital. Although past experience with honest management might reduce suspicion, an auditor must accept that circumstances can change—thus requiring renewed diligence.

2. Consideration of Related Parties

Related-party relationships heighten the risk of fraud because they can facilitate collusion and disguised transactions.

The auditor should:

1. **Alert the Engagement Team** to known and potential related parties.
2. **Investigate Undisclosed Relationships:** An entity may hide related parties to conceal non-arm's-length transactions.
3. **Analyse Significant Related-Party Transactions:** Assess whether transactions serve a valid business purpose, occur on standard market terms, are accurately recorded, and are properly authorized.

Given these risks, auditors must obtain written representations from management confirming that all related parties (and related transactions) have been fully disclosed.

3. Discussion Among the Engagement Team

Audit standards require the **engagement team** to meet and brainstorm how and where the financial statements might be susceptible to material misstatement due to fraud. These discussions typically include:

- **Areas Most Vulnerable to Fraud:** Consider specific accounts (e.g., revenue or inventory) where manipulation is common.
- **Methods of Concealment:** How management could override controls or collude to hide misappropriation.
- **External/Internal Factors:** Industry challenges, economic pressures, or an unhealthy corporate culture that might encourage fraudulent behaviour.
- **Tone at the Top:** Whether management sets an ethical example or fosters earnings manipulation.
- **Unpredictability:** Incorporating elements of surprise into audit procedures can help detect fraud that relies on predictable checks.

Such open, team-based discussions encourage diverse viewpoints and vigilance, which is vital for uncovering sophisticated fraudulent schemes.

4. Risk Assessment Procedures and Related Activities

When establishing the risk of fraud, auditors should perform tailored **risk assessment procedures**:

1. **Evaluating Management's Fraud Risk Assessment:** Ascertain if the entity's internal controls specifically address fraud risks.
2. **Discussions with a Range of Personnel:** Speaking with staff at various levels—financial and non-financial—can uncover hidden issues.
3. **Inquiries of Internal Audit:** Determine the scope of internal audit's fraud-related work, if any, and management's response to identified risks.
4. **Oversight by Those Charged with Governance:** Explore the adequacy of board or audit committee oversight, which may reveal weaknesses or lapses in accountability.
5. **Analytical Review:** Use analytical procedures to spot unusual relationships (e.g., rapid sales increases in a stagnant market) that may signal misstatement.
6. **Other Information:** Consider external data or issues identified during prior audits or acceptance procedures that might highlight new or evolving risks.

AUDIT PROCESS OVERVIEW

Audit Acceptance > Audit Planning > Assessment of Controls > Controls Testing > Substantive Procedures > Audit Completion

1. Audit Acceptance

Before taking on (or continuing) an audit engagement, an auditor must:

1. **Assess Professional and Legal Requirements:** Confirm they can comply with professional standards and applicable laws.
2. **Evaluate the Client's Integrity:** Consider the ethical values of management and those charged with governance.
3. **Avoid Conflicts of Interest:** Ensure there are no operational priorities that might compromise professional judgment.

Only after verifying these factors can the auditor proceed confidently, safeguarding their independence and professional reputation.

2. Audit Planning

Effective planning ensures the audit is carried out efficiently and addresses the areas of highest risk. Essential components include:

- **Understanding the Client's Business:** In-depth knowledge of the industry, operations, and key performance metrics.
- **Risk Assessment:** Identifying areas where misstatement (due to error or fraud) is most likely.
- **Materiality Determination:** Establishing thresholds that guide the scope of testing and evaluation of discovered misstatements.
- **Audit Strategy:** Outlining the nature, timing, and extent of audit procedures, tailored to the client's risk profile.

Proper planning sets a clear direction for subsequent stages, ensuring the auditor's resources are aligned with identified risks.

3. Assessment of Controls

Auditors evaluate the design of the client's internal controls and whether they are likely to operate effectively. This step influences how much **substantive testing** is needed later. If controls appear robust and functioning reliably, auditors may decide to test them in greater detail to reduce substantive procedures. Conversely, if controls seem weak or untested, more extensive substantive work becomes necessary.

4. Controls Testing

Sometimes referred to as **tests of controls**, this phase involves verifying whether key internal controls were operating effectively throughout the audit period. Activities may include:

- **Observation:** Watching how transactions are processed and controls are executed in real time.
- **Inspection:** Reviewing records or documents indicating the application of specific controls.
- **Reperformance:** Replicating the client's control process to confirm it achieves the expected outcome.

A strong result in controls testing can reduce the amount of detailed transaction testing required.

5. Substantive Procedures

Substantive testing aims to detect material misstatements in financial statement balances, transaction classes, or disclosures. There are two main types:

1. **Substantive Analytical Procedures**
 - Comparing recorded amounts or ratios to auditor expectations and investigating significant variances.
2. **Tests of Details**
 - Examining underlying documentation, confirming balances with third parties, or physically inspecting assets.

These procedures help the auditor form a conclusion on the accuracy and completeness of the financial statements.

AUDIT PLANNING

According to **ISA 300 (Planning an Audit of Financial Statements)**, the goal of planning is to ensure the audit is conducted in an “effective manner” and that **audit risk** is reduced to an appropriately low level. The standard prescribes a two-tier approach:

1. **Establish an Overall Audit Strategy**
 - This defines the general approach or “big picture” of how the audit will be carried out.
2. **Develop an Audit Plan**
 - This lays out the specific procedures the auditor will perform.

Planning is not a one-off activity; it is iterative and can evolve as new information arises during the audit.

The Overall Audit Strategy

The **audit strategy** sets the tone for the entire engagement, guiding the development of detailed audit procedures later on. Key factors influencing the audit strategy include:

1. **Characteristics of the Engagement**
 - Identify the scope of the audit: applicable financial reporting framework, the nature of the client’s business, industry-specific rules, deadlines, and reporting obligations.
 - Determine which transactions, classes of transactions, and balances are likely to be material or high risk.
 - Review past audit issues or errors, along with the relevant laws and regulations.
 - Identify related parties and significant related-party transactions.
2. **Nature, Timing, and Extent of Resources**
 - **Audit Team Composition:** Assign partners, managers, seniors, and juniors with the right level of expertise.
 - **Staff Independence:** Confirm that each assigned individual meets independence requirements.
 - **Team Roles and Responsibilities:** Clarify each team member’s tasks and set timelines for key meetings, such as planning sessions and stock counts.
 - **Coordination with Experts** or other auditors (if needed) and agreement on deadlines for their work.
 - **Budgeting:** Estimate fees and allocate resources to high-risk areas.
3. **Need for Experts**
 - Under **ISA 620**, if specialized knowledge is required (e.g., valuations of complex instruments or actuarial estimates), the auditor must assess the expert’s competence, objectivity, and methods.
 - For Public Interest Entities (PIEs), the expert must confirm their independence from the audited entity.
4. **Determining Materiality**
 - Materiality levels help decide how much evidence to gather and what deviations or misstatements may be acceptable. (A more detailed discussion on materiality typically follows in a separate section.)
5. **Understanding the Entity (Risk Assessment/Internal Control Assessment)**
 - Evaluate the entity’s internal controls and risk factors.
 - Preliminary assessments guide how much reliance the auditor might place on controls and what substantive procedures are necessary.
6. **Preliminary Analytical Procedures**
 - Early analyses (e.g., ratio/trend analysis) can flag unusual relationships or fluctuations requiring deeper investigation.
7. **Going Concern**
 - Consider whether there are indicators the company may have difficulty continuing for the foreseeable future (at least 12 months).
 - If going concern issues exist, they affect the nature and extent of audit procedures.
8. **Significant Factors**
 - Any other client-specific concerns that could impact the auditor’s approach, such as restructuring, pending litigation, or new market expansions.

Practical Considerations for Resource Allocation

ISA 300, paragraph 11 stresses planning the nature, timing, and extent of supervision. Common roles within the audit team include:

- **Audit Partner:** Oversees engagement acceptance, high-level review of critical issues, and signs the audit opinion.
- **Audit Manager:** Coordinates planning with the audit senior, reviews significant matters, and assists with final financial statement review.
- **Audit Senior:** Directs fieldwork, supervises juniors, and serves as liaison between team members and management.
- **Audit Junior:** Performs assigned tasks, such as testing transactions and balances, and reports findings to the audit senior.

Where required—especially for listed entities or PIEs—an **Engagement Quality Reviewer (EQR)** may also be appointed to provide an additional independent review of critical judgments, further enhancing audit quality.

Continuous Planning and Engagement with the Client

1. **Team Coordination:**
 - Schedule team meetings to ensure clear communication of objectives and responsibilities.
 - Agree dates with the client for stock counts, interim audits, or year-end fieldwork.
2. **Client Involvement:**
 - Finalize the timeline for required support (e.g., staff availability, prompt information requests).
 - Communicate any need for experts—either internal (e.g., internal audit) or external.
3. **Ongoing Reassessment:**
 - Planning evolves if new risks emerge (e.g., discovery of unusual transactions or changes in business activities).
 - The audit strategy can be refined as the engagement progresses, ensuring the approach remains efficient and effective.

Audit planning is a dynamic and critical phase where auditors establish how best to achieve their objective of offering reasonable assurance on the financial statements. By setting an **overall audit strategy** first, auditors are better positioned to craft an **audit plan** that targets the right risks with the right resources. Key considerations—like determining materiality, evaluating the need for experts, and assembling a well-balanced audit team—ensure the audit is both **effective** (in identifying potential misstatements) and **efficient** (in resource usage). The careful thought devoted to planning sets the foundation for a thorough and high-quality audit engagement.

Materiality and Misstatements

Definitions and Importance

- **Materiality** - Misstatements (including omissions) are material if they, individually or in aggregate, could reasonably influence the economic decisions of users. This emphasizes the user-centric perspective in deciding what is significant.
- **Misstatement** - Any difference between what is reported versus what should have been reported in conformity with the applicable financial reporting framework. Misstatements can result from error or fraud.

Connection to Reasonable Assurance

Auditors provide **reasonable assurance**—a high (but not absolute) level of assurance that the financial statements as a whole are free from material misstatement. Because absolute certainty is unattainable, materiality offers a practical threshold for assessing whether remaining misstatements would affect users' decisions.

Determining Overall Materiality

Although there is no fixed formula, auditors typically follow **ISA 320** guidance that involves:

1. **Identifying a Benchmark (Critical Balance)**

Common benchmarks include profit before tax, total revenue, total assets, or equity. The choice depends on the entity's operational context and user focus.
2. **Applying a Percentage**

Customary practice (though not mandated by the standards) applies certain percentage ranges (e.g., 5–10% of profit before tax, ½–5% of total revenues, etc.). This process remains a matter of professional judgment, reflecting the auditor's understanding of the entity and potential impact on users' decisions.

THE IMPORTANCE OF AUDIT EVIDENCE

Auditors must gather enough evidence to support their opinion on whether the financial statements present a true and fair view. **ISA 500** defines **audit evidence** broadly, including both:

1. **Information within the accounting records** (e.g., invoices, ledgers, contracts), and
2. **Information from external sources** (e.g., confirmations from banks, valuation experts).

Sufficient Audit Evidence

Quantity of Evidence

- **Sufficiency** refers to **how much** evidence is required.
- Determined by the **risk of material misstatement** and **materiality** thresholds.
- In practice, higher risk areas require **more** evidence (e.g., larger sample sizes).
- Merely increasing the quantity of evidence does not compensate for poor quality; the two dimensions—quantity and quality—are **interrelated**.

Sample Size and Coverage

The question of “how much” typically translates into **sample size** and coverage decisions. For instance, if controls testing reveals weaknesses in recording certain transactions, the auditor may expand sampling to gather further evidence ensuring no material errors escape detection.

Appropriate Audit Evidence

Reliability

ISA 500 highlights that reliability varies based on factors such as:

- **Independence of the source** (e.g., direct confirmations from a bank are more reliable than internal statements).
- **Effectiveness of internal controls** (internally generated reports are more credible if the controls producing them are strong).
- **Direct auditor knowledge** (e.g., re-performance of a calculation is typically more reliable).
- **Documentary vs. verbal** (written evidence tends to be more reliable).
- **Original documents vs. copies** (original documents reduce the risk of alterations).

Relevance

Relevance relates to whether the evidence directly addresses the **assertion** (or audit objective) under test. For example:

- If the auditor needs to test **valuation** of receivables, confirmations from customers only show the **existence** of those receivables. They do not necessarily confirm the customers’ ability or willingness to pay. Other procedures (e.g., subsequent cash receipts review) better address valuation.

Tying Evidence to Management Assertions

The concept of **management assertions** (or audit objectives) underpins audit procedures. Each line item and disclosure is tested for one or more relevant assertions, such as:

- **Existence/Occurrence**
- **Completeness**
- **Rights and Obligations**
- **Accuracy/Valuation**
- **Cut-off**
- **Presentation and Disclosure**

In practice, some audit procedures (e.g., inspecting subsequent receipts for receivables) can provide **dual coverage**—addressing both existence and valuation.

In fulfilling **ISA 500’s** requirement for **sufficient appropriate evidence**, auditors must balance **quantity** (sufficiency) against **quality** (appropriateness)—ensuring the evidence is both reliable and relevant to the particular **risk** and **assertion** under examination. By doing so, auditors gain the necessary assurance that each significant account balance, transaction class, or disclosure is free from material misstatement, allowing them to provide a well-founded audit opinion on the financial statements.

METHODS OF OBTAINING AUDIT EVIDENCE

1. Inspection

Inspection involves examining documents, records, or tangible assets. Examples include looking at original invoices, contracts, purchase orders, or physically verifying an asset's existence.

Key Considerations

1. **Source of Documentation**
 - Externally generated evidence (e.g., supplier invoices, bank statements) is generally more reliable than documents produced internally.
 - Documents received directly from a third party (bypassing the client) further enhance reliability.
2. **Potential for Manipulation**
 - Auditors must evaluate whether there is any opportunity for management to alter documents.

Illustrative Examples

- Inspecting an original bank statement to confirm the **existence** of a cash balance.
- Vouching an investment's carrying amount to an independent stock exchange price.

2. Observation

Observation entails watching a process or procedure carried out by the client entity, such as a physical inventory count or a cash handling process.

Key Considerations

1. **Limitations**
 - Observation rarely provides complete assurance on its own. People may behave differently when they know they are being watched.
2. **Unexpected Visits**
 - Unannounced observation can offer a truer reflection of normal procedures, but it can be logistically challenging.

Illustrative Examples

- Observing a year-end inventory count to confirm that goods recorded in the client's system actually **exist**.
- Observing how sales invoices are processed to judge if controls over revenue recognition are operating effectively.

3. External Confirmation

External confirmations involve obtaining written (or electronic) verifications of information from independent third parties. These responses are directed straight to the auditor, enhancing reliability.

Key Considerations

1. **High Persuasiveness**
 - Because the information originates outside the client organization, it is less susceptible to manipulation.
2. **Automation Advances**
 - Artificial Intelligence (AI) can streamline sending requests and analysing confirmations, reducing turnaround time.

Illustrative Examples

- Requesting confirmation from banks of period-end balances.
- Sending receivable confirmations to the client's customers to confirm outstanding balances.
- Verifying inventory quantities and locations with external warehouse operators.

4. Recalculation

Recalculation involves the auditor independently recomputing financial information or supporting details to verify mathematical accuracy.

Key Considerations

- Useful for checking computations in client-prepared schedules or journals.
- Helps confirm that recorded amounts align with underlying data (e.g., verifying currency exchange rates, depreciation rates).

Illustrative Examples

- Re-checking the additions in a payables or receivables listing.
- Recomputing depreciation charges and comparing these to the client's calculations.

LEVELS OF MATERIAL MISSTATEMENT

Financial Statement (Entity) Level

- **Financial statement–level risks** are typically **pervasive**, meaning they can affect multiple accounts and disclosures.
- Common drivers of these risks include the **control environment**, **fraud risk**, and **management override** of controls.
- Because these risks can undermine the reliability of the entire financial statements, they demand a broad, high-level response from the auditor.

Auditor's Response to Entity-Level Risks

1. **Evaluate Significance**
 - If the risk is severe (e.g., significant doubt about going concern), the auditor must devote additional effort or consider more fundamental changes in the audit approach.
2. **Assign Competent Personnel**
 - Match the engagement team's skills and experience to the complexity and severity of the identified risks.
 - Ensure adequate supervision and review protocols.
3. **Consider the Need for Experts**
 - If certain areas require specialized knowledge (e.g., complex valuations, IT systems), the auditor may engage actuarial, IT, or other specialists.
4. **Going Concern Indicators**
 - If the business model faces financial or operational difficulties, the auditor must assess management's basis for preparing the financial statements under the going concern assumption.

Assertion (Classes of Transactions, Account Balance, and Disclosure) Level

- **Assertion-level risks** typically impact specific balances, transactions, or disclosures.
- For instance, a risk concerning the **completeness** of revenue would only affect that assertion for that transaction class, rather than the entire set of financial statements.

Auditor's Response to Assertion-Level Risks

1. **Nature, Timing, and Extent of Procedures**
 - Tailor substantive and, where relevant, controls testing to the **specific** risk identified for each account, transaction class, or disclosure.
 - Example: If a high risk of revenue manipulation is identified, the auditor might perform more extensive cut-off testing or analytics on unusual revenue entries at period-end.
2. **Assertions to Test**
 - Consider which **assertion** (e.g., occurrence, completeness, accuracy, valuation, presentation) is threatened by the identified risk.
 - Select or design procedures that address that specific assertion effectively.

Examples: Financial Statement–Level vs. Assertion-Level Risks

Financial Statement–Level (Entity) Risks

- Management override of controls: Potentially affects all aspects of financial reporting.
- Weak governance structure or a deficient control environment: Could undermine multiple transaction cycles (e.g., procurement, sales, payroll).
- Going concern uncertainties: Could require disclosure adjustments or more fundamental changes to the financial statements.

Assertion-Level Risks

- Overstated revenue: Specifically targets **occurrence** or **cut-off** assertions in the revenue class of transactions.
 - Understated allowances for receivables: Affects **valuation** assertion for the receivables account balance.
 - Incomplete disclosures of factoring arrangements: Targets **completeness** and **presentation** assertions in the notes to the financial statements.
-

THE LAYERED APPROACH TO AUDIT RISK

According to the text, auditors take a **layered view** of risk:

1. **Inherent Risk** – The susceptibility of an account or class of transactions to material misstatement before considering controls.
2. **Control Risk** – The risk that the client’s internal controls fail to prevent or detect material misstatements in a timely manner.

When combining **inherent** and **control** risks (together known as **risk of material misstatement**), the auditor gauges how likely errors could “flow into the financial statements.” This indicates how much **detective effort** (i.e., **detection risk management**) is needed—more risk of misstatement means the auditor must conduct more extensive or rigorous testing.

Example: Foreign Exchange Transactions

The text provides an example of **foreign exchange volatility**:

1. **No Relevant Transactions** – If the client **only transacts in a single currency**, foreign exchange fluctuations pose **no inherent risk** for the financial statements.
2. **Exposure** – If the client deals in multiple currencies, **inherent risk** arises from possible exchange rate errors or mismanagement.
3. **Adequate Controls** – Strong internal controls around foreign currency processes (e.g., hedging strategies, reliable FX rate inputs, accurate reconciliation) can mitigate that inherent risk, lowering overall risk of material misstatement in the financial statements.
4. **Impact on Audit Work** – Where controls are strong, the auditor performs **less extensive** substantive testing on foreign currency transactions. If controls are weak, the auditor must **increase the scope or depth** of tests around these transactions.

Determining the Required Testing

Because **audit risk** equals inherent risk × control risk × detection risk, the process can be summarized as follows:

1. **Assess Inherent Risk:** Identify high-risk transactions, balances, or events (like foreign currency transactions).
2. **Evaluate Internal Controls:** Decide whether they effectively mitigate the identified risks.
3. **Decide on Detection Efforts:** The more residual risk remains after assessing controls, the more rigorous or extensive the auditor’s procedures must be (nature, timing, and extent).

This methodology ensures the auditor’s resources are deployed proportionally to the areas of greatest uncertainty or susceptibility to error.

By **layering** the assessment of **inherent** and **control** risks, the auditor discerns how likely it is that significant misstatements could enter and remain in the financial statements. In areas where controls do not sufficiently mitigate inherent risks, the auditor **expands** their substantive procedures. Conversely, if the entity’s controls are sound and effectively mitigate risk, less extensive testing is justified. This risk-based approach optimizes audit efficiency and ensures that the **detection risk** is maintained at an acceptably low level consistent with **reasonable assurance**

Risk of Material Misstatement vs. Detection Risk

1. **High Risk of Material Misstatement** (High Inherent and Control Risks)
 - The auditor cannot rely much on the entity’s internal environment or controls.
 - To achieve reasonable assurance, the auditor must **lower detection risk** through more extensive, detailed substantive testing.
2. **Low Risk of Material Misstatement** (Low Inherent and Control Risks)
 - The auditor can place more reliance on the client’s processes and controls.
 - The auditor can **accept a higher detection risk**, meaning they perform fewer or less rigorous substantive tests, as the likelihood of misstatements making it into the financial statements is lower.

Practical Examples

1. **High-Risk Environment**
 - Suppose an entity deals in complex financial instruments without robust controls.
 - **Inherent Risk** is high (complex transactions) and **Control Risk** is high (few mitigating controls).
 - **Auditor’s Response:** Conduct extensive substantive procedures (e.g., detailed valuation testing) to keep **Detection Risk** low.

THE AUDITOR'S APPROACH TO ASSESSING THE RISK OF MATERIAL MISSTATEMENT

Understanding the Entity and Its Environment

To design a meaningful audit plan, the auditor must understand:

1. **Nature of the Business** – The entity's industry, regulatory context, operations, and any use of IT in its business model.
2. **Applicable Financial Reporting Framework** – Accounting standards and policies, including any changes in the current period.
3. **Risks of Material Misstatement** – How inherent risk factors (e.g., complexity, subjectivity, change) impact various assertions, as well as how effectively internal controls mitigate those risks.

Key Points:

- This understanding is not static but **iterative**; new information discovered during the audit may warrant revisiting risk assessments.
- Scalability** means adapting procedures depending on whether the entity's environment is "less complex or more complex" (per ISA 315).

Linking Risk Assessment to Audit Planning

The auditor's findings from risk assessment procedures influence:

- **Materiality** (low risk may allow for higher materiality, while high risk suggests reducing materiality).
- **Going Concern Evaluation** (understanding business viability and liquidity challenges).
- **Identification of Significant Risks** (areas needing specialized attention).
- **Reliance on Management's Representations** (and how they must be corroborated).

Risk Assessment Procedures

ISA 315 prescribes **inquiries, observation, inspection, analytical procedures, and engagement team discussions** as prime methods to gather information on entity risks.

Inquiries of Management and Others

- **Objective:** Corroborate management's statements about controls, account balances, and changes in operations.
- **Benefits:** Talking to personnel beyond management (e.g., in-house legal counsel, internal audit, sales/marketing staff) may provide different perspectives or reveal undisclosed issues.

Observation and Inspection

- **Observation:** Watching processes (e.g., how segregation of duties is actually performed).
- **Inspection:** Reviewing documents, manuals, minutes of meetings, or even drone-based site inspections.
- **Purpose:** Validate claims from management and detect red flags in real time.

Analytical Procedures

- **Risk Identification:** Performing broad comparisons (actual vs. budget, prior year, or industry benchmarks) to spot unusual trends or variances.
- **Different Stages:**
 1. **Planning** – Identify potential areas of misstatement.
 2. **Substantive Testing** – Obtain evidence supporting specific balances.
 3. **Completion** – Final plausibility checks on overall financials.

Engagement Team Discussions

- **"Brainstorming":** The team, including experienced auditors, shares insights from past audits or newly discovered risks.
- **Objective:** Ensure everyone is updated on potential fraud scenarios, changes in the entity's business, or suspected control weaknesses.

Information from Other Sources

- **Prior Year Audits:** For recurring engagements, prior knowledge must be updated if significant changes occurred.
- **Acceptance/Continuance Files:** Any red flags or known issues may shape current risk assessment.

INTERNAL CONTROL AND ITS PURPOSE

Per **COSO** (Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission): “Internal control is a process, effected by an entity’s board of directors, management, and other personnel, designed to provide reasonable assurance regarding the achievement of objectives relating to operations, reporting, and compliance.”

This means internal control isn’t limited to detecting fraud or error; rather, it underpins the **orderly running** of the business and helps ensure that management’s objectives are met.

Key Objectives

- **Safeguarding Assets:** Protecting the company’s resources from misuse, theft, or loss.
- **Accurate and Complete Accounting Records:** Ensuring transactions are properly classified, recorded, and accounted for.
- **Timely Preparation of Financial Information:** Facilitates informed decision-making and compliance with reporting deadlines.
- **Efficient Operations:** Adherence to internal policies and streamlined processes.
- **Prevention and Detection of Fraud:** Providing confidence that significant misstatements will not go undetected.

Responsibilities for Internal Control

While top management (especially the **CEO**) bears ultimate responsibility for the internal control system, several key groups also contribute:

1. **Board of Directors:** Sets the tone and oversees risk management policies.
2. **Management:** Implements control policies and procedures, communicating expectations down through the organization.
3. **Employees:** Follow established policies, perform duties diligently, and alert management to potential control failures.
4. **Internal Auditors:** Evaluate internal controls, report on deficiencies, and recommend improvements.
5. **External Auditors:** Although they do not design or implement controls, they assess whether the internal controls sufficiently mitigate the risk of material misstatement in the financial statements.

Components of Internal Control (COSO)

COSO’s Internal Control – Integrated Framework outlines five core components, forming the basis of any robust control system:

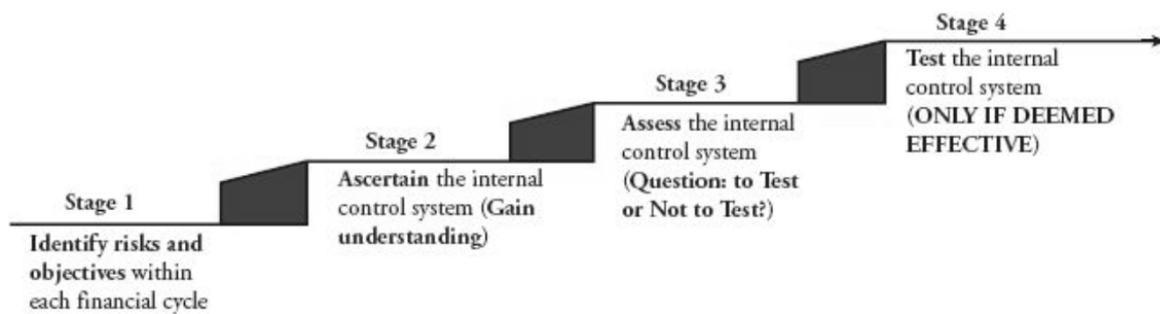
1. **Control Environment**
 - The “tone at the top,” ethical values, and the overall attitude toward control.
2. **Risk Assessment**
 - Entity-wide and activity-level processes to identify, analyse, and manage relevant risks.
3. **Control Activities**
 - Policies and procedures designed to mitigate identified risks, e.g., approvals, verifications, reconciliations, segregation of duties.
4. **Information and Communication**
 - Systems that capture and share pertinent information, ensuring employees understand their roles and that external disclosures are accurate.
5. **Monitoring Activities**
 - Ongoing and separate evaluations of the internal control system’s effectiveness, with timely remediation of identified deficiencies.

ISA 315 Alignment

ISA 315 requires the external auditor to understand these five components in assessing the risks of material misstatement. This knowledge guides decisions on the **nature, timing, and extent** of both controls testing and substantive procedures.

A well-structured **internal control system** not only fulfils management’s operational and strategic objectives but also provides a foundation for accurate, reliable financial reporting. From the auditor’s perspective, evaluating the design and effectiveness of internal controls is essential for identifying and responding to the **risks of material misstatement**. The **COSO framework** offers a comprehensive approach, covering the control environment, risk assessment, control activities, information and communication, and monitoring—each of which must be considered by the external auditor when planning and performing an effective audit

STAGES IN REVIEWING INTERNAL CONTROLS



STAGE 1 - Identify Risks and Objectives within each Financial Cycle

Identifying Risks in Each Financial Cycle

- 1. Building on Planning-Stage Risk Assessment**
 - The auditor begins with inherent risks discovered during the **planning phase**.
 - These risks reflect both the entity's **current operating environment** and **general inherent risks** inherent to the type of transactions or industry.
- 2. Finding Controls That Mitigate Identified Risks**
 - The auditor reviews the client's internal control system to see which controls directly address or reduce these inherent risks.
 - If controls are found to be robust, the risk of material misstatement is **lowered**.
 - If controls are weak or non-existent, new (previously unidentified) risks may arise, and the overall risk escalates.

Linking Risks to Financial Statement Assertions

- 1. Relevance of Assertions**
 - Assertions (e.g., completeness, accuracy, valuation, occurrence, rights/obligations) frame how the auditor tests each class of transactions and account balance.
 - **Example:** A seasonal business (like agriculture) has a high inherent risk in revenue and receivables. If the auditor focuses on the **valuation** assertion of receivables, they would look for specific controls that validate customers' ability to pay (e.g., credit checks).
- 2. Objective**
 - To identify and verify controls that **specifically** mitigate the risk at the **assertion level**.
 - For instance, if the risk is uncollectible receivables, the auditor checks whether controls (such as consistent credit checks or monitoring overdue balances) effectively manage the **valuation** assertion for receivables.

Significance for the Audit Approach

- 1. Targeted Control Testing**
 - Once the auditor identifies relevant controls that address key assertions, they can **test** these controls.
 - If tests confirm controls are **effective**, the auditor can reduce substantive procedures for that assertion.
- 2. Heightened Substantive Work if Controls are Weak**
 - If controls do not sufficiently address the risk, the auditor performs more in-depth substantive procedures (e.g., larger sample sizes, more direct verifications).

Key Takeaway

Stage 1 of control assessment involves **pinpointing the inherent risks in each financial cycle** and correlating them with the **assertions** (audit objectives) that might be most affected. By then verifying which **controls** protect those assertions, the auditor narrows their focus on **weak or missing controls**, guiding subsequent audit testing efficiently and effectively

COMPUTER-ASSISTED AUDIT TECHNIQUES AND OTHER TECHNOLOGY CONSIDERATIONS

Benefits of CAATs

1. **Automation of Audit Tasks:** CAATs automate repetitive and mundane audit activities, freeing up the audit team to concentrate on more complex and value-added tasks. This automation not only speeds up the audit process by allowing continuous operation but also ensures that tasks are performed consistently without fatigue-related errors.
2. **Comprehensive Data Analysis:** Unlike traditional manual sampling methods, CAATs enable auditors to examine entire data populations or significantly larger subsets. This comprehensive analysis increases the likelihood of detecting anomalies, errors, or fraudulent activities that might be missed with limited sampling.
3. **Enhanced Scrutiny of Transactions:** With the ability to handle large volumes of data, CAATs facilitate detailed examination of transactions, particularly focusing on those that are erroneous or exceptional. This targeted scrutiny improves the overall quality of the audit by ensuring that significant transactions receive appropriate attention.
4. **Accuracy and Speed:** CAATs provide greater precision and faster processing compared to manual methods. Automated calculations and data processing reduce the risk of human error and accelerate the audit timeline.
5. **Reusability of Audit Tests:** Common audit tests can be designed and programmed once, then reused across multiple audits or different entities. This reusability enhances audit efficiency by reducing the time and effort required to develop new tests for each audit engagement.
6. **Uniform Interface:** CAATs offer a standardized and user-friendly interface for conducting audit tests, irrespective of the client's data formats. This uniformity simplifies the audit process and reduces the learning curve for auditors working with diverse systems.
7. **Exception Recording:** CAATs can automatically log exceptions encountered during the audit, such as unreviewed work or missing tests. This feature helps auditors track and address issues systematically, ensuring thoroughness in the audit process.
8. **Security Testing:** In environments like e-commerce, CAATs can perform attack and penetration testing to identify and mitigate vulnerabilities in networks. This capability is crucial for assessing the security measures of the client's IT infrastructure.
9. **Long-Term Cost-Effectiveness:** Although the initial setup of CAATs, including specialized software or custom programs, can be costly, these tools prove cost-effective over time. They can be adapted for future audits with minimal modifications, providing sustained value and efficiency gains.

CAATs: Planning Considerations

Effective implementation of CAATs requires careful planning and consideration of several factors to ensure that the tools are utilized to their full potential:

1. **Expertise and Skills:** The audit team must possess the necessary expertise to design and execute CAATs. While CAATs can perform complex tasks, they still rely on the auditor's input and judgment. Auditors need strong audit knowledge, an understanding of the client's operations, and proficiency in the relevant technology to develop effective audit tests.
2. **System Compatibility:** It is essential to ensure that the CAATs are compatible with the client's IT systems and software. This compatibility allows for seamless data extraction and analysis. Advances in technology, such as software robotics and artificial intelligence, have mitigated many compatibility issues, making integration smoother.
3. **Data Access and Security Concerns:** Clients may have reservations about granting auditors access to their data, fearing potential disruptions or data breaches. To address these concerns, auditors can work on copies of the data rather than the live system, minimizing the risk of interference and ensuring the integrity of the client's operations.
4. **Maintenance and Upgrades:** CAATs require ongoing maintenance and periodic upgrades to remain effective and secure. Audit firms must ensure that their CAAT systems are kept up-to-date and that the audit team receives continuous training to stay proficient with the latest tools and techniques.
5. **Data Validation:** Before conducting any analysis, auditors must validate the data to ensure it accurately reflects the account balances, transactions, and disclosures being tested. For instance, if auditing revenue records, the downloaded data should be reconciled with the trial balance to confirm its accuracy and relevance to the audit objectives.
6. **Relevance of Tests:** Auditors must ensure that the tests performed using CAATs are directly aligned with the audit objectives. This alignment guarantees that the results of the CAATs are meaningful and contribute effectively to the overall audit conclusions.

DATA ANALYTICS

Data analytics has become an integral part of modern auditing, leveraging sophisticated software to enhance the analysis of financial and operational data. Unlike traditional manual methods, data analytics software allows auditors to efficiently extract, process, and interpret large datasets, uncovering patterns, irregularities, and insights that may indicate fraud, errors, or control deficiencies.

Importance of Data Analytics in Auditing

For auditors, data analytics is the most commonly used Computer-Assisted Audit Technique (CAAT) due to its ability to handle vast amounts of data with precision and speed. By extracting data from a client's accounts and utilizing audit software, auditors can perform a variety of queries and analyses. The outcomes are typically presented in easily interpretable formats such as tables and graphs, enabling auditors to swiftly identify anomalies or trends that warrant further investigation.

Benefits of Using Data Analytics Software

1. **Handling Large Volumes of Data:** Data analytics software can capture and interrogate extensive volumes of structured transaction data, which would be impractical to analyse manually.
2. **Incorporating Diverse Data Types:** Beyond structured data, these tools can integrate unstructured data from sources like emails, documents, social media, and multimedia files, providing a more comprehensive analysis.
3. **Enhanced Accuracy:** Automated processing reduces the likelihood of human error, ensuring more accurate and complete results compared to manual methods.
4. **Increased Speed:** Data analytics allows auditors to perform procedures rapidly and run processes continuously, significantly shortening audit timelines.
5. **Cost Efficiency:** Automation and increased efficiency lead to cost savings, as tasks are completed faster and with fewer resources.
6. **Flexibility in Querying:** Pre-formatted data can be easily queried in new ways, allowing auditors to explore different angles without extensive reformatting.
7. **Advanced Visual Reporting:** The seamless generation of charts and graphs facilitates clearer communication of findings and supports better decision-making.

Additionally, electronic data extraction from accounting software and the use of Optical Character Recognition (OCR) technology enable auditors to incorporate both digital and physical records into their analyses seamlessly.

Features of Data Analytics Software

- **Data Queries:** Allows auditors to search and retrieve specific data points.
- **Data Stratification:** Segregates data into meaningful categories for targeted analysis.
- **Sample Extractions:** Facilitates the selection of representative samples from large datasets.
- **Missing Sequence Identification:** Detects gaps or inconsistencies in data sequences.
- **File and Table Integration:** Combines multiple data sources for comprehensive analysis.
- **Comparative Analysis:** Compares data across different sources to identify discrepancies.
- **Statistical Analysis:** Performs complex calculations to derive insights.
- **Data Visualization:** Creates graphs and tables to represent data visually.

Data Preparation

Effective data analytics begins with meticulous data preparation, which involves three key steps:

1. **Extract:** Data is extracted from the client's systems using various applications and formats. This step ensures that all relevant data is captured for analysis.
2. **Transform:** Extracted data often requires modification to become analysis-ready. This involves checking for and rectifying inconsistencies to ensure data integrity. Common transformation tasks include:
 - **Formatting Corrections:** Standardizing currency formats, date formats, and other data types.
 - **Error Correction:** Fixing text errors, such as misrepresented special characters.
 - **Completing Missing Information:** Addressing missing values or records to ensure completeness.
3. **Load:** The cleaned and transformed data is then imported into the chosen analytics software for analysis.

Data inconsistencies can arise from various sources, such as different regional settings or errors during data extraction. Automated data-cleaning applications can streamline this process, reducing the risk of introducing new errors and ensuring the reliability of the data.

AUDITOR'S CONSIDERATION OF THE ENTITY'S USE OF EXISTING AND EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES

In addition to utilizing Computer-Assisted Audit Techniques (CAATs) in their procedures, auditors must also evaluate how the entity employs various existing and emerging technologies. The integration of technologies such as ecommerce, cloud computing, electronic data interchange (EDI), and cryptocurrencies significantly influences the entity's operations and, consequently, the audit processes and procedures.

Ecommerce

Ecommerce Defined: Ecommerce involves the buying and selling of goods or services over the internet, encompassing the transfer of money and data to complete transactions. It has become a pivotal growth area for businesses, especially accelerated by circumstances such as the Covid-19 pandemic, which compelled many enterprises to adopt or expand their ecommerce operations.

Types of Ecommerce:

- **Business-to-Consumer (B2C):** Includes online retail sales, online banking, and booking systems for services like flights or event tickets.
- **Business-to-Business (B2B):** Involves electronic supply-chain management, electronic invoicing, and other inter-business transactions.

Auditor's Considerations in an Ecommerce Environment:

1. **Complexity:**
 - **Transaction Complexity:** Ecommerce transactions are often more complex due to the integration of various online platforms and mobile technologies. Auditors must thoroughly understand the transaction flows to identify relevant risks and controls.
 - **Network Topology:** Mapping the layout of connected devices and systems helps auditors comprehend the complexity and identify potential vulnerabilities.
2. **Volume:**
 - **High Transaction Volume:** Ecommerce typically generates a higher volume of transactions compared to traditional channels. Auditors may need to employ data analytics and audit software to ensure comprehensive coverage and effective sampling.
3. **Transaction Speed:**
 - **Real-Time Processing:** Ecommerce transactions are often automated and completed swiftly, limiting opportunities for manual intervention. Auditors must rely on robust automated controls to ensure transaction integrity.
4. **Security:**
 - **Cybersecurity Measures:** Protecting sensitive information such as credit card details and personal data is paramount. Auditors must assess the entity's cybersecurity protocols to prevent data breaches and unauthorized access.
5. **Third-Party Involvement:**
 - **Outsourced Services:** Ecommerce operations frequently involve third-party vendors for services like payment processing. Auditors need to evaluate the controls and practices of these third parties to ensure they align with the entity's security and operational standards.
6. **Systems Resilience:**
 - **IT System Stability:** Reliable IT systems are crucial for uninterrupted ecommerce operations. Auditors should assess the entity's disaster recovery and business continuity plans to gauge the impact of potential system downtimes on revenue and operations.

Approach to Auditing in an Ecommerce Environment:

1. **Map Flow of Transactions and Data:**
 - **Process Mapping:** Creating process or data flow diagrams helps auditors identify key risks and controls within complex ecommerce operations.
2. **Test General IT Controls:**
 - **Control Evaluation:** Assessing general IT controls ensures that data transferred between external-facing websites and internal systems is complete, accurate, and secure.

ENTITY'S USE OF SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

When auditing an entity, auditors often encounter situations where certain procedures are performed not directly by the client but by external service organisations. Understanding and assessing the controls and operations of these service organisations is crucial to obtaining sufficient appropriate audit evidence and ensuring the accuracy and reliability of the financial statements.

Understanding Services Provided by a Service Organisation

To effectively audit entities that utilize service organisations, auditors must gain a comprehensive understanding of the services provided and their impact on the entity's internal controls. Key aspects to consider include:

1. **Nature and Significance of Services:**
 - **Services Provided:** Identify the specific services the service organisation offers, such as payroll processing, IT support, or data storage.
 - **Impact on Internal Controls:** Assess how these services affect the entity's internal control environment. For example, outsourced payroll services may influence how payroll transactions are processed and recorded.
2. **Nature and Materiality of Transactions:**
 - **Transaction Types:** Understand the types of transactions processed by the service organisation and their significance to the financial statements.
 - **Materiality:** Evaluate the materiality of these transactions to determine the extent of audit procedures required.
3. **Degree of Interaction:**
 - **Integration with Entity's Processes:** Determine how closely the service organisation's activities are integrated with the entity's operations.
 - **Data Flow:** Assess the flow of data between the entity and the service organisation to identify potential risks and control points.
4. **Relationship and Contractual Terms:**
 - **Contract Details:** Review the contractual agreements to understand the responsibilities and obligations of both parties.
 - **Control Responsibilities:** Identify which controls are managed by the service organisation and which remain the responsibility of the entity.
5. **Impact on Audit Working Arrangements:**
 - **Data Handling:** Consider how the service organisation handles the entity's accounting records and the implications for audit procedures.
 - **Access to Information:** Ensure that auditors have appropriate access to necessary information maintained by the service organisation.

Example: Suppose an entity outsources its customer relationship management (CRM) system to a third-party provider. The auditor needs to understand how the CRM data is managed, the controls the provider has in place to ensure data integrity, and how this impacts the entity's financial reporting related to sales and customer transactions.

Type 1 and Type 2 Reports

When relying on the controls of a service organisation, auditors often use assurance reports prepared by the service organisation's own auditors. These reports come in two main types:

1. **Type 1 Report:**
 - **Description:** Provides an overview of the service organisation's controls at a specific point in time.
 - **Assurance Level:** Focuses on the design of controls without evaluating their operational effectiveness.
 - **Use Case:** Suitable when the auditor needs to understand the existence and design of controls but does not require assurance on their effectiveness over a period.
2. **Type 2 Report:**
 - **Description:** Includes everything in a Type 1 report, plus an assessment of the operating effectiveness of the controls over a defined period.
 - **Assurance Level:** Offers a higher degree of assurance by validating that controls are not only properly designed but also functioning as intended.
 - **Use Case:** Preferred when the auditor requires assurance that controls are consistently operating effectively over time.

USING THE WORK OF INTERNAL AUDITORS

Internal auditors play a pivotal role in enhancing an organization's governance, risk management, and control processes. Their activities not only support the organization in achieving its objectives but also provide valuable assurance to external auditors regarding the effectiveness of internal controls and risk management practices.

Activities Undertaken by Internal Auditors

Internal auditors engage in a variety of activities aimed at evaluating and improving the effectiveness of an organization's internal controls, risk management, and governance processes. Key activities include:

- 1. Risk Assessment and Reporting:**
 - **Observation and Reporting:** Internal auditors observe and report on the organization's risk assessment exercises, ensuring that potential risks are identified and appropriately managed.
- 2. Planning and Participation in Audit Engagements:**
 - **Engagement Planning:** They participate in planning internal audit engagements, aligning audit activities with the organization's strategic objectives and risk landscape.
- 3. Formulating Recommendations:**
 - **Improvement Proposals:** Internal auditors identify weaknesses within the organization's operations and provide recommendations for enhancing controls and processes.
- 4. Implementation of Recommendations:**
 - **Follow-Up:** They assist in the implementation of recommended procedures, ensuring that suggested improvements are effectively integrated into the organization's operations.
- 5. Monitoring Key Performance Indicators (KPIs):**
 - **Performance Tracking:** Internal auditors are involved in identifying and monitoring KPIs, which help in assessing the organization's performance and operational efficiency.
- 6. Annual Audit Planning:**
 - **Strategic Planning:** They participate in the annual planning process for internal audits, prioritizing areas based on risk assessments and organizational needs.
- 7. Audit Committee Support:**
 - **Reporting and Communication:** Internal auditors prepare materials for and attend audit committee meetings, providing insights and updates on audit findings and internal control effectiveness.

Example: An internal auditor at a manufacturing company conducts a review of the inventory management system. Through detailed analysis, they identify discrepancies between recorded and actual inventory levels. They recommend implementing automated inventory tracking software and enhanced physical controls, which the organization adopts to improve accuracy and reduce theft.

The Importance of Internal Audit

Internal audit functions are integral to an organization's ability to manage risks and ensure the effectiveness of internal controls. According to established frameworks, such as the Three Lines Model, internal audit serves as the third line of defence, providing independent assurance on the effectiveness of the first two lines—operational management and risk management/control functions.

Key Benefits of Internal Audit:

- 1. Enhanced Risk Management:**
 - **Proactive Identification:** Internal auditors help identify and assess risks before they materialize, allowing the organization to implement mitigating measures.
- 2. Improved Internal Controls:**
 - **Control Evaluation:** They evaluate the design and effectiveness of internal controls, ensuring that they adequately address identified risks.
- 3. Fraud Detection and Prevention:**
 - **Early Detection:** Internal auditors are positioned to detect fraudulent activities early, as evidenced by historical cases where internal audits uncovered significant fraud.
- 4. Operational Efficiency:**
 - **Process Improvement:** By identifying inefficiencies and recommending process improvements, internal auditors contribute to the organization's operational effectiveness.
- 5. Support for Governance:**
 - **Objective Assurance:** Internal audit provides the board and audit committee with objective assurance regarding the organization's governance, risk management, and control processes.

THE AUDIT OF PP&E

Understanding Property, Plant, and Equipment (PPE)

Definition and Recognition: Property, plant, and equipment (PPE), also known as fixed assets, are long-term tangible assets that a company uses in its operations to generate revenue. These assets are not intended for immediate sale or consumption within the fiscal year. According to IAS 16, PPE should be recognized as an asset on the balance sheet only if:

1. **Future Economic Benefits:** It is probable that the asset will generate future economic benefits for the entity.
2. **Reliable Measurement:** The cost of the asset can be measured reliably.

Examples of PPE:

- **Land and Buildings:** Freehold properties used for operational purposes.
- **Plant and Machinery:** Equipment used in manufacturing or production processes.
- **Motor Vehicles:** Vehicles used for business operations.

Financial Statement Presentation: On the statement of financial position (balance sheet), PPE is presented at its **Net Book Value (NBV)**, which is the original cost minus accumulated depreciation and impairments. Additional details about PPE are typically provided in the notes to the financial statements, including:

- **Security on Assets:** Information about any liens or encumbrances.
- **Revaluation Details:** If assets are revalued, the methodology and results are disclosed.
- **Leased Assets:** Details about assets held under lease or hire purchase agreements.
- **Capitalized Interest Costs:** Interest costs that have been added to the cost of the asset.

With the adoption of IFRS 16, companies must also disclose if PPE includes **right-of-use assets**, which represent the lessee's right to use an asset during the lease term.

Comprehensive Income Considerations: In the statement of comprehensive income, auditors focus on:

- **Depreciation and Impairments:** Charges related to the reduction in value of PPE over time.
- **Gains or Losses from Sales:** Profits or losses arising from the disposal of PPE.

Risks Associated with Property, Plant, and Equipment

Auditing PPE involves assessing various risks to ensure the accuracy and reliability of financial statements. Key risks include:

1. **Rights and Obligations:**
 - **Risk:** The entity may not own the PPE recorded in the financial statements.
 - **Mitigation:** Verify ownership documents and ensure that all recorded assets are legally owned by the entity.
2. **Existence:**
 - **Risk:** PPE recorded may not physically exist or may no longer be in use.
 - **Challenges:** Situations like the COVID-19 pandemic made physical inspections difficult due to lockdowns and travel restrictions.
 - **Innovative Solutions:** Use of live video streams, drones, or video recordings to verify asset existence.
 - **Professional Scepticism:** Auditors must critically assess the reliability of alternative verification methods to prevent manipulation.
3. **Valuation (Impairment):**
 - **Risk:** PPE may be overvalued in the financial statements, especially if the market value has declined.
 - **Post-Pandemic Considerations:** The economic impact of the pandemic may have reduced the value of tangible assets.
 - **Examples:**
 - **Fair Value of Investments:** Securities markets may experience increased volatility, affecting asset valuations.
 - **Value in Use:** Operational changes due to the pandemic (e.g., remote working) may render some assets underutilized or obsolete.

FINAL ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES IN AUDIT COMPLETION

The **final analytical procedures** are a critical step in the audit completion phase, providing an opportunity for the auditor to assess the financial statements holistically. These procedures allow the auditor to confirm that the financial statements are consistent with their understanding of the client entity and the evidence gathered throughout the audit. This process is mandated by **ISA 520 Analytical Procedures**, which emphasizes their importance in forming an overall conclusion.

Objectives of Final Analytical Procedures

The primary purposes of final analytical procedures are:

1. **Validation:**
 - Ensure that the financial statements are consistent with the auditor's understanding of the entity and its environment.
 - Confirm that relationships and balances within the financial statements make sense.
2. **Identification of Anomalies:**
 - Highlight unusual balances, movements, or relationships that were not previously explained or resolved during the audit.
3. **Detection of New Risks:**
 - Identify risks of material misstatement that may have been overlooked or newly emerged.
4. **Support for Audit Conclusions:**
 - Provide assurance that the conclusions drawn during the audit are reasonable and supported by evidence.

Benefits of Final Analytical Procedures

Performing final analytical procedures offers several key benefits:

1. **Risk Reduction:**
 - Helps reduce **detection risk** by ensuring all significant movements and relationships are understood.
2. **Highlight Inconsistencies:**
 - Unusual fluctuations or unexpected results inconsistent with other evidence are flagged for further investigation.
3. **Assurance:**
 - Adds confidence that the financial statements are reasonable and consistent with the auditor's expectations.
4. **Support for Professional Judgement:**
 - Reinforces the conclusions drawn throughout the audit process.

Identification of New Risks

If final analytical procedures uncover fluctuations or relationships that are inconsistent with expectations:

1. **Evaluate Identified Misstatements:**
 - Assess whether the misstatements are material, individually or in aggregate.
 - Consider the potential for **undiscovered misstatements**.
2. **Investigate Further:**
 - **Inquire with management** to obtain explanations.
 - Perform **additional audit procedures** as necessary to resolve anomalies.

Use of Benchmarks

Benchmarks are essential for meaningful comparisons and for identifying deviations or anomalies.

Internal Benchmarks:

1. Compare current-year figures to prior-year financials.
2. Analyse trends (e.g., monthly or quarterly revenue, expenses, or profit margins).

External Benchmarks:

1. Use industry standards or averages for comparison.
2. Ensure the benchmark is appropriate to the entity's size, market, and operations.
 - Example: A medium-sized hardware store should not be compared to a multinational retailer.

Advanced Data Analysis:

1. Utilize data analytics tools for detailed trend analysis (e.g., daily or monthly revenue movements).
2. Identify **peaks and troughs** in data and correlate them with operational or external events.

Analysis: Concluding on a Going Concern Uncertainty Disclosure Note

Concluding on the adequacy of a disclosure note related to **going concern uncertainties** is a crucial responsibility of the auditor. The conclusion must align with **ISA 570: Going Concern** and involve an assessment of whether management has adequately disclosed the risks and uncertainties and the actions taken to mitigate them.

Key Considerations for Adequate Disclosure

When evaluating the financial statements' disclosure on going concern, the auditor must ensure that they:

- 1. Describe the Principal Events or Conditions:**
 - The disclosure must outline the key events or conditions contributing to significant doubt about the entity's ability to continue as a going concern (e.g., financial losses, liquidity issues, or regulatory challenges).
 - These events should include both internal and external factors.
- 2. Detail Management's Plans:**
 - The disclosure should clearly present management's plans to address the uncertainties, such as:
 - Securing additional financing.
 - Cost-cutting measures.
 - Debt restructuring or refinancing.
- 3. Identify Material Uncertainty:**
 - The auditor must determine if a **material uncertainty** exists, which could significantly impact the entity's ability to continue as a going concern. This assessment includes:
 - The **likelihood** of adverse events occurring.
 - The **magnitude** of their potential impact.
- 4. State Potential Consequences:**
 - The disclosure must address the possibility that the entity may not be able to realize its assets or settle its liabilities in the normal course of business.

Types of Audit Opinions Based on Disclosure Adequacy

a. Adequate Disclosure with No Material Uncertainty

- **Audit Opinion:** Unmodified.
- **Explanation:** The financial statements sufficiently address all going concern risks and uncertainties, and management's plans are reasonable and feasible.

b. Adequate Disclosure with Material Uncertainty

- **Audit Opinion:** Unmodified, with an **Emphasis of Matter (EOM)** paragraph titled "**Material Uncertainty Related to Going Concern**".
- **Explanation:**
 - Disclosure highlights the uncertainties that could affect going concern.
 - The EOM paragraph draws users' attention to the note but does not modify the opinion.

c. Inadequate Disclosure

- **Audit Opinion:** Adverse.
- **Explanation:**
 - The lack of adequate disclosure constitutes a material misstatement.
 - Users are not sufficiently informed about the entity's risks and uncertainties.

d. Management's Assessment is Insufficient

- **Audit Opinion:** Disclaimer.
- **Explanation:**
 - If management's assessment is inadequate (e.g., not covering at least 12 months) and they refuse to extend or revise it, the auditor cannot obtain sufficient evidence to conclude on going concern.

Communication with Regulators

If the auditor includes a **Material Uncertainty Related to Going Concern** paragraph or issues a **qualified, adverse, or disclaimer opinion**, they must:

1. Determine if law or regulation requires reporting to an external authority.
2. Consider circumstances under which reporting to a regulator is appropriate, especially if the entity is a **Public Interest Entity (PIE)**.

Public Interest Entities (PIEs)

For PIEs, auditors must:

- Include additional details in their report to the audit committee.
- Discuss the basis for the going concern conclusion and any related audit opinion.

CONTINGENT LIABILITIES, AND CONTINGENT ASSETS IN THE FINAL AUDIT STAGE

The auditor's responsibility at the final audit stage is to ensure the **adequacy, completeness, and appropriate classification** of provisions, contingent liabilities, and contingent assets. These elements are critical for the accurate representation of the entity's financial position and are governed by **IAS 37 Provisions, Contingent Liabilities and Contingent Assets**.

Provisions

A provision is recognized when the following three criteria are met, as per IAS 37:

1. **Present Obligation:** A legal or constructive obligation exists as a result of a past event.
2. **Probable Outflow:** It is more likely than not that an outflow of resources will be required to settle the obligation.
3. **Reliable Estimate:** The amount of the obligation can be reliably estimated.

Audit Procedures for Provisions:

- **Assess Recognition Criteria:**
 - Verify the existence of a present obligation through contracts, legal agreements, or other documentation.
 - Confirm that it is probable the outflow of economic benefits will occur.
 - Evaluate whether management has made a reliable estimate of the obligation.
- **Evaluate Measurement and Disclosure:**
 - Review how management calculated the provision, ensuring consistency with past estimates and current circumstances.
 - Assess whether the disclosure of the provision includes:
 - The nature of the obligation.
 - The timing of expected outflows.
 - Uncertainties surrounding the amount and timing.
- **Review Related Standards:**
 - Refer to **ISA 540 Auditing Accounting Estimates and Related Disclosures** to evaluate the reasonableness of management's estimates.

Contingent Liabilities

A contingent liability arises when:

- There is a **possible obligation** from past events that will be confirmed only by future uncertain events outside the entity's control, or
- A present obligation exists, but:
 - It is not probable that an outflow of resources will be required, or
 - The obligation cannot be reliably measured.

Audit Procedures for Contingent Liabilities:

- **Search for Undisclosed Contingent Liabilities:**
 - Review subsequent events up to the date of approval of the financial statements.
 - Inquire of management about legal disputes, unresolved claims, or tax disputes.
 - Obtain external confirmation from the entity's legal counsel regarding potential claims or litigations.
 - Examine contracts, loan agreements, and board meeting minutes for potential liabilities.
- **Evaluate Disclosure:**
 - Ensure contingent liabilities are **not recognized** in the financial statements but are adequately disclosed in the notes, including:
 - The nature of the contingency.
 - An estimate of the financial effect.
 - Uncertainties regarding timing and amount.
 - Possible reimbursements.

RELATED PARTIES AND THE AUDITOR'S RESPONSIBILITIES

ISA 550 Related Parties outlines the auditor's responsibilities in identifying, assessing, and responding to risks of material misstatement arising from related party relationships, transactions, or balances. Related parties pose a higher risk due to the potential for fraudulent activities and the complexity of identifying and assessing these relationships.

Definition and Nature of Related Party Relationships

Related party relationships occur due to:

- **Control Relationships:** One party controls or significantly influences the other.
- **Common Control:** Both entities are under common ownership or control.

Examples of Related Parties:

- Parent and subsidiary entities.
- Key management personnel, including directors.
- Close family members of key management.
- Entities controlled by key management personnel or their family members.

Auditor's Responsibilities

The auditor must ensure that related party relationships, transactions, and balances are **identified, evaluated, accounted for, and disclosed** in accordance with **IAS 24 Related Party Disclosures**. The primary responsibilities include:

Risk Assessment

- **Inquiries of Management:**
 - Obtain a complete schedule of related parties, transactions, and balances during the reporting period.
 - Understand management's process for identifying related parties.
- **Maintain Alertness:**
 - Look for related party information while reviewing contracts, meeting minutes, legal documents, and other records.
 - Share related party information with the engagement team to ensure consistency and coverage.

Evaluation of Fraud Risks

- Related parties present opportunities for collusion, manipulation, or concealment of transactions. Common risks include:
 - **Overstatement of Revenue:** Inflating sales figures through fictitious transactions.
 - **Undisclosed Liabilities:** Omitting transactions that could impact financial performance.
 - **Misclassification:** Incorrectly presenting related party transactions as arm's-length transactions.
- The auditor must evaluate whether related party relationships are being used to facilitate fraud.

Identifying Related Parties

The auditor should take specific steps to identify related parties:

1. **Management's Disclosures:**
 - Obtain a detailed schedule of related parties and their transactions.
 - Assess whether the disclosures are complete and comply with IAS 24 requirements.
2. **Reviewing Records:**
 - Examine meeting minutes, contracts, loan agreements, and board approvals for related party mentions.
 - Review invoices, bank statements, and legal fees for indications of undisclosed relationships.
3. **Additional Audit Procedures:**
 - Perform data analytics to identify unusual transactions, such as:
 - Round-sum amounts.
 - Transactions occurring near year-end.
 - Unusual patterns in financial data.

Addressing Undisclosed Related Parties

If the auditor identifies related parties not disclosed by management:

1. **Engagement Team Alert:**
 - Inform the team of the findings to ensure consistent treatment.
2. **Management Inquiry:**
 - Request management to disclose all transactions and balances related to the newly identified party.
 - Understand why the entity's internal controls failed to identify the related party.

CONTENTS OF THE AUDIT REPORT

(A) Title and Addressee

The **title** of the audit report, “Independent Auditor’s Report,” underscores its independence and distinguishes it from other reports accompanying the financial statements. The **addressee** is typically the shareholders (members) of the entity, as the audit is conducted on their behalf. This formality is mandated by both **ISA 700** and legislation under Irish (CA 2014) and UK law (CA 2006).

(B) Auditor’s Opinion

The **opinion paragraph** is the cornerstone of the audit report, addressing the core conclusions of the audit. It must:

- Identify the audited entity and the audited financial statements.
- Acknowledge the audit process and refer to relevant notes or accounting policies.
- Specify the time frame or period covered by the financial statements.

The auditor also explicitly states the financial reporting framework (e.g., FRS 102 or EU-adopted IFRSs) used to prepare the financial statements. If the audit confirms compliance with the framework, the opinion is **unqualified**, stating the financial statements provide a “true and fair view.”

If multiple frameworks are evaluated (e.g., additional compliance with IFRS issued by IAASB), each opinion must be clearly separated under appropriately titled sections.

(C) Basis for Opinion

This paragraph explains the foundation of the auditor's opinion and typically includes:

- A statement confirming that the audit complied with **ISAs** and applicable law.
- A reference to the responsibilities of the auditor as outlined in ISAs.
- A declaration of independence, citing the relevant ethical standards applicable (IAASA’s Ethical Standard in Ireland, FRC’s Ethical Standard in the UK).

The auditor must also state that sufficient and appropriate audit evidence was obtained to form the basis of their opinion. This reassures stakeholders of the rigor and reliability of the audit process.

(D) Going Concern and Irregularities (Including Fraud)

Under **ISA 700** and **ISA 570**, the auditor must evaluate and report on management's use of the going concern assumption.

1. Management’s Use of Going Concern:

- If appropriate and there is **no material uncertainty**, the report confirms this conclusion, and additional commentary depends on whether the entity is a **PIE** (Public Interest Entity). PIEs require a more detailed explanation of how the going concern evaluation was performed and key observations from the process.
- If material uncertainty exists and is disclosed in the financial statements, the auditor draws attention to this disclosure under the heading “Material Uncertainty Relating to Going Concern” while affirming that their opinion is not modified.
- If material uncertainty exists but is not disclosed, the auditor issues an adverse opinion.

2. Irregularities and Fraud:

- Paragraph 29-1 of ISA 700 emphasizes the auditor’s obligation to report on their ability to detect irregularities, including fraud. This includes:
 - Identifying significant laws and regulations relevant to the entity.
 - Describing the auditor’s process for understanding these regulations and the entity’s compliance mechanisms.
 - Outlining audit work designed to detect non-compliance, such as discussions, documentation, and attention to key matters.
- In Ireland, this reporting is limited to PIEs and listed entities, while in the UK, it applies to all audit reports. Auditors must avoid generic statements (boilerplate text) and provide specific qualitative and quantitative insights.

- ### 3. Key Audit Matters:
- Where relevant, significant findings regarding irregularities are addressed in a “Key Audit Matters” section (as per ISA 701). Even in such cases, the report must still explain the auditor’s approach to detecting irregularities.

COMPARATIVE INFORMATION – CORRESPONDING FIGURES

Comparative information, as required under **IAS 1 Presentation of Financial Statements**, is an integral part of financial statements. It includes amounts and disclosures from prior periods to provide context and enable users to compare financial performance and position across periods. Since comparative figures are an essential part of the financial statements, the auditor cannot express an opinion on the current period's financial statements without obtaining assurance over the corresponding figures. This responsibility is governed by **ISA 710 Comparative Information – Corresponding Figures and Comparative Financial Statements**.

Corresponding Figures vs. Comparative Financial Statements

ISA 710 distinguishes between two methods of presenting prior-period information:

1. **Corresponding Figures:**
 - Required in Ireland and the UK.
 - Prior-period amounts and disclosures are integrated into the current financial statements and are relevant only in the context of the current period figures.
2. **Comparative Financial Statements:**
 - Not applicable in Ireland and the UK.
 - Prior-period financial statements are presented as a separate and distinct set of financial statements for comparison.

Auditor's Responsibilities for Corresponding Figures

Even though the auditor's report does not specifically reference comparative figures (unless a modification is required), the audit opinion inherently includes assurance over both the current and comparative figures. **ISA 710** outlines the following responsibilities for auditors:

1. **Auditing Comparative Figures:**
 - The auditor must verify that prior-period amounts and disclosures have been properly included in the current financial statements.
 - If the prior period was audited by a different auditor (predecessor), the incoming auditor assumes responsibility for the corresponding figures in the context of the current audit.
2. **Predecessor Auditor's Work:**
 - The incoming auditor does not refer to the predecessor auditor's report.
 - They must read the prior-period financial statements and use knowledge gained during the current audit to assess whether the prior figures are properly reflected.
3. **Initial Audit Engagements:**
 - When the prior period was unaudited, the auditor must obtain sufficient appropriate evidence over opening balances, as guided by **ISA 510 Initial Audit Engagements – Opening Balances**.

Modified Opinion on Corresponding Figures

If issues arise with comparative figures, the auditor may need to issue a **modified opinion** or include an **other matter paragraph**. Key circumstances include:

1. **Unresolved Qualifications from the Prior Year:**
 - If the prior year's financial statements were qualified (e.g., due to an omitted provision for a likely legal claim), and the issue remains unresolved, the auditor must address this in the current audit report.
2. **Unaudited Prior-Year Figures:**
 - For entities that were audit-exempt in the prior year, the corresponding figures are unaudited.
 - The auditor must:
 - Obtain sufficient evidence to ensure opening balances do not contain material misstatements affecting the current period.
 - Include an **other matter paragraph** stating that the corresponding figures are unaudited.
3. **Material Misstatements Discovered in Comparative Figures:**
 - If a misstatement in the prior-period figures is identified and not corrected, the auditor must issue a modified opinion addressing both prior and current periods.
 - For example, if depreciation was not applied to an asset in the prior year and remains uncorrected, the report may include a **qualified opinion**.
4. **Corrected Prior-Year Misstatements:**
 - If a prior-period misstatement is corrected in the current financial statements, the auditor may refer to the prior error in an **emphasis of matter paragraph**, highlighting the correction for the users.

AUDITOR'S RESPONSIBILITIES RELATING TO OTHER INFORMATION

Other information, as defined by **ISA 720**, refers to both financial and non-financial information included in an entity's annual report, excluding the financial statements and the auditor's report. Examples include the directors' report, corporate governance statement, and, for public interest entities (PIEs) and public companies, additional reports on governance or activities.

- For private companies, other information typically includes:
 - Directors' report.
 - Statement of directors' responsibilities.
 - Auditor's report.
 - Audited financial statements.
- For public companies, PIEs, and charities, the annual report may include additional governance-related disclosures such as a strategic report or detailed corporate governance statements.

The auditor's responsibility is not to provide assurance on this information but to **read and consider it** for material inconsistencies with the audited financial statements or apparent material misstatements.

Auditor's Responsibilities

Reading Other Information

The auditor must:

1. **Check for Material Inconsistencies:**
 - Determine whether other information conflicts with the financial statements or with knowledge obtained during the audit.
 - Example: If the directors' report states a revenue growth of 10% while the financial statements show only 3% growth, this inconsistency must be addressed.
2. **Identify Material Misstatements:**
 - Assess whether any non-financial information appears misstated (e.g., inaccuracies in narrative descriptions, unsupported claims, or incorrect figures).

Communication and Resolution

If material inconsistencies or misstatements are identified, the auditor must:

- Discuss the matter with management to determine whether revisions are necessary.
- Evaluate whether the issue lies in the **financial statements** or the **other information**:
 - If the **financial statements** are incorrect and management refuses to revise them:
 - Issue a modified opinion (qualified or adverse) based on materiality and pervasiveness.
 - If the **other information** is incorrect and management refuses to revise it:
 - Include an **other information paragraph** in the audit report describing the inconsistency or misstatement.
 - Consider further actions, such as addressing shareholders at the annual general meeting or resigning as a last resort.

Reporting Other Information in the Audit Report

Standard Audit Report Wording

The audit report must state:

- That the directors are responsible for the other information.
- That the auditor's opinion does not extend to the other information.
- That the auditor's responsibility is to read the other information and identify material inconsistencies or misstatements.

Opinions on Directors' Reports and Governance Statements

In Ireland and the UK:

- The auditor must explicitly state whether the directors' report (and, if applicable, the strategic report or corporate governance statement) is consistent with the financial statements and complies with legal requirements.

If inconsistencies are found, a modification is included in the **Opinions on Other Matters** paragraph, with possible expansion in an **other matters paragraph**.

Group Audit Firm Acceptance and Continuance Considerations

Before accepting or continuing a **group audit engagement**, the group auditor must address standard engagement considerations while factoring in additional complexities specific to group audits.

1. Adequacy of Group Audit Resources:

- The group audit team must assess whether it has the resources to perform a comprehensive audit. This includes:
 - The ability to directly audit assigned components.
 - Evaluating and relying on the **competence of component auditors**.
 - Performing specific audit procedures on a portion of the component auditor's work to minimize audit risk.

2. Compliance with ISA 600:

- The group auditor must ensure internal policies and procedures address the requirements of **ISA 600 Special Considerations – Audits of Group Financial Statements (Including the Work of Component Auditors)**, specifically:
 - **Group Risk Assessment:** Evaluating significant risks across the group and within individual components.
 - **Clear Instructions to Component Auditors:** Establishing clear communication channels and expectations.
 - **Consolidation Process:** Ensuring component financial information is properly consolidated.
 - **Audit Evidence Sufficiency:** Evaluating whether sufficient appropriate evidence has been obtained from component auditors to support the group audit opinion.

The Group Audit Process

Group audits follow the same core principles as single-entity audits, with all **International Standards on Auditing (ISAs)** applicable. However, group audits introduce unique challenges in **planning, monitoring, supervision, and review** due to the involvement of component auditors.

Key Elements of the Group Audit Process:

1. Group Audit Instructions:

- Clear instructions to component auditors are critical. These instructions typically cover:
 - Materiality thresholds for components.
 - Risk assessment procedures.
 - Testing of systems, controls, and substantive operations within components.
 - Documentation and reporting expectations.

2. Risk Assessment and Materiality:

- **Risk Assessment:** The group auditor must assess risks both at the group level and for individual components.
- **Materiality:**
 - Establish group-level materiality.
 - Determine materiality thresholds for components, depending on their significance to the group's financial results.

3. Involvement with Component Auditors:

- The extent of involvement depends on the **significance** of a component to the group's consolidated results.
- Significant components with a material impact on the group require close supervision, including:
 - Detailed systems and substantive testing.
 - Regular communication and updates.

4. Scoping:

- A **scoping exercise** identifies the components requiring detailed audit work and the specific procedures to be performed.
- Significant components may warrant full-scope audits, while smaller or lower-risk components may require only analytical review.

5. Reporting by Component Auditors:

- Each component auditor must provide a **clearance opinion** to the group auditor, confirming:
 - Whether the financial information is free from material misstatement.

Details of any material issues identified during the component audit.

GROUP AUDIT FIRM SCOPING AND RISK ASSESSMENT

Scoping and Risk Assessment Considerations

This subsection addresses the factors the group engagement team must evaluate after accepting a group audit. The considerations can be categorized into three primary areas: group components, component auditors, and materiality.

1. Group Components

To effectively audit a group, the engagement team must have a comprehensive understanding of the group and its structure. Key considerations include:

- **Understanding the Group and Its Components:** This requires identifying the operational or financial structures (components) that make up the group. The focus is on understanding their environments and the consolidation process to identify potential risks of material misstatement in the group's financial statements.
- **Classification of Components:** Components are categorized as significant or insignificant. Determining which components require focused audit engagement activities and how insignificant components will be addressed is crucial. Insignificant components often involve analytical procedures rather than substantive testing.

2. Component Auditors

Since component auditors play a vital role in group audits, assessing their competence and compliance is critical:

- **Professional Competence:** The group audit partner must ensure that component auditors possess the necessary skills and knowledge of applicable auditing standards.
- **Ethical Compliance and Regulation:** The engagement team must confirm that component auditors comply with ethical requirements and operate under acceptable regulatory standards. Negative regulatory findings against a component auditor are a significant red flag.
- **Communication and Oversight:** The group auditor must determine the extent of involvement in the component auditor's work and establish clear communication protocols. This ensures consistency in audit quality across all components.

3. Materiality

Materiality is a cornerstone of audit planning. For group audits, this involves:

- **Setting Group and Component Materiality:** Determining appropriate thresholds for group and component materiality is essential to guide audit procedures.
- **Risk-Based Adjustments:** For riskier transactions or balances, different materiality thresholds may be necessary to capture potential misstatements.
- **Clearly Trivial Threshold:** The team must establish what level of error or misstatement is considered clearly trivial, enabling a focused approach on material matters.

Scoping of Significant and Insignificant Components

Scoping in a group audit involves identifying which components require detailed audit attention.

Significant Components

As defined in ISA 600, significant components are those with individual financial significance to the group or those that present significant risks of material misstatement due to their nature or circumstances. Key considerations include:

- **Establishing Benchmarks:** Auditors use benchmarks (e.g., assets, liabilities, cash flows, profit, or turnover) to identify significant components. For instance, components exceeding 15% of a chosen benchmark may be deemed significant. However, this percentage is subject to professional judgment and group-specific circumstances.
- **Qualitative Significance:** Components that pose risks due to unique circumstances (e.g., operations in high-risk jurisdictions) must also be considered significant, even if they do not meet quantitative thresholds.

Insignificant Components

While insignificant components may not individually warrant substantive procedures, their aggregate effect could materially impact the group financial statements. For such components:

- **Group-Level Analytical Procedures:** The auditor should perform analytical procedures to identify any potential misstatements. However, if these procedures are insufficient, additional focused testing may be required.
- **Selecting Components for Testing:** The group auditor may conduct limited procedures on specific components, such as:
 - Auditing financial information using component materiality.
 - Testing selected account balances, transactions, or disclosures.
 - Conducting a review or performing specified procedures.
- **Rotational Testing:** The group auditor can vary the components selected for testing over time to maintain audit efficiency while ensuring coverage.

IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNICATION IN GROUP AUDITS

Effective communication is a critical element in the successful execution of a group audit, especially for large, complex groups with multiple components across different geographical locations. This section emphasizes the role of communication in ensuring efficiency, adherence to standards, and timely completion of the audit.

The Role of Communication in Group Audits

1. Challenges of Group Audits:

- Coordinating a group audit is inherently more complex than a single-entity audit due to factors such as:
 - The involvement of multiple component auditors.
 - Differences in financial reporting standards, regulations, and accounting practices across jurisdictions.
 - The logistical difficulties of managing audits across multiple time zones and locations.

2. Key Objectives of Effective Communication:

- **Efficiency:** Clear communication ensures that audit procedures are performed in a coordinated and timely manner, minimizing delays and redundancy.
- **Compliance:** Communication helps ensure adherence to:
 - Applicable financial reporting standards.
 - Consistent application of group accounting policies.
 - Ethical and auditing standards.
- **Timeliness:** Meeting agreed-upon deadlines for the issuance of audited financial statements is critical for client satisfaction and compliance with regulatory requirements.

Planning and Communicating Timeframes

1. Backward Planning:

- The starting point for group audit planning is the agreed date for issuing the audited financial statements. The group auditor works backward from this date to set timelines for:
 - Component audits.
 - Consolidation activities.
 - Final review and reporting.

2. Communication of Timeframes:

- **Group Audit Instructions:** These provide detailed guidelines to component auditors, including deadlines and procedural requirements.
- **On-Site Visits:** Physical visits can facilitate direct communication and oversight, particularly for high-risk components.
- **Virtual Communication:** Conference calls, video conferencing, or other virtual technologies are practical tools for maintaining regular communication with component auditors, especially for geographically dispersed groups.

Control Checklists and Documentation

1. Audit Instructions and Responses:

- The group auditor must track the issuance and receipt of group audit instructions to ensure that all components are aware of their responsibilities and deliverables.
- A **control checklist** should be maintained to monitor:
 - The distribution of instructions to component auditors.
 - The timely return of responses and evidence from component auditors.

2. Meeting Documentation:

- All meetings and communications with component auditors should be documented and included in the audit file. This provides:
 - A clear record of issues discussed, decisions made, and actions assigned.
 - Evidence of coordination and oversight, which is critical for accountability.

NON-AUDIT ENGAGEMENTS

Types of Assurance Engagements

There are two fundamental types of assurance engagements:

1. **Attestation Engagements:**
 - In an attestation engagement, someone other than the practitioner evaluates or measures the subject matter against the criteria and provides the resulting information to the practitioner.
 - The practitioner then assesses whether the information is free from material misstatement.
 - **Example:** Reviewing a sustainability report prepared by management.
2. **Direct Reporting Engagements:**
 - In direct reporting engagements, the practitioner is responsible for both evaluating/measuring the subject matter and issuing an assurance report.
 - The practitioner provides the output (e.g., performance metrics) alongside their assurance opinion.
 - **Example:** Evaluating the capacity of a manufacturing plant and issuing a report on its performance.

Acceptance or Continuance of an Assurance Engagement

Before accepting or continuing an assurance engagement, the practitioner must consider the following:

1. **Ethical Requirements:**
 - Adherence to independence and other ethical standards is critical.
2. **Competence and Capabilities:**
 - The engagement team must possess the necessary skills and experience to carry out the engagement.
3. **Clear Understanding of Terms:**
 - There must be an agreement on the terms of the engagement, typically documented in an engagement letter.

Preconditions for Acceptance

The practitioner must ensure the following are present:

- **Roles and Responsibilities:** Clear roles for the responsible party, intended users, and practitioner.
- **Appropriate Subject Matter:** The subject must be measurable and capable of being evaluated against criteria.
- **Availability of Suitable Criteria:** Criteria should be objective, free from bias, and applicable to the engagement.
- **Evidence:** Sufficient evidence must exist to support the assurance conclusion.
- **Meaningful Level of Assurance:** The engagement must allow for a reasonable or limited assurance conclusion.

If these conditions are met, the practitioner can proceed by drafting an engagement letter. For engagements involving third-party reporting, a tripartite engagement letter may be necessary.

Core Elements of Assurance Engagements

Common Elements

The core elements of assurance engagements include:

1. **Subject Matter:**
 - Examples include financial performance, non-financial metrics, physical characteristics, systems and processes, or behavioural compliance.
 - The subject matter must be identifiable, measurable, and capable of being evaluated against criteria.
2. **Users:**
 - The intended users of the assurance report are typically distinct from management and rely on the practitioner's independent evaluation.
3. **Suitable Criteria:**
 - Criteria are the benchmarks used to evaluate the subject matter and must be:
 - Relevant.
 - Objective and unbiased.
 - Capable of consistent application.
 - Examples include financial reporting standards or regulatory guidelines.
4. **Evidence:**
 - Evidence is gathered through testing procedures to support the assurance conclusion.
 - The quality and quantity of evidence depend on the level of assurance (reasonable or limited).

MANAGING THE RISKS INVOLVED IN REPORTING TO THIRD PARTIES

Understand Who Will Rely on the Report and for What Purpose

Before accepting an engagement, practitioners must:

- 1. Identify Third Parties:**
 - Determine who will rely on the report (e.g., regulators, trade bodies) and for what purpose.
 - Understand the potential implications and consequences for third parties relying on the report.
- 2. Assess Risk:**
 - Evaluate the extent of third-party reliance and potential financial or reputational losses they might suffer if the report is flawed.
 - This helps the practitioner decide whether to accept the engagement and, if so, design a suitable engagement that complies with applicable standards (e.g., ISAs, ISAEs, or ISRSs).
- 3. Tripartite Engagement Letter:**
 - If the engagement involves third-party reporting, a tripartite agreement signed by the client, the third party, and the practitioner is recommended.
 - Legal advice should be sought if the third party does not sign the engagement letter before the report is issued, to mitigate liability risks.

Consider the Form of the Report

Must ensure that the report format complies with relevant standards and does not expose them to undue risk:

- 1. Acceptable Reports:**
 - Reports must be based on sufficient work performed under appropriate standards (e.g., ISAE 3000) and supported by adequate evidence.
 - Practitioners should avoid signing pre-printed or standardized reports provided by clients or third parties if these do not comply with professional standards.
- 2. Future Solvency Statements:**
 - Practitioners should not issue reports on a client's future solvency, as such assurances exceed the scope of an assurance engagement and risk treating the practitioner as an insurer or guarantor.
- 3. Statutory Audit Distinction:**
 - Practitioners should avoid language in the report that implies the third party can rely on the statutory audit. For example, avoid phrases like "During our audit we..." to prevent suggesting a direct connection between the assurance engagement and the statutory audit.
- 4. Alternative Reports:**
 - If the requested report is inappropriate, practitioners should offer an alternative format that complies with the relevant standards.

Agree the Type of Engagement and Report to Be Provided

Before accepting the engagement, practitioners must:

- 1. Define the Scope of Work:**
 - Clearly outline the work to be performed, ensuring it is distinct from the statutory audit.
 - Specify timelines, additional fees, and the terms of liability in the engagement letter.
- 2. Select the Applicable Standard:**
 - Determine whether the engagement will be governed by ISAs (audits), ISAEs (assurance engagements), or ISRSs (review engagements), and ensure all parties agree to the applicable framework.
- 3. Ethical Compliance:**
 - Adhere to ethical standards, including independence, objectivity, and professional scepticism.

EXAMINATION OF PROSPECTIVE FINANCIAL INFORMATION (PFI)

What Is PFI?

Prospective financial information (PFI) is financial information prepared based on assumptions about future events and actions, requiring significant judgment in its preparation. It may take the form of:

- **Forecasts:** Based on management's best estimates for a period, typically not exceeding one year.
- **Projections:** Built on hypothetical "what-if" scenarios and may involve a combination of best-estimate and hypothetical assumptions.

Why Is PFI Prepared?

PFI serves a variety of purposes, including:

- Internal management decision-making (e.g., evaluating capital investments).
- Providing information to external stakeholders (e.g., shareholders, investors, or lenders).
- Supporting cash flow forecasts for lending providers.

In an assurance engagement, the practitioner examines the PFI to determine:

1. The reasonableness of management's assumptions.
2. Whether the PFI is properly prepared and presented.
3. Consistency with historical financial statements.

Key Areas of a PFI Engagement

Forecasts and Projections

- **Forecasts** reflect management's best estimate based on expected events and actions.
- **Projections** incorporate hypothetical assumptions, often used for long-term planning.
- The subjective nature of these assumptions makes evidence collection challenging. Practitioners must carefully design procedures to ensure they gather sufficient appropriate evidence to support their conclusion.

Sufficient Appropriate Evidence

The subjective nature of PFI limits the types of assurance that can be provided:

- **Limited Assurance:** Common for PFI engagements, as it offers a negative assurance statement, such as, "Nothing has come to our attention to indicate material misstatement."
- **Reasonable Assurance:** Rarely offered due to the speculative and uncertain nature of PFI assumptions.

Challenges in Evidence Collection:

- Evidence supporting PFI often relies on speculative assumptions, making it less definitive than audit evidence.
- Practitioners must apply professional judgment to determine whether evidence obtained is sufficient to draw a conclusion.

Understanding the Client Entity

A thorough understanding of the client's business and processes is essential in a PFI engagement. ISAE 3400 emphasizes the need to assess:

1. **Internal Controls:** Evaluate the controls surrounding the preparation of PFI.
2. **Methods for Developing Assumptions:** Review management's processes for generating assumptions.
3. **Accuracy of Prior PFI:** Assess historical accuracy as a basis for evaluating current assumptions.
4. **Documentation:** Examine supporting documentation for completeness and consistency.
5. **Use of Tools and Techniques:** Evaluate the reliability of statistical, mathematical, and computer-assisted methods used.

Consideration of Historical Information

Historical financial information provides a benchmark for evaluating the reasonableness of current PFI assumptions. Practitioners should analyse historical data to:

- Identify trends and patterns that support or contradict current assumptions.
- Evaluate management's forecasting accuracy in prior periods.

ENGAGEMENTS TO REVIEW FINANCIAL STATEMENTS AND INTERIM FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

This section outlines the principles and practices for review engagements of financial statements, focusing on both full-year financial statement reviews (ISRE 2400) and interim financial statement reviews (ISRE 2410). These engagements provide **limited assurance**, which is less rigorous than the reasonable assurance of a statutory audit.

Key Distinction Between ISRE 2400 and ISRE 2410

1. **ISRE 2400:**
 - Applies to practitioners who are not the entity's statutory auditors.
 - Typically used for reviews of full-year financial statements of companies exempt from statutory audits (e.g., due to audit exemption thresholds).
 - Commonly requested by audit-exempt companies or financial institutions seeking additional credibility for financial statements.
2. **ISRE 2410:**
 - Used by the entity's statutory auditor for reviewing interim financial information (e.g., quarterly or half-yearly statements).
 - Addresses the growing demand for up-to-date financial information in expanding capital markets.

What is a Review?

The objective of a review is to conclude whether anything has come to the practitioner's attention indicating that the financial information is **not prepared in accordance with the applicable financial reporting framework**. This is expressed as **negative assurance**: "Nothing has come to our attention to indicate material misstatement."

Differences Between a Review and an Audit

1. **Level of Assurance:**
 - A review provides **limited assurance**, which is a moderate level of confidence, compared to the **reasonable assurance** of an audit.
 - Limited assurance involves less extensive procedures and less evidence gathering.
2. **Procedures:**
 - Reviews involve inquiries of management and analytical procedures.
 - Reviews do not require detailed substantive testing or assessment of internal controls as in an audit.
3. **Evidence Requirements:**
 - Evidence collected during a review is less comprehensive than in an audit, reflecting the lower level of assurance.

Ethical and Quality Standards

1. **Ethical Compliance:**
 - Practitioners performing reviews must adhere to the **IESBA Code of Ethics**, maintaining objectivity, independence, and professional scepticism.
2. **Quality Management:**
 - Practitioners must implement quality management standards (ISQM 1 and ISQM 2), ensuring the engagement is conducted appropriately.
3. **Professional Scepticism:**
 - A questioning mindset is crucial, especially when management's judgments or assumptions appear biased.

Terms of Engagement

The terms of engagement must be clearly agreed upon at the outset and should include:

1. The **objectives, scope, and responsibilities** of the engagement.
2. A commitment from management to:
 - Assess the entity's ability to continue as a **going concern**.
 - Disclose material uncertainties related to the entity's ability to continue as a going concern, in compliance with the applicable financial reporting framework.

REVIEW REPORTS

outlines the essential elements of review reports under **ISRE 2400** and **ISRE 2410**, emphasizing the limited assurance nature of such engagements and the potential for modifications in specific circumstances. Review reports are critical deliverables that communicate the results of the engagement to stakeholders while maintaining transparency about the scope and limitations of the procedures performed.

Key Elements of Review Reports

Standard Components

Both **ISRE 2400** and **ISRE 2410** reports must include the following:

1. **Title:** Clearly identify the document as a review report.
2. **Addressee:** Specify the intended users of the report (e.g., management, shareholders).
3. **Date of the Report:** Indicate when the review procedures were completed.
4. **Practitioner's Address and Signature:** Confirm accountability and identify the practitioner or firm.
5. **Identification of Financial Statements Reviewed:** Clearly define the subject matter of the engagement.
6. **Responsibilities:**
 - **Management's Responsibilities:** Include preparation of the financial statements and disclosures, as well as ensuring compliance with the applicable financial reporting framework.
 - **Practitioner's Responsibilities:** Highlight the practitioner's responsibility to perform the review in accordance with the applicable ISRE standard and provide limited assurance.

Scope of Engagement

- Explicitly reference **ISRE 2400** or **ISRE 2410** as the standard governing the review.
- State that the review was limited to **inquiries** and **analytical procedures**, without the detailed substantive testing of an audit.
- Clarify that the report does not provide an audit opinion, as the evidence obtained is less extensive.

Assurance Statement

- Provide **limited (negative) assurance**:
 - Example: "Based on our review, nothing has come to our attention that causes us to believe that the financial information is not prepared, in all material respects, in accordance with [financial reporting framework]."

Additional Requirements for ISRE 2410 Reports

1. **Conclusion Relating to Going Concern:**
 - If no material uncertainties exist: Include a paragraph stating that nothing has come to the practitioner's attention to suggest that the financial information is not appropriately prepared on a going concern basis.
 - If material uncertainties exist: Include a paragraph titled "**Material Uncertainty Relating to Going Concern**" to disclose the uncertainty and its potential impact.
2. **Comparative Information:**
 - ISRE 2410 requires specific consideration of the consistency of comparative interim financial statements with prior annual or interim financial statements.

Modifications to Review Reports

In certain circumstances, practitioners may need to issue a **modified report** due to limitations of scope, disagreements, or significant findings. Modifications include qualifications, adverse conclusions, and disclaimers of conclusion.

Limitation of Scope

- **Non-Pervasive Limitation:**
 - The practitioner may issue a qualified conclusion noting the limitation and its potential impact on the financial statements.
 - Example: "Except for [specific limitation], nothing has come to our attention..."
- **Pervasive Limitation:**
 - If the limitation affects the entire set of financial statements, no assurance can be provided, and a **disclaimer of conclusion** is issued.
 - If the limitation is imposed by management and cannot be resolved, the practitioner should decline or withdraw from the engagement.