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BUSINESS LANGUAGE EVOLUTION – ACCOUNTING

EWOLUCJA JĘZYKA BIZNESU – RACHUNKOWOŚĆ

Introduction

The global economy is already global, but a global system describing the financial situation of companies is not yet in place. The place of production of the goods is irrelevant. Companies are primarily guided by economic factors when selecting the place of production of their products. Industrial culture and the proposed quality of production in different parts of the world is similar except for high technology products (space, aerospace industry).

The basic information system in the financial area in enterprises is accounting. Even though accounting is still changing, it is not yet possible to compare the financial effects of companies operating in different parts of the world. In addition to the national accounting rules, there are two sets of rules that large companies around the world apply: International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) and Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (US GAAP), which differ significantly. However, it is expected that accounting will also be global over time. This will be made necessary by the need to compare the financial situation between all participants in global markets.

The aim of the article is to present the development of accounting over the last few hundred years in a synthetic way, and the way it has gone since its inception will help to determine where the accounting is going now.

Evolution of accounting

Accounting has remained unchanged for many centuries. It was not until the changes that took place in widely understood economic organizations and institutions in the 19th and 20th centuries that the perception and, more importantly, the

use of accounting began to change. Accounting definitions cannot be considered and determined without taking into account the changes in corporate governance.

The 15th century, in which the Italian scientist Luca Pacioli published the work *Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportioni et Proportionalita*¹, in which he defined many basic accounting concepts and explained the principles of a dual approach to accounting, is considered as the beginning of modern accounting, i.e. based on a dual approach to accounting, and it can also be said that accounting in general. It is true that these principles had already been applied before, since the Municipality of Genoa kept its accounts on the basis of a double entry already in 1340, but this L. Pacioli study is considered to be the first scientific, theoretical generalization of double accounting principles².

For several hundred years, the principles formulated in L. Pacioli's work have been sufficient for a financial description of the economic reality. The industrial revolution in Europe and North America began changes in accounting, which can already be seen at the end of the 19th century. The dynamics of these changes took place in the 1920s and 1930s in the United States of America, and since the late 1940s also in Western Europe, which was rising at a relatively rapid rate from the damage caused during World War II. The evolution of the company management system has had the greatest impact on these changes, *de facto*, which have continued to this day. In the first phase of the changes, the accounting system had to adapt to, first of all, changes in the structure of enterprises from centralized to decentralized, which in consequence necessitated the need to provide more detailed information³ on events within the organization. The growing competitiveness of the markets, which were developing at that time, as well as the development of international flows of goods and capital, forced the need for detailed recording, measurement and presentation of information on the business environment. All this information was intended to assist managers in making decisions. As a result, accounting has started to be discussed and written in the context of financial and management accounting.

The evolution of accounting that it underwent in the 20th century was of functional and informative nature. The functional evolution of accounting was mainly based on expanding the accounting functions with analytical, planning and decision-making procedures. As a result of the information evolution, the subject matter of accounting and the principles of valuation, methods of information processing and presentation have expanded. Integrated information structures within the accounting system have also been set up⁴.

Changes in enterprises and their management methods⁵ are also reflected in the definition of accounting. The link between the development of companies and

¹ L. Pacioli, *Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportioni et Proportionalita*, 1494.

² W. Brzezina, *Ogólna teoria rachunkowości*, Wydawnictwo Politechniki Częstochowskiej, Częstochowa 1998, p. 28.

³ J. Turyna, *Rachunkowość finansowa*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2008, p. 6.

⁴ Ibidem.

⁵ R.W. Griffin, *Podstawy zarządzania organizacjami*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, Warszawa 2001.

the evolution of accounting was included in B. Siwoń's considerations, stating that the development of accounting was determined by increasing the demand for the results of its measurement for the purpose of the management's economic account. The more difficult the management conditions were, the more complex the elements of the economic account became, the more interest was given to accounting⁶. In turn, A. Jaruga argues that "The more the market mechanism governs the economy, the greater the need for accounting data is, although they require more complex procedures for their use in the management of an economic entity. (...) The accounting of today has thus been enriched by the obligation to provide information for operational and strategic management processes. In addition to the traditional information, it must generate qualitative and quantitative prospective data"⁷. To sum up, it can be concluded that the evolution of accounting was closely linked to the development of corporate governance and the increasing information needs of the companies managing them. These explanations indicate accounting as a system supporting management, which also influences the way of defining the accounting itself.

S. Skrzywan defines accounting as a specific type of accounting that reflects the economic and asset situation of an entity and that aims to provide a numerical basis for decision making at various levels of management⁸.

E. Burzym treats accounting as a universal, flexible, subjective information and control system, determined by the balance sheet method, which is inextricably linked to it by the cognitive method, enabling the creation of a numerical picture of the formation, division and flow of value and the resulting settlements between business entities⁹.

In his studies, K. Sawicki sees accounting as a total and compact system of collecting and processing data on the entity's assets and operations, as well as the presentation of economic and financial information¹⁰.

Accounting as a system means that it is an arrangement of rules and principles resulting from the specific methods of observation, measurement and recording of economic events – comprehensive, but at the same time flexible¹¹. An important characteristic that affects the usefulness of accounting companies is that they record all economic events within their material scope in a complete manner and with the desired, possible detail, and then make the necessary aggregations and generalizations¹².

R. Stadtmüller gives a different definition of accounting but confirms the assumptions made by other scientists. He states that accounting can be defined as

⁶ B. Siwoń, *Informacyjna funkcja rachunkowości*, PWE, Warszawa 1972, p. 42.

⁷ A. Jaruga, I. Sobańska, L. Kopczyńska, A. Szycha, E. Walińska, *Rachunkowość dla menedżerów*, RAFIB, Łódź 1994, p. 12.

⁸ S. Skrzywan, *Teoretyczne podstawy rachunkowości*, PWE, Warszawa 1973, p. 13.

⁹ E. Burzym, *Rachunkowość przedsiębiorstw i instytucji*, PWE, Warszawa 1980, p. 13.

¹⁰ K. Sawicki (ed.), *Rachunkowość finansowa*, PWE, Warszawa 2004, p. 14.

¹¹ E. Walińska (ed.), *Rachunkowość i sprawozdawczość finansowa*, Wolters Kluwer, Warszawa 2008, p. 22.

¹² Z. Kołaczyk, *Rachunkowość finansowa*, Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej w Poznaniu, Poznań 1997, p. 19.

a system of economic recording and information or, in other words, a system of measurement, calculation of records and statements that captures in a continuous and orderly manner all economic events that affect the assets and financial performance of an entity¹³. Accounting is characterized by the accuracy of the accounts¹⁴, which defines accounting as an objective method of presenting the financial position of companies.

In foreign literature, we can find expressions that accounting is the art of measuring, describing and interpreting economic activity¹⁵ or it is a process of identifying, measuring and transmitting economic information to users, enabling them to make decisions based on the identification of the risk connected with it¹⁶ and also a quantitative description of economic values¹⁷.

A. Kinserdal states that accounting is a system for measuring business activity and communicating the results of this measurement to users¹⁸ and that the most general definition of accounting can be found in the work by C. P. Stickney and R. L. Well: Accounting is the language of business¹⁹.

According to the International Accounting Standards Board, accounting is a system of information on financial position, performance and changes in financial position, which is useful for a wide range of potential users to make economic decisions²⁰.

We should also not forget that accounting is not only a discipline of science, but also the art of its practical application in enterprises. In order to ensure uniform rules for companies, accounting for reporting purposes is regulated by law. In Poland, the basic normative act is the Accounting Act²¹, which also tries to define the concept of accounting. The concept of accounting for the *largo* is defined in the act by the elements that are included in it, i.e.:

- 1) the accounting policies adopted;
- 2) keeping, on the basis of accounting records, books of accounts which include the records of events in chronological and systematic order;
- 3) periodically establishing or checking through an inventory of the reality of assets and liabilities;
- 4) valuation of assets and liabilities and determination of financial result;
- 5) preparation of financial statements;
- 6) collecting and storing accounting records and other documentation provided for by law;

¹³ R. Stadtmüller, *Rachunkowość w przedsiębiorstwie przemysłowym*, PWN, Warszawa 1981, p. 11.

¹⁴ T. Peche, *Rachunkowość przedsiębiorstw a rachunkowość społeczna*, Polskie Wydawnictwa Gospodarcze, Warszawa 1959, p. 28.

¹⁵ R.F. Meigs, W.B. Meigs, *Financial Accounting*, Mc Graw Hill Publishing Comapany, New York 1995, p. 4.

¹⁶ *A Statement of Basic Accounting theory*, American Accounting Association 1966, p. 1.

¹⁷ R. Mattessich, *Accounting and Analytical Methods*, Irwin, Homewood, Illinois 1964.

¹⁸ A. Kinserdal, *Financial Accounting an International Perspective*, Pitman Publishing, London 1995, p. 1.

¹⁹ C.P. Stickney, R.L. Weil, *Financial Accounting*, Dryden Press, New York 1997, p. 3.

²⁰ *Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements*, IASC, 1989.

²¹ Ustawa z dnia 29 września 1994 r. o rachunkowości Dz. U. z 2018 r., poz. 395 z póź. zm.

7) auditing and announcing financial statements in cases provided for by law.

The addressees also had a significant influence on the evolution of the concept of accounting, who should or could voluntarily use the information provided by the changes in accounting. The most important recipients of information from the accounting system include: owners, members of the management board, creditors, investors, employees, banks, tax offices, customers.

Considering the definitions of accounting as well as the addressees of modern accounting, it can be concluded that two variables had the greatest impact on the changes that have taken place and are still taking place in accounting:

- reporting needs – mandatory, and
- management needs – voluntarily applied, adapted to the decision-making needs of managers at different levels of management.

The relevance of accounting as an information system is determined by its nature. As T. Peche argues, it is the accounting language that provides clarity and precision²².

To sum up, it can be concluded that the definitions of accounting in Polish and foreign literature focus on its three basic functions, which traditionally include the informational, controlling and analytical function²³, although there are authors who extend this classification²⁴ with an attestation function.

The accounting information function is the creation of specific, systematic classification of information sets. The controlling function of the accounting is related to asset protection and the analytical function is to use the information to assess the company's activities on an ongoing basis. An additional attestation function certifies the accuracy of the company's true financial performance.

In the definition of accounting, A. Szychta divided the accounting theory into two main groups²⁵. The first group included positive theories, which focus on the description of observed phenomena and facts and can be verified empirically. They answer the question of how it should be. The second group included normative theories that use the scheme of action: objective – means of its implementation. They answer the question of how it is. These types of theory also use empirical research²⁶. According to A. Szychta, both types of theory require deductive research using *a priori* assumptions.

By combining all accounting definitions and functions, it can be argued that accounting is a special information system of a company whose main task is to provide the various persons who, on the basis of this information, make decisions relating to that company or to this information with the relevant classified data.

²² T. Peche, *Metody bilansowe jako podstawa systemów informatycznych gospodarki narodowej*, Stowarzyszenie Księgowych w Polsce, Warszawa 1985, p. 115.

²³ B. Micherda (ed.), *Podstawy rachunkowości*, PWN, Warszawa 2005, pp. 14–18.

²⁴ Z. Messner, *Funkcje współczesnej rachunkowości*, Zeszyty Teoretyczne Rachunkowości, tom 56, Stowarzyszenie Księgowych w Polsce, Warszawa 2000, p. 118; E. Walińska (ed.), *Rachunkowość i sprawozdawczość finansowa*, Wolters Kluwer, Warszawa 2008.

²⁵ A. Szychta, *Teoria rachunkowości Richarda Mattessicha w świetle podstawowych kierunków rozwoju rachunkowości. Studium metodologiczne*, FRRwP, Warszawa 1996, p. 43.

²⁶ E.A. Hendriksen, M.F. van Breda, *Teoria rachunkowości*, PWN, Warszawa 2002, pp. 36–43.

In the interwar period, due to rising production costs, practitioners and scientists became more interested in cost accounting. Eugen Schmalenbach, a German scientist who, in the 1920s and 1930s, carried out numerous research work on cost accounting in the 1920s and 1930s, is attributed to creating the beginnings of theory in this field of accounting. Although it must be remembered that the first documented cost statement, which can be considered as a costing account, dates back to 1395 and relates to the production costs of the Prato cloth factory²⁷. E. Schmalenbach was the first to introduce a chart of accounts with separated account groups for the cost calculation. This made it possible to create a key cost classification for the development of the cost calculation, covering: type costs, material costs and costs in terms of subject matter (so called places of cost creation)²⁸. The development of science in cost accounting became the basis for the subsequent division of accounting into financial and management accounting. The basic reason for this was the fact that the account had large management qualities.

Financial accounting is seen as a source that provides retrospective information that allows the financial result and financial condition of an enterprise to be determined. Management accounting is primarily designed to provide information of a prospective nature that managers need to make decisions to help them achieve their objectives in both operational and strategic terms.

In 1989, the International Federation of Accountants issued the Management Accounting Concepts, in which it states that management accounting is understood to mean the process of identifying, measuring, collecting, analyzing, preparing and communicating information (both financial and non-financial) used by management for the purposes of planning, evaluating and controlling within an organization, as well as ensuring resource efficiency and accounting for consumption of resources²⁹. In the same annex, the federation specifies that management accounting is therefore an integral part of the management process. It should provide relevant information for:

- monitoring the current activity of the enterprise;
- planning future strategic, tactical and operational activities;
- optimizing the use of resources;
- measurement and evaluation of results;
- reduction of subjectivity in the decision-making process, and
- improvement of internal and external communication.

Evolution of management accounting

Management accounting was also subject to changes which were dependent on the development of company management theory and practice. In many

²⁷ E. Wojciechowski, *Zarys rozwoju rachunkowości w dawnej Polsce*, PWN, Warszawa 1964, p. 44.

²⁸ M. Schweitzer, *Eugen Schmalenbach jako prekursor rachunku kosztów w świecie niemieckojęzycznym*, Zeszyty Teoretyczne Rady Naukowej, Stowarzyszenie Księgowych w Polsce nr 39, Warszawa 1997, p. 129.

²⁹ *Management Accounting Concepts* issued by The International Federation of Accountants 1989.

definitions of management accounting, its development depends on changes in corporate governance.

The development of cost accounting gave rise to management accounting, which, while developing, determined the future development of cost accounting. Getting to know the basic scope of development of management accounting will allow you to better understand the importance of cost accounting in accounting and supporting management decision making.

A comprehensive way of presenting the history and evolution of management accounting can be found in English-language literature³⁰ as well as in scientific studies by Polish authors³¹, although most of them refer to studies published in foreign journals. In literature, there are different approaches to the phases of the evolution of management accounting, but in general three approaches can be distinguished³²:

Stage 1 – until the middle of the 20th century;

Stage 2 – until the mid-1980s;

Stage 3 – since the mid-1980s, until today.

The source of information for management accounting in the first development phase was the cost account. Full cost accounting was the first in industrialized countries. It focused on collecting information explaining the creation of real costs in the production process or the algorithm of calculating a full cost of production. In the 1930s, variable cost accounting began to appear in companies, which used marginal cost theory in its assumptions. In the underutilization of production capacity, especially in short-term periods, it provided managers with better quality information about the cost-benefit ratio. Thanks to the development of practical and scientific management methods (serial production, conveyor belts, etc.) concepts of a prioritized costing were developed in the first half of the 20th century. The origins of this group of cost accounts were linked to a number of shortcomings in the real cost accounts. The main obstacle to the application of real cost management accounts was the mode of calculation, i.e. *ex post*. The characteristic feature of apriority accounts was the implementation of a separate method of cost presentation. Depending on the presentation of the cost pattern, there were notable differences between normative cost accounts, forecasted cost accounts (postulated, budgeted) and standard cost accounts. These accounts provided information on actual costs, but what was valuable in terms of management, also what these costs should be. During that period, the first budgets were also created. Thanks to these tools, production and non-production costs were distinguished.

The second stage in the development of management accounting up to the 1980s is usually referred to as a period of control. During this period optimization models were developed for various decision-making situations in the value chain

³⁰ R.S. Kaplan, H.T. Johnson, *Relevance Lost: The Rise and Fall of Management Accounting*, Harvard Business School Press, Boston 1987; R.S. Kaplan, *The Evolution of Management Accounting*, The Accounting Review, 1984/3 (59), pp. 390–418.

³¹ A. Jaruga, W.A. Nowak, A. Szycha, *Rachunkowość zarządcza. Koncepcje i zastosowania*. Absolwent, Łódź 2001, p. 76; S. Sojak, *Rachunkowość zarządcza*, TNOiK, Toruń 2003, pp. 19–26; G. Świderska (ed.), *Rachunkowość zarządcza i rachunek kosztów*, vol. 1, Difin, Warszawa 2003, pp. 1.9–1.12.

³² I. Sobańska (ed.), *Rachunek kosztów i rachunkowość zarządcza*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2003, pp. 39–50.

of companies. Expansion of apriority cost accounts was carried out, with particular emphasis on the forecast cost account (postulated, budgeted). Budgeting played an increasingly important role in companies by increasing the detail of cost accounting, as well as a more thorough analysis of the reasons for deviations.

The progressive decentralization of corporate governance, which has been dynamically transforming into global corporations, has fostered the development of accountability. The variable costs account was also extended. a segmental income statement, which consists of two basic – multi-stage and multi-block – income statement accounts³³. It has often been used in addition to budgeting as a basis for enforcing accountability towards managers at all levels of corporate governance. However, the complexity and multi-level organizational structures in corporations, responsibility for the objectives and tasks set for many responsibility centers have made the budgeting process complex and labor-intensive. These problems were noticed by fast-growing IT companies as an opportunity for their further development. The turn of the 1980s and 1990s marked the beginning of a dedicated IT solutions supporting management accounting and the management process itself.

This phase initiated the development of existing and many new concepts of cost accounting and management accounting tools, some of which are still under development today. This is due, among other things, to the fact that these concepts are verified in economic practice, which exposes their weaknesses and dictates the directions of development. Among others, they were undertaken³⁴:

- research on the behavioral implications of information provided by managerial management expertise;
- research in the field of human resources measurement in accounting, the concept of intellectual capital has emerged, among others concerning creation of the right customer relationships;
- research on the theory of company activity limitations in the following areas: market, resources, principles.

The second phase of the development of management accounting was already characterized by an interdisciplinary approach, since in management accounting science were used, among others, management, economics, operational research, mathematics, decision making theory, psychology, sociology, gaming theory and computer science.

The third phase, which lasts until today, is characterized by a dynamic development of both theory and management accounting practice. According to I. Sobańska, the current stage of development of management accounting is a period of dramatic changes. That is to say, its objectives, tasks, tools, orientation, information horizon and the role and tasks of management accounting professionals have changed profoundly³⁵. These changes were triggered by³⁶:

³³ E. Nowak (ed.), *Strategiczne zarządzanie kosztami*, Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Kraków 2006, p. 14.

³⁴ I. Sobańska (ed.), *Rachunek kosztów i rachunkowość zarządcza*, C.H. Beck, Warszawa 2003, pp. 39–50.

³⁵ Ibidem, pp. 39–50.

³⁶ E. Nowak (ed.), *Strategiczne zarządzanie kosztami*, op. cit., p. 14.

- growth of assortment diversification of enterprise activity;
- increased complexity of processes and their importance;
- systematic increase in the share of indirect costs of activities;
- growth of competition dynamics;
- globalization of the economy;
- development of management methods, with particular emphasis on strategic management;
- the emergence of innovative strategies in companies;
- changes in the organizational structures of enterprises.

At this stage of the development of management accounting, methods of accounting for indirect costs have been particularly criticized. The billing keys used so far have been conducive to the sub-optimization of unit costs of cost carriers. Therefore, information about these costs has become useless for managers.

In the 1990s, there were opinions that only those processes that are also of strategic importance should be included in the internal value chain. This has resulted in the emergence of new cost accounting concepts. In the USA, an activity-based costing concept was developed³⁷, and a balanced scorecard³⁸. At the same time, a similar concept of the cost of operations concept³⁹ was born in Germany, with a focus on identifying the causes of costs. In practice, Japanese companies have developed concepts of *kaizen* (kaizen costing) and target costing.

Since none of these concepts are free from flaws specific to a given concept, the literature⁴⁰ and business practice are currently confronted with solutions which, in the process of integration, seek to combine the various methods using their best qualities.

Regardless of the tools or methods used in management accounting, the definitions of management accounting in literature are quite coherent with each other. The most general definition of management accounting was presented by K. Zadora, who defines management accounting as an information system for the management function⁴¹. A. Jaruga defines management accounting as a process ensuring the measurement and presentation of financial and non-financial information, which

³⁷ R.S. Kaplan, R. Cooper, *Cost and Effect. Using Integrated Cost Systems to Drive Profitability and Performance*, Harvard Business School Press, Harvard 1989.

³⁸ R.S. Kaplan, D.P. Norton, *Balanced Scorecard: Translating Strategy into Action*, Harvard Business School Press, 1996; R.S. Kaplan, D.P. Norton, *Putting the Balanced Scorecard to work*, Harvard Business Review, 1993/76; R.S. Kaplan, D.P. Norton, *Strategy maps: Converting intangible assets into tangible outcomes*, Harvard Business School Press, Boston 2004; R.S. Kaplan, D.P. Norton, *The Balanced Scorecard: Measures that Drive Performance*, Harvard Business Review, 1992/70.

³⁹ P. Horvath, R. Mayer, *Prozesskostenrechnung. Der Neue Weg zu mehr. Kostentransparenz Und wirkungsvolleren Unternehmensstadien*, Controlling 1989/4.

⁴⁰ G. Lew, *Rachunek kosztów klienta w zarządzaniu przedsiębiorstwem handlowym*, Oficyna Wydawnicza Politechniki Rzeszowskiej, Rzeszów 2015; B. Nita, *Rola rachunkowości zarządczej we wspomaganiu zarządzania dokonaniem przedsiębiorstwa*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu, Wrocław 2009.

⁴¹ K. Zadora, *Czym jest, a czym nie jest rachunkowość zarządcza*, Zeszyty Teoretyczne Rady Naukowej, no. 40, Stowarzyszenie Księgowych w Polsce, Warszawa 1997, p. 230.

helps managers at various levels to define and implement the organization's objectives⁴². W. Gabrusewicz believes that the primary objective of management accounting is therefore to systematically provide the company's management with information that helps them make optimal decisions under the given conditions⁴³.

In English-language literature, management accounting is presented as a process of identifying, measuring, measuring, collecting, analyzing, processing and communicating information that helps management to fully achieve the organization's objectives⁴⁴. In turn, R. H. Garrison considers that management accounting is an accounting department related to the provision of information to managers in order to use this information in business planning and control and in business decision making⁴⁵.

In the definition formulated by the Chartered Institute of Management Accounting, management accounting is defined as an integral part of management, dealing with the identification, presentation and interpretation of information used to formulate strategy, plan and control business, make decisions, optimize resource use, protect assets and disclose them to people interested⁴⁶. This definition also stresses that management accounting should be used to create, protect, preserve and increase value for all persons associated with the company. The primary objective of management accounting is to use it to create information of a strategic nature and to formulate the company's strategy. T. Lucey argues that all elements of management accounting should be subordinated to the company's strategy⁴⁷.

A. Szychta⁴⁸ also points out that in management accounting, the most important issues should be considered:

- setting for the collection and analysis of information on contractors (mainly customers);
- selection and application of appropriate methods in management accounting and marketing depending on the company's strategy;
- to take advantage of cost reduction opportunities as a result of the concept of continuous improvement;
- financial and non-financial performance measures to monitor improvements in the entity's various business areas.

Accounting as a universal language of business has a chance to become a universal unified information system in the global dimension.

⁴² A. Jaruga, W.A. Nowak, A. Szychta, *Rachunkowość zarządcza. Koncepcje i zastosowania*, Absolwent, Łódź 2001, p. 76.

⁴³ W. Gabrusewicz, A. Kamela-Sowińska, H. Poetschke, *Rachunkowość zarządcza*, PWE, Warszawa 2000, p. 24.

⁴⁴ C.T. Horngren, S.M. Datar, G. Foster, *Cost Accounting. A Managerial Emphasis*. 12th Edition. Prentice Hall. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey 2006, p. 4.

⁴⁵ R.H. Garrison, *Managerial Accounting. Concepts for Planning, Control and Decision Making*. Irwin. Homewood, Boston 1991, p. 18.

⁴⁶ CIMA *Official Terminology*, Edition CIMA Publishing, Oxford 2005, p. V.

⁴⁷ T. Lucey, *Management Accounting*, DP Publications Ltd. 5th edition, London 2003, pp. 1–2.

⁴⁸ A. Szychta, *Ramy koncepcyjne strategicznej rachunkowości zarządczej: in statu nascendi*, Zeszyty Teoretyczne Rachunkowości, nr 3 (87), SKWP, Warszawa 2006.

Conclusions

The economic practice of various companies consistently points to shortcomings in the accounting system in various aspects. New cost accounts such as activity-based costing have helped to solve only some of the problems faced by companies.

There is a constant search for new solutions that have the chance to effectively support management decisions, but there is still no perfect system or method. The next step in the development of accounting is likely to be the integration of current methods in order to increase their efficiency through the use of synergies. This effect makes it possible to integrate the most effective elements of individual accounting methods. Such actions may result in the emergence of a new quality in dedicated management accounting methods applied in specific companies.

Summary

All decisions of entrepreneurs and actions are determined by economic accounts. Each action has financial implications. Entrepreneurs looking for the possibility to record the financial consequences of their decisions naturally created an accounting system, which has become a widespread and universal information system of companies all over the world. Accounting has also changed with the development of companies on global markets. This evolution has led to the separation of two main accounting subsystems: financial and management accounting. Analyzing the process of accounting evolution, it can be concluded that the subsequent stages cover a shorter and shorter period of time, which can be interpreted as a constant acceleration of changes in accounting and consequently in the development of markets and companies in the global market. The main research method used to write the paper was a critical review of literature and desk research.

Keywords: accounting, finance, evolution, management.

Streszczenie

Wszystkie decyzje przedsiębiorców oraz działania zdeterminowane są rachunkiem ekonomicznym. Każde działanie pociąga za sobą skutki finansowe. Przedsiębiorcy poszukując możliwości zapisywania skutków finansowych swoich decyzji w sposób naturalny, stworzyli system rachunkowości, który stał się powszechnym i uniwersalnym systemem informacyjnym przedsiębiorstw na całym świecie. Wraz z rozwojem przedsiębiorstw na światowych rynkach rachunkowość również się zmieniała. Ewolucja ta doprowadziła do wyodrębnienia dwóch głównych podsystemów rachunkowości: rachunkowości finansowej oraz zarządczej. Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie w syntetycznym ujęciu rozwoju rachunkowości, jaki dokonał się przez ostatnich kilkaset lat. Podstawową metodą badawczą wykorzystaną do napisania artykułu były krytyczny przegląd literatury oraz źródeł wtórnych.

Słowa kluczowe: rachunkowość, finanse, ewolucja, zarządzanie.

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