

# CA FOUNDATION

BUSINESS LAWS (PAPER 2A)

## "50 POINTERS EXAM ORIENTED BOOK"

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# TOPIC 1

## THE INDIAN CONTRACT ACT, 1872

### 1. Difference between Agreement and Contract

Basis of differences	Agreement	Contract
Meaning	Every promise and every set of promises, forming the consideration for each other. Offer + Acceptance	Agreement enforceable by law. Agreement + Legal enforceability
Scope	It's a wider term including both legal and social agreement.	It is used in a narrow sense with the specification that contract is only legally enforceable agreement.
Legal obligation	It may not create legal obligation. An agreement does not always grant rights to the parties	Necessarily creates a legal obligation. A contract always grants certain rights to every party.
Nature	All agreement are not contracts.	All contracts are agreements.

### 2. ESSENTIALS OF A VALID CONTRACT

As given by Section 10 of Indian Contract Act, 1872		Not given by Section 10 but are also considered essential	
1	Agreement	1	Two parties
2	Free consent	2	Intention to create legal relationship
3	Competency of the parties	3	Fulfillment of legal formalities
4	Lawful consideration	4	Certainty of meaning
5	Legal object	5	Possibility of performance
6	Not expressly declared to be void	6	-

### 3. Difference between Void and Voidable Contract:

S. No.	Basis	Void Contract	Voidable Contract
1	Meaning	A Contract ceases to be enforceable by law becomes void when it ceases to be enforceable.	An agreement which is enforceable by law at the option of one or more of the parties thereto, but not at the option of the other or others, is a voidable contract.
2	Cause	A contract becomes void due to change in law or change in circumstances beyond the contemplation of parties.	A contract becomes a voidable contract if the consent of a party was not free.
3	Performance of contract	A void contract cannot be performed.	If the aggrieved party does not, within reasonable time, exercise his right to avoid the contract, any party can sue the other for claiming the performance of the contract.
4	Rights	A void contract does not grant any right to any party.	The party whose consent was not free has the right to rescind the contract.

### 4. Differences between Void Agreement & Illegal Agreement:

Basis of difference	Void agreement	Illegal agreement
Scope	A void agreement is not necessarily illegal.	An illegal agreement is always void.
Nature	Not forbidden under law.	Are forbidden under law.
Punishment	Parties are not liable for any punishment under the law.	Parties to illegal agreements are liable for punishment.
Collateral Agreement	It's not necessary that agreements collateral to void agreements may also be void. It may be valid also.	Agreements collateral to illegal agreements are always void.

## 5. What is General offer?

It is an offer made to public at large and hence anyone can accept and do the desired act (*Carlill v. Carbolic Smoke Ball Co.*). In terms of Section 8 of the Act, anyone performing the conditions of the offer can be considered to have accepted the offer. Until the general offer is retracted or withdrawn, it can be accepted by anyone at any time as it is a continuing offer.

### Case Law: *Carlill Vs. Carbolic Smoke Ball Co. (1893)*

**Facts:** In this famous case Carbolic smoke Ball Co. advertised in several newspapers that a reward of £100 would be given to any person who contracted influenza after using the smoke balls produced by the Carbolic Smoke Company according to printed directions. One lady, Mrs. Carlill, used the smoke balls as per the directions of company and even then suffered from influenza. Held, she could recover the amount as by using the smoke balls she had accepted the offer.

### Case Law: *Lalman Shukla v. Gauri Dutt*

**Facts:** G (Gauridutt) sent his servant L (Lalman) to trace his missing nephew. He then announced that anybody who traced his nephew would be entitled to a certain reward. L, traced the boy in ignorance of this announcement. Subsequently when he came to know of the reward, he claimed it. Held, he was not entitled to the reward, as he did not know the offer.

## 6. Difference between Offer and Invitation to make an offer:

In terms of Section 2(a) of the Act, an offer is the final expression of willingness by the offeror to be bound by the offer should the other party chooses to accept it. On the other hand, offers made with the intention to negotiate or offers to receive offers are known as invitation to offer. Thus where a party without expressing his final willingness proposes certain terms on which he is willing to negotiate he does not make an offer, but only invites the other party to make an offer on those terms. Hence the only thing that is required is the willingness of the offeree to abide by the terms of offer.

In order to ascertain whether a particular statement amounts to an offer or an invitation to offer, the test would be **intention** with which such statement is made. The mere statement of the lowest price which the vendor would sell contains no implied contract to sell at that price to the person making the inquiry.

If a person who makes the statement has the intention to be bound by it as soon as the other accepts, he is making an offer. Thus the intention to be bound is important factor to be considered in deciding whether a statement is an 'offer' or 'invitation to offer.'

## 7. REVOCATION OF OFFER AND ACCEPTANCE

If there are specific requirements governing the making of an offer and the acceptance of that offer, we also have specific law governing their revocation.

In term of **Section 4**, communication of revocation (of the proposal or its acceptance) is complete.

- (i) as against the person who makes it when it is put into a course of transmission to the person to whom it is made so as to be out of the power of the person who makes it, and

(ii) as against the person to whom it is made, when it comes to his knowledge.

**Contract through post-** As acceptance, in English law, cannot be revoked, so that once the letter of acceptance is properly posted the contract is concluded. In Indian law, the acceptor can revoke his acceptance any time before the letter of acceptance reaches the offeror, if the revocation telegram arrives before or at the same time with the letter of acceptance, the revocation is absolute.

**Contract over Telephone-** A contract can be made over telephone. The rules regarding offer and acceptance as well as their communication by telephone or telex are the same as for the contract made by the mutual meeting of the parties. The contract is formed as soon as the offer is accepted but the offeree must make it sure that his acceptance is received by the offeror, otherwise there will be no contract, as communication of acceptance is not complete. If telephone unexpectedly goes dead during conversation, the acceptor must confirm again that the words of acceptance were duly heard by the offeror.

**Revocation of proposal otherwise than by communication:** When a proposal is made, the proposer may not wait indefinitely for its acceptance. The offer can be revoked otherwise than by communication or sometimes by lapse.

#### **Modes of revocation of offer**

- (i) By notice of revocation
- (ii) By lapse of time
- (iii) By non fulfillment of condition precedent
- (iv) By death or insanity
- (v) By counter offer
- (vi) By the non acceptance of the offer according to the prescribed or usual mode
- (vii) By subsequent illegality

## **8. VALIDITY OF AN AGREEMENT WITHOUT CONSIDERATION**

The **general rule** is that an agreement made without consideration is void (Section 25). In every valid contract, consideration is very important. A contract may only be enforceable when consideration is there.

However, the Indian Contract Act contains **certain exceptions** to this rule. In the following cases, the agreement though made without consideration, will be valid and enforceable.

### **1. Natural Love and Affection:** Conditions to be fulfilled under section 25(1)

- (I) It must be made out of natural love and affection between the parties.
- (II) Parties must stand in near relationship to each other.
- (III) It must be in writing.
- (IV) It must also be registered under the law.

A written and registered agreement based on natural love and affection between the parties standing in near relation (e.g., husband and wife) to each other is enforceable even without consideration.

2. **Compensation for past voluntary services:** A promise to compensate, wholly or in part, a person who has already voluntarily done something for the promisor, is enforceable under Section 25(2). In order that a promise to pay for the past voluntary services be binding, the following essential factors must exist:
  - (I) The services should have been rendered voluntarily.
  - (II) The services must have been rendered for the promisor.
  - (III) The promisor must be in existence at the time when services were rendered.
  - (IV) The promisor must have intended to compensate the promisee.
3. **Promise to pay time barred debt:** Where a promise in writing signed by the person making it or by his authorised agent, is made to pay a debt barred by limitation it is valid without consideration [Section 25(3)].
4. **Agency:** According to Section 185 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872, no consideration is necessary to create an agency.
5. **Completed gift:** In case of completed gifts, the rule no consideration no contract does not apply.  
Explanation (1) to Section 25 states "nothing in this section shall affect the validity as between the donor and donee, of any gift actually made." Thus, gifts do not require any consideration.
6. **Bailment:** No consideration is required to effect the contract of bailment (Section 148).
7. **Charity:** If a promisee undertakes the liability on the promise of the person to contribute to charity, there the contract shall be valid.

## SUMMARY

- a) Consideration is a price for the promise of the other party and it may either be in the form of 'benefit' or some 'detriment' to the parties.
- b) Consideration must move at the desire of the promisor.
- c) It may be executed or executory.
- d) Past consideration is valid provided it moved at the previous request of the promisor.
- e) It must not be something which the promisor is already legally bound to do.
- f) It may move from the promisee or any third party.
- g) Inadequacy of consideration is not relevant.
- h) Consideration must be legal.
- i) The general rule of law is "No Consideration, No Contract" but there are a few **exceptional cases** where a contract, even though without consideration is valid.
- j) "Stranger to a contract can't sue but in some exceptional cases the contract may be enforced by a person who is not a party to the contract.

## **9. Law relating to Minor's agreement /Position of Minor**

1. A contract made with or by a minor is void ab-initio
2. No ratification after attaining majority
3. Minor can be a beneficiary or can take benefit out of a contract
4. A minor can always plead minority

5. Liability for necessities
6. Contract by guardian
7. No specific performance
8. No insolvency
9. Partnership
10. Minor can be an agent
11. Minor cannot bind parent or guardian
12. Joint contract by minor and adult
13. Surety for a minor
14. Minor as Shareholder
15. Liability for torts

## 10. Position to dominate the will:

Relation between the parties exist in such a manner that one of them is in a position to dominate the will of the other. A person is deemed to be in such position in the following circumstances:

- (a) **Real and apparent authority:** Where a person holds a real authority over the other as in the case of master and servant, doctor and patient and etc.  
**Example:** A father, by reason of his authority over the son can dominate the will of the son.
- (b) **Fiduciary relationship:** Where relation of trust and confidence exists between the parties to a contract. Such type of relationship exists between father and son, solicitor and client, husband and wife, creditor and debtor, etc.  
**Example:** By reason of fiduciary relationship, a solicitor can dominate the will of his client and a trustee can dominate the will of the beneficiary.
- (c) **Mental distress:** An undue influence can be used against a person to get his consent on a contract where the mental capacity of the person is temporarily or permanently affected by the reason of mental or bodily distress, illness or of old age.  
**Example:** A doctor is deemed to be in a position to dominate the will of his patient enfeebled by protracted illness.
- (d) **Unconscionable bargains:** Where one of the parties to a contract is in a position to dominate the will of the other and the contract is apparently unconscionable i.e., unfair, it is presumed by law that consent must have been obtained by undue influence. Unconscionable bargains are witnessed mostly in money-lending transactions and in gifts.  
**Example:** A youth of 18 years of age, spend thrift and a drunkard, borrowed ` 90,000 on a bond bearing compound interest at 2% per mensem (p.m.). It was held by the court that the transaction is unconscionable, the rate of interest charged being so exorbitant

## 11. Is SILENCE -FRAUD?

### **Mere silence is not fraud**

A party to the contract is under no obligation to disclose the whole truth to the other party. 'Caveat Emptor'



i.e. let the purchaser beware is the rule applicable to contracts. There is no duty to speak in such cases and silence does not amount to fraud. Similarly there is no duty to disclose facts which are within the knowledge of both the parties.

### Silence is fraud:

1. **Duty of person to speak:** Where the circumstances of the case are such that it is the duty of the person observing silence to speak. For example, in contracts of *uberrimae fidei* (contracts of utmost good faith).

**Following contracts come within this category:**

- (a) **Fiduciary Relationship:** Here, the person in whom confidence is reposed is under a duty to act with utmost good faith and make full disclosure of all material facts concerning the agreement, known to him.
- (b) **Contracts of Insurance:** In contracts of marine, fire and life insurance, there is an implied condition that full disclosure of material facts shall be made, otherwise the insurer is entitled to avoid the contract.
- (c) **Contracts of marriage:** Every material fact must be disclosed by the parties to a contract of marriage **Contracts of family settlement:** These contracts also require full disclosure of material facts within the knowledge of the parties.
- (d) **Share Allotment contracts:** Persons issuing 'Prospectus' at the time of public issue of shares/ debentures by a joint stock company have to disclose all material facts within their knowledge.

2. **Where the silence itself is equivalent to speech:** For example, A says to B "If you do not deny it, I shall assume that the horse is sound." A says nothing. His silence amounts to speech.

In case of fraudulent silence, contracts is not voidable if the party whose consent was so obtained had the means of discovering the truth with ordinary diligence (Exception to section 19)

## 12. Difference between Coercion and Undue influence:

Basis of difference	Coercion	Undue Influence
Nature of action	It involves the physical force or threat. The aggrieved party is compelled to make the contract against its will.	It involves moral or mental pressure.
Involvement of criminal action	It involves committing or threatening to commit and act forbidden by Indian Penal Code or detaining or threatening to detain property unlawfully.	No such illegal act is committed or a threat is given.
Relationship between parties	It is not necessary that there must be some sort of relationship between the parties.	Some sort of relationship between the parties is absolutely necessary.

Exercised by whom	Coercion need not proceed from the promisor nor need it be the directed against the promisor. It can be used even by a stranger to the contract.	Undue influence is always exercised between parties to the contract.
Enforceability	The contract is voidable at the option of the party whose consent has been obtained by the coercion.	Where the consent is induced by undue influence, the contract is either voidable or the court may set it aside or enforce it in a modified form.
Position of benefits received	In case of coercion where the contract is rescinded by the aggrieved party, as per Section 64, any benefit received has to be restored back to the other party.	The court has the discretion to direct the aggrieved party to return the benefit in whole or in part or not to give any such directions.

### **12A. Distinction between fraud and misrepresentation:**

Basis of difference	Fraud	Misrepresentation
Intention	To deceive the other party by hiding the truth.	There is no such intention to deceive the other party.
Knowledge of truth	The person making the suggestion believes that the statement as untrue.	The person making the statement believes it to be true, although it is not true.
Rescission of the contract and claim for damages	The injured party can repudiate the contract and claim damages.	The injured party is entitled to repudiate the contract or sue for restitution but cannot claim the damages.
Means to discover the truth	The party using the fraudulent act cannot secure or protect himself by saying that the injured party had means to discover the truth.	Party can always plead that the injured party had the means to discover the truth.

### **13. Essentials of a Wager**

1. There must be a promise to pay money or money's worth.
2. Promise must be conditional on an event happening or not happening.
3. There must be uncertainty of event.
4. There must be two parties, each party must stand to win or lose.
5. There must be common intention to bet at the timing of making such agreement.

6. Parties should have no interest in the event except for stake.

**Transactions similar to Wager (Gambling)**

- (i) Lottery transactions
- (ii) Crossword Puzzles and Competitions
- (iii) Speculative transactions
- (iv) Horse Race Transactions

**Transactions resembling with wagering transaction but are not void**

- (i) Chit fund
- (ii) Commercial transactions or share market transactions
- (iii) Games of skill and Athletic Competition
- (iv) A contract of insurance

**14. Distinction between Contract of Insurance and Wagering Agreement**

	Basis	Contracts of Insurance	Wagering Agreement
1.	Meaning	It is a contract to indemnify the loss.	It is a promise to pay money or money's worth on the happening or non happening of an uncertain event.
2.	Consideration	The crux of insurance contract is the mutual consideration (premium and compensation amount).	There is no consideration between the two parties. There is just gambling for money.
3.	Insurable Interest	Insured party has insurable interest in the life or property sought to be insured.	There is no property in case of wagering agreement. There is betting on other's life and properties.
4.	Contract of Indemnity	Except life insurance, the contract of insurance indemnifies the insured person against loss.	Loser has to pay the fixed amount on the happening of uncertain event.
5.	Enforceability	It is valid and enforceable	It is void and unenforceable agreement.
6.	Premium	Calculation of premium is based on scientific and actuarial calculation of risks.	No such logical calculations are required in case of wagering agreement.
7.	Public Welfare	They are beneficial to the society.	They have been regarded as against the public welfare.

## 15. LIABILITY OF JOINT PROMISOR & PROMISEE

### **Devolution of joint liabilities Section 42**

When two or more persons have made a joint promise, then, unless a contrary intention appears by the contract, all such persons, during their joint lives and after the death of any of them, his representative jointly with the survivor or survivors and after the death of last survivor, the representatives of all jointly, must fulfil the promise.

### **Any one of joint promisors may be compelled to perform - Section 43**

When two or more persons make a joint promise, the promisee may, in the absence of express agreement to the contrary, compel any one or more of such joint promisors to perform the whole of the promise.

**Each promisor may compel contribution** - Each of two or more joint promisors may compel every other joint promisor to contribute equally with himself to the performance of the promise, unless a contrary intention appears from the contract.

**In other words**, if one of the joint promisors is made to perform the whole contract, he can call for a contribution from others.

**Sharing of loss by default in contribution** - If any one of two or more joint promisors makes default in such contribution, the remaining joint promisors must bear the loss arising from such default in equal shares.

### **Effect of release of one joint promisor- Section 44**

The effect of release of one of the joint promisors is dealt with in Section 44 which is stated below:

Where two or more persons have made a joint promise, a release of one of such joint promisors by the promisee does not discharge the other joint promisor or joint promisors, neither does it free the joint promisors so released from responsibility to the other joint promisor or promisors.

### **Rights of Joint Promisees**

The law relating to Devolution of joint rights is contained in Section 45 which is reproduced below:

"When a person has made a promise to two or more persons jointly, then unless a contrary intention appears from the contract, the right to claim performance rests, as between him and them, with them during their joint lives, and after the death of any of them, with the representative of such deceased person jointly with the survivor or survivors, and after the death of the last survivor, with the representatives of all jointly".

## 16. Discharge by impossibility of performance:

The impossibility may exist from the very start. In that case, it would be **impossibility ab initio**. Alternatively, it may supervene. Supervening impossibility may take place owing to:

- (a) an unforeseen change in law;
- (b) the destruction of the subject-matter essential to that performance;
- (c) the non-existence or non-occurrence of particular state of things, which was naturally contemplated for performing the contract, as a result of some personal

- incapacity like dangerous malady;  
(d) the declaration of a war (Section 56).

## 17. **Ordinary damages:**

When a contract has been broken, the party who suffers by such breach is entitled to receive, from the party who has broken the contract, compensation for any loss or damage caused to him thereby, which naturally arose in the usual course of things from such breach, or which the parties knew, when they made the contract, to be likely to result from the breach of it: Such compensation is not to be given for any remote and indirect loss or damage sustained by reasons of the breach.

**(Section 73 of the Contract Act and the rule in Hadley vs. Baxendale)**

### HADLEY vs. BAXENDALE- Facts

The crankshaft of P's flour mill had broken. He gives it to D, a common carrier who promised to deliver it to the foundry in 2 days where the new shaft was to be made. The mill stopped working, D delayed the delivery of the crankshaft so the mill remained idle for another 5 days. P received the repaired crankshaft 7 days later than he would have otherwise received. Consequently, P sued D for damages not only for the delay in the delivering the broken part but also for loss of profits suffered by the mill for not having been worked. The court held that P was entitled only to ordinary damages and D was not liable for the loss of profits because the only information given by P to D was that the article to be carried was the broken shaft of a mill and it was not made known to them that the delay would result in loss of profits.

## 18. **Quantum Meruit:**

Where one person has rendered service to another in circumstances which indicate an understanding between them that it is to be paid for although no particular remuneration has been fixed, the law will infer a promise to pay. *Quantum Meruit* i.e. **as much as the party doing the service has deserved**. It covers a case where the party injured by the breach had at time of breach done part but not all of the work which he is bound to do under the contract and seeks to be compensated for the value of the work done.

For the application of this doctrine, **two conditions** must be fulfilled:

- a. It is only available if the original contract has been discharged.
- b. The claim must be brought by a party not in default.

The object of allowing a claim on quantum meruit is to recompensate the party or person for value of work which he has done. Damages are compensatory in nature while quantum meruit is restitutory. It is but reasonable compensation awarded on implication of a contract to remunerate. Where a person orders from a wine merchant 12 bottles of a whiskey and 2 of brandy, and the purchaser accepts them, the purchaser must pay a reasonable price for the brandy.

**The claim for quantum meruit arises in the following cases:**

- (a) When an agreement is discovered to be void or when a contract becomes void.
- (b) When something is done without any intention to do so gratuitously.
- (c) Where there is an express or implied contract to render services but there is no agreement as to remuneration.

- (d) When one party abandons or refuses to perform the contract.
- (e) Where a contract is divisible and the party not in default has enjoyed the benefit of part performance.
- (f) ) When an indivisible contract for a lump sum is completely performed but badly the person who has performed the contract can claim the lump sum, but the other party can make a deduction for bad work.

## 19. Difference between a contingent contract and a wagering contract

Basis of difference	Contingent contract	Wagering contract
Meaning	A contingent contract is a contract to do or not to do something with reference to a collateral event happening or not happening.	A wagering agreement is a promise to give money or money's worth with reference to an uncertain event happening or not happening.
Reciprocal promises	Contingent contract may not contain reciprocal promises.	A wagering agreement consists of reciprocal promises.
Uncertain event	In a contingent contract, the event is collateral.	In a wagering contract, the uncertain event is the core factor.
Nature of contract	Contingent contract may not be wagering in nature.	A wagering agreement is essentially contingent in nature.
Interest of contracting parties	Contracting parties have interest in the subject matter in contingent contract.	The contracting parties have no interest in the subject matter.
Doctrine of mutuality of lose and gain	Contingent contract is not based on doctrine of mutuality of lose and gain.	A wagering contract is a game, losing and gaining alone matters.
Effect of contract	Contingent contract is valid.	A wagering agreement is void.

## 20. QUASI CONTRACTS

1. A valid contract must contain certain essential elements, such as offer and acceptance, capacity to contract, consideration and free consent.
2. But sometimes the law implies a promise imposing obligations on one party and conferring right in favour of the other even when there is no offer, no acceptance, no genuine consent, lawful consideration, etc. and in fact neither agreement nor promise.
3. Such cases are not contracts in the strict sense, but the Court recognises them as **relations resembling those of contracts** and enforces them as if they were contracts.
4. Hence the term **Quasi -contracts (i.e. resembling a contract)**.
5. Even in the absence of a contract, certain social relationships give rise to certain specific obligations to be performed by certain persons. These are known as quasi contracts as they create same obligations as in the case of regular contract.
6. Quasi contracts are based on principles of equity, justice and good conscience.
7. A quasi or constructive contract rests upon the maxims, "No man must grow rich out of another persons loss".

### 20A. CASES deemed as Quasi Contracts:-

**Claim for necessaries supplied to persons incapable of contracting (Section 68)** If a person, incapable of entering into a contract, or anyone whom he is legally bound to support, is supplied by another person with necessaries suited to his condition in life, the person who has furnished such supplies is entitled to be reimbursed from the property of such incapable person.

**Payment by an interested person (Section 69):** A person who is interested in the payment of money which another is bound by law to pay, and who therefore pays it, is entitled to be reimbursed by the other.

**Obligation of person enjoying benefits of non-gratuitous act (Section 70):** In term of section 70 of the Act "where a person lawfully does anything for another person, or delivers anything to him not intending to do so gratuitously and such other person enjoys the benefit thereof, the latter is bound to pay compensation to the former in respect of, or to restore, the thing so done or delivered".

**It thus follows that for a suit to succeed, the plaintiu must prove:**

- (i) that he had done the act or had delivered the thing lawfully;
- (ii) that he did not do so gratuitously; and
- (iii) that the other person enjoyed the benefit.

**Responsibility of finder of goods (Section 71):** 'A person who finds goods belonging to another and takes them into his custody is subject to same responsibility as if he were a bailee'.

Thus a finder of lost goods has:

1. to take proper care of the property as man of ordinary prudence would take
2. no right to appropriate the goods and
3. to restore the goods if the owner is found.

**Money paid by mistake or under coercion (Section 72):** "A person to whom money has been paid or anything delivered by mistake or under coercion, must repay or return it".  
Every kind of payment of money or delivery of goods for every type of 'mistake' is recoverable.

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TOPIC - 2  
THE SALE OF GOODS ACT, 1930

**21. Goods and other related terms:**

**"Goods"** means every kind of movable property **other than** actionable claims and money; and includes stock and shares, growing crops, grass, and things attached to or forming part of the land, which are agreed to be severed before sale or under the contract of sale. [Section 2(7)]

This is a wider definition than contained in the English law, which does not consider 'stock' and 'shares' as goods, though it includes a ship.

'Actionable claims' are claims, which can be enforced only by an action or suit, e.g., debt. A debt is not a movable property or goods. Even the Fixed Deposit Receipts (FDR) are considered as goods under Section 176 of the Indian Contract Act read with Section 2(7) of the Sales of Goods Act.

**22. CONTINGENT GOODS:**

The acquisition of which by the seller depends upon an uncertain contingency (uncertain event) are called 'contingent goods' [Section 6(2)].

Contingent goods also operate as 'an agreement to sell' and not a 'sale' so far as the question of passing of property to the buyer is concerned. In other words, like the future goods, in the case of contingent goods also, the property does not pass to the buyer at the time of making the contract.

**Example:** A agrees to sell to B a Picasso painting provided he is able to purchase it from its present owner. This is a contract for the sale of contingent goods.

**23. DISTINCTION BETWEEN SALE AND AN AGREEMENT TO SELL**

The differences between the two are as follows:

Basis of difference	Sale	Agreement to sell
Transfer of property	The property in the goods passes to the buyer immediately.	Property in the goods passes to the buyer on future date or on fulfilment of some condition.
Nature of contract	It is an executed contract. i.e. contract for which consideration has been paid.	It is an executory contract. i.e. contract for which consideration is to be paid at a future date.

Remedies for breach	The seller can sue the buyer for the price of the goods because of the passing of the property therein to the buyer.	The aggrieved party can sue for damages only and not for the price, unless the price was payable at a stated date.
Liability of parties	A subsequent loss or destruction of the goods is the liability of the buyer.	Such loss or destruction is the liability of the seller.
Burden of risk	Risk of loss is that of buyer since risk follows ownership.	Risk of loss is that of seller.
Nature of rights	Creates Jus in rem	Creates Jus in personam
Right of resale	The seller cannot resell the goods.	The seller may sell the goods since ownership is with the seller.

## 24. **Distinction between SALE and HIRE PURCHASE:**

Basis of difference	Sale	Hire- Purchase
<b>Time of passing property</b>	Property in the goods is transferred to the buyer immediately at the time of contract.	The property in goods passes to the hirer upon payment of the last installment.
<b>Position of the party</b>	The position of the buyer is that of the owner of the goods.	The position of the hirer is that of a bailee till he pays the last installment.
<b>Termination of contract</b>	The buyer cannot terminate the contract and is bound to pay the price of the goods.	The hirer may, if he so likes, terminate the contract by returning the goods to its owner without any liability to pay the remaining installments.
<b>Burden of Risk of insolvency of the buyer</b>	The seller takes the risk of any loss resulting from the insolvency of the buyer.	The owner takes no such risk, for if the hirer fails to pay an installment, the owner has right to take back the goods.
<b>Transfer of title</b>	The buyer can pass a good title to a <i>bona fide purchaser</i> from him.	The hirer cannot pass any title even to a <i>bona fide purchaser</i> .
<b>Resale</b>	The buyer in sale can resell the goods	The hire purchaser cannot resell unless he has paid all the installments.

25. **The difference between bailment and sale:**

Basis of difference	Sale	Bailment
Transfer of property	The property in goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer.	There is only transfer of possession of goods from the bailor to the bailee for any of the reasons like safe custody, carriage etc.
Return of goods	The return of goods in contract of sale is not possible.	The bailee must return the goods to the bailor on the accomplishment of the purpose for which the bailment was made.
Consideration	The consideration is the price in terms of money.	The consideration may be gratuitous or non-gratuitous.

26. **Differences between Conditions and Warranties**

Point of differences	Condition	Warranty
Meaning	A condition is essential to the main purpose of the contract.	It is only collateral to the main purpose of the contract.
Right in case of breach	The aggrieved party can repudiate the contract or claim damages or both in the case of breach of condition.	The aggrieved party can claim only damages in case of breach of warranty.
Conversion of stipulations	A breach of condition may be treated as a breach of warranty.	A breach of warranty cannot be treated as a breach of condition.

## 27. **CAVEAT EMPTOR**

1. In case of sale of goods, the doctrine 'Caveat Emptor' means 'let the buyer beware'.
2. When sellers display their goods in the open market, it is for the buyers to make a proper selection or choice of the goods.
3. If the goods turn out to be defective he cannot hold the seller liable. The seller is in no way responsible for the bad selection of the buyer.
4. The seller is not bound to disclose the defects in the goods which he is selling.
5. It is the duty of the buyer to satisfy himself before buying the goods that the goods will serve the purpose for which they are being bought. If the goods turn out to be defective or do not serve his purpose or if he depends on his own skill or judgment, the buyer cannot hold the seller responsible.

The rule of Caveat Emptor is laid down in the Section 16, which states that, "subject to the provisions of this Act or of any other law for the time being in force, there is no implied warranty or condition as to the quality or fitness for any particular purpose of goods supplied under a contract of sale".

Following are the conditions to be satisfied:

- if the buyer had made known to the seller the purpose of his purchase, and
- the buyer relied on the seller's skill and judgement, and
- seller's business to supply goods of that description

**Exceptions:** The doctrine of Caveat Emptor is, however, subject to the following exceptions:

1. **Fitness as to quality or use:** Where the buyer makes known to the seller the particular purpose for which the goods are required, so as to show that he relies on the seller's skill or judgment and the goods are of a description which is in the course of seller's business to supply, it is the duty of the seller to supply such goods as are reasonably fit for that purpose [Section 16 (1)].
2. **Goods purchased under patent or brand name:** In case where the goods are purchased under its patent name or brand name, there is no implied condition that the goods shall be fit for any particular purpose [Section 16(1)].
3. **Goods sold by description:** Where the goods are sold by description there is an implied condition that the goods shall correspond with the description [Section 15]. If it is not so then seller is responsible.
4. **Goods of Merchantable Quality:** Where the goods are bought by description from a seller who deals in goods of that description there is an implied condition that the goods shall be of merchantable quality. The rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable. But where the buyer has examined the goods this rule shall apply if the defects were such which ought to have not been revealed by ordinary examination [Section 16(2)].
5. **Sale by sample:** Where the goods are bought by sample, this rule of Caveat Emptor does not apply if the bulk does not correspond with the sample [Section 17].
6. **Goods by sample as well as description:** Where the goods are bought by sample as well as description, the rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable in case the goods do not correspond with both the sample and description or either of the condition [Section 15].
7. **Trade Usage:** An implied warranty or condition as to quality or fitness for a particular purpose may be annexed by the usage of trade and if the seller deviates from that, this

rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable [Section 16(3)].

8. **Seller actively conceals a defect or is guilty of fraud:** Where the seller sells the goods by making some misrepresentation or fraud and the buyer relies on it or when the seller actively conceals some defect in the goods so that the same could not be discovered by the buyer on a reasonable examination, then the rule of Caveat Emptor will not apply. In such a case the buyer has a right to avoid the contract and claim damages.

**28. In the following cases, a non-owner can convey better title to the bona fide purchaser of goods for value.**

- (1) **Sale by a Mercantile Agent:** A sale made by a mercantile agent of the goods for document of title to goods would pass a good title to the buyer in the following circumstances; namely:
  - (a) If he was in possession of the goods or documents with the consent of the owner;
  - (b) If the sale was made by him when acting in the ordinary course of business as a mercantile agent; and
  - (c) If the buyer had acted in good faith and has at the time of the contract of sale, no notice of the fact that the seller had no authority to sell
- (2) **Sale by one of the joint owners** If one of several joint owners of goods has the sole possession of them by permission of the co-owners, the property in the goods is transferred to any person who buys them of such joint owner in good faith and has not at the time of the contract of sale notice that the seller has no authority to sell.
- (3) **Sale by a person in possession under voidable contract:** A buyer would acquire a good title to the goods sold to him by a seller who had obtained possession of the goods under a contract voidable on the ground of coercion, fraud, misrepresentation or undue influence provided that the contract had not been rescinded until the time of the sale
- (4) **Sale by one who has already sold the goods but continues in possession thereof:** If a person has sold goods but continues to be in possession of them or of the documents of title to them, he may sell them to a third person, and if such person obtains the delivery thereof in good faith and without notice of the previous sale, he would have good title to them, although the property in the goods had passed to the first buyer earlier. A pledge or other disposition of the goods or documents of title by the seller in possession are equally valid
- (5) **Sale by buyer obtaining possession before the property in the goods has vested in him:** Where a buyer with the consent of the seller obtains possession of the goods before the property in them has passed to him, he may sell, pledge or otherwise dispose of the goods to a third person, and if such person obtains delivery of the goods in good faith and without notice of the lien or other right of the original seller in respect of the goods, he would get a good title to them However, a person in possession of goods under a 'hire-purchase' agreement which gives him only an option to buy is not covered within the section unless it amounts to a sale.
- (6) **Effect of Estoppel:** Where the owner is estopped by the conduct from denying the seller's authority to sell, the transferee will get a good title as against the true owner. But before a good title by estoppel can be made, it must be shown that the true owner had actively suffered or held out the other person in question as the true owner or as a person authorized to sell the goods.

- (7) **Sale by an unpaid seller:** Where an unpaid seller who had exercised his right of lien or stoppage in transit resells the goods, the buyer acquires a good title to the goods as against the original buyer
- (8) **Sale under the provisions of other Acts:**
- (i) Sale by an Official Receiver or Liquidator of the Company will give the purchaser a valid title.
  - (ii) Purchase of goods from a finder of goods will get a valid title under circumstances
  - (iii) A sale by pawnee can convey a good title to the buyer

## 29. **Duration of transit:**

The goods are deemed to be in course of transit from the time when they are delivered to a carrier or other bailee for the purpose of transmission to the buyer, until the buyer or his agent in that behalf takes delivery of them from such carrier or other bailee.

### **When does the transit come to an end?**

The right of stoppage in transit is lost when transit comes to an end. Transit comes to an end in the following cases:

- When the buyer or other bailee obtains delivery.
- Buyer obtains delivery before the arrival of goods at destination.
- Where the carrier or other bailee acknowledges to the buyer or his agent that he holds the goods as soon as the goods are loaded on the ship, unless the seller has reserved the right of disposal of the goods.
- If the carrier wrongfully refuses to deliver the goods to the buyer.
- Where goods are delivered to the carrier hired by the buyer, the transit comes to an end.
- Where the part delivery of the goods has been made to the buyer, there the transit will come to an end for the remaining goods which are yet in the course of transmission.
- Where the goods are delivered to a ship chartered by the buyer, the transit comes to an end.

### **How stoppage in transit is effected ?**

There are two modes of stoppage in transit-

Where the notice of stoppage in transit is given by the seller to the carrier or other bailee in possession of the goods, he shall re-deliver the goods to, or according to the directions of, the seller. The expenses of such re-delivery shall be borne by the seller.

## 30. **Distinction between Right of Lien and Right of Stoppage in Transit**

- (i) The essence of a right of lien is to retain possession whereas the right of stoppage in transit is right to regain possession.
- (ii) Seller should be in possession of goods under lien while in stoppage in transit (i) seller should have parted with the possession (ii) possession should be with a carrier, & (iii) buyer has not acquired the possession.

- (iii) Right of lien can be exercised even when the buyer is not insolvent but it is not the case with right of stoppage in transit.
- (iv) Right of stoppage in transit begins when the right of lien ends. Thus the end of the right of lien is the starting point of the right of stoppage in transit.

### **31. RIGHTS OF UNPAID SELLER AGAINST THE BUYER**

**Rights of unpaid seller against the buyer:** An unpaid seller can enforce certain rights against the goods as well as against the buyer personally. Rights of unpaid seller against the buyer are otherwise known as seller's remedies for breach of contract of sale. The rights of the seller against the buyer personally are called rights in person and are in addition to his rights against the goods.

The right against the buyer are as follows:

1. **Suit for price (Section 55)**
  - (a) Where under a contract of sale the property in the goods has passed to the buyer and the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to pay for the goods according to the terms of the contract, the seller may sue him for the price of the goods. [Section 55(1)]
  - (b) Where under a contract of sale the price is payable on a day certain irrespective of delivery and the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to pay such price, the seller may sue him for the price although the property in the goods has not passed and the goods have not been appropriated to the contract. [Section 55(2)].
2. **Suit for damages for non-acceptance (Section 56):** Where the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to accept and pay for the goods, the seller may sue him for damages for non-acceptance. As regards measure of damages, Section 73 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 applies.
3. **Repudiation of contract before due date (Section 60):** Where the buyer repudiates the contract before the date of delivery, the seller may treat the contract as rescinded and sue damages for the breach. This is known as the 'rule of anticipatory breach contract'.
4. **Suit for interest [Section 61]:** Where there is specific agreement between the seller and the buyer as to interest on the price of the goods from the date on which payment becomes due, the seller may recover interest from the buyer. If, however, there is no specific agreement to this effect, the seller may charge interest on the price when it becomes due from such day as he may notify to the buyer.

In the absence of a contract to the contrary, the Court may award interest to the seller in a suit by him at such rate as it thinks fit on the amount of the price from the date of the tender of the goods or from the date on which the price was payable.

**TOPIC - 3**  
**THE INDIAN PARTNERSHIP ACT, 1932**

**32. TRUE TEST OF PARTNERSHIP**

**Mode of determining existence of partnership (Section 6):** In determining whether a group of persons is or is not a firm, or whether a person is or not a partner in a firm, regard shall be had to the real relation between the parties, as shown by all relevant facts taken together. For determining the existence of partnership, it must be proved.

1. There was an **agreement** between all the persons concerned
2. The agreement was to **share the profits** of a business and
3. the business was **carried on by all or any of them** acting for all (Agency).

**Agency:**

Existence of Mutual Agency which is the cardinal principle of partnership law, is very much helpful in reaching a conclusion in this regard. Each partner carrying on the business is the principal as well as an agent of other partners. So, the act of one partner done on behalf of firm, binds all the partners. If the elements of mutual agency relationship exist between the parties constituting a group formed with a view to earn profits by running a business, a partnership may be deemed to exist.

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**33. Partnership Vs. Joint Stock Company**

Basis	Partnership	Joint Stock Company
Legal status	A firm is not legal entity i.e., it has no legal personality distinct from the personalities of its constituent members.	A company is a separate legal entity distinct from its members ( <i>Salomon v. Salomon</i> ).
Agency	In a firm, every partner is an agent of the other partners, as well as of the firm.	In a company, a member is not an agent of the other members or of the company, his actions do not bind either.



Basis	Partnership	Joint Stock Company
Distribution of profits	The profits of the firm must be distributed among the partners according to the terms of the partnership deed.	There is no such compulsion to distribute its profits among its members. Some portion of the profits, but generally not the entire profit, become distributable among the shareholders only when dividends are declared.
Extent of liability	In a partnership, the liability of the partners is unlimited. This means that each partner is liable for debts of a firm incurred in the course of the business of the firm and these debts can be recovered from his private property, if the joint estate is insufficient to meet them wholly.	In a company limited by shares, the liability of a shareholder is limited to the amount, if any, unpaid on his shares, but in the case of a guarantee company, the liability is limited to the amount for which he has agreed to be liable. However, there may be companies where the liability of members is unlimited.
Property	The firm's property is that which is the "joint estate" of all the partners as distinguished from the 'separate' estate of any of them and it does not belong to a body distinct in law from its members.	In a company, its property is separate from that of its members who can receive it back only in the form of dividends or refund of capital.
Transfer of shares	A share in a partnership cannot be transferred without the consent of all the partners.	In a company a shareholder may transfer his shares, subject to the provisions contained in its Articles. In the case of public limited companies whose shares are quoted on the stock exchange, the transfer is usually unrestricted.
Management	In the absence of an express agreement to the contrary, all the partners are entitled to participate in the management.	Members of a company are not entitled to take part in the management unless they are appointed as directors, in which case they may participate. Members, however, enjoy the right of attending general meeting and voting where they can decide certain questions such as election of directors,

		appointment of auditors, etc.
Registration	Registration is not compulsory in the case of partnership.	A company cannot come into existence unless it is registered under the Companies Act, 2013.
Winding up	A partnership firm can be dissolved at any time if all the partners agree.	A company, being a legal person is either wind up by the National Company Law Tribunal or its name is struck off by the Registrar of Companies.

Basis	Partnership	Joint Stock Company
Number of membership	According to section 464 of the Companies Act, 2013, the number of partners in any association shall not exceed 100. However, the Rule given under the Companies (Miscellaneous) Rules, 2014 restrict the present limit to 50.	A private company may have as many as 200 members but not less than two and a public company may have any number of members but not less than seven. A private Company can also be formed by one person known as one person Company.
Duration of existence	Unless there is a contract to the contrary, death, retirement or insolvency of a partner results in the dissolution of the firm.	A company enjoys a perpetual succession.

### 34. **Partnership vs. Hindu Undivided Family**

Basis of difference	Partnership	Joint Hindu family
Mode of creation	Partnership is created necessarily by an agreement.	The right in the joint family is created by status means its creation by birth in the family.
Death of a member	Death of a partner ordinarily leads to the dissolution of partnership.	The death of a member in the Hindu undivided family does not give rise to dissolution of the family business.
Management	All the partners are equally entitled to take part in the partnership business.	The right of management of joint family business generally vests in the Karta, the governing male member or female member of the family. <sup>1</sup>
Authority to bind	Every partner can, by his act, bind the firm.	The Karta or the manager, has the authority to contract for the family business and the other members in the family.
Liability	In a partnership, the liability of a partner is unlimited.	In a Hindu undivided family, only the liability of the Karta is unlimited, and the other coparcener are liable only to the extent of their share in the profits of the family business.
Calling for accounts on closure	A partner can bring a suit against the firm for accounts, provided he also seeks the dissolution of the firm.	On the separation of the joint family, a member is not entitled to ask for account of the family business.
Governing Law	A partnership is governed by the Indian Partnership Act, 1932.	A Joint Hindu Family business is governed by the Hindu Law.
Minor's capacity	In a partnership, a minor cannot become a partner, though he can be admitted to the benefits of partnership, only with the consent of all the partners.	In Hindu undivided family business, a minor becomes a member of the ancestral business by the incidence of birth. He does not have to wait for attaining majority.
Continuity	A firm subject to a contract between the partners gets dissolved by death or insolvency of a partner.	A Joint Hindu family has the continuity till it is divided. The status of Joint Hindu family is not thereby affected by the death of a member.
Number of Members	In case of Partnership number of members should not exceed 50.	Members of HUF who carry on a business may be unlimited in number.

Share in the business	In a partnership each partner has a defined share by virtue of an agreement between the partners.	In a HUF, no coparceners has a definite share. His interest is a fluctuating one. It is capable of being enlarged by deaths in the family diminished by births in the family.
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### 35. **Partnership Deed**

Partnership is the result of an agreement. No particular formalities are required for an agreement of partnership. It may be in writing or formed verbally. But it is desirable to have the partnership agreement in writing to avoid future disputes. The document in writing containing the various terms and conditions as to the relationship of the partners to each other is called the 'partnership deed'. It should be drafted with care and be stamped according to the provisions of the Stamp Act, 1899. Where the partnership comprises immovable property, the instrument of partnership must be in writing, stamped and registered under the Registration Act.

**Partnership deed may contain the following information:-**

1. Name of the partnership firm.
2. Names of all the partners.
3. Nature and place of the business of the firm.
4. Date of commencement of partnership.
5. Duration of the partnership firm.
6. Capital contribution of each partner.
7. Profit Sharing ratio of the partners.
8. Admission and Retirement of a partner.
9. Rates of interest on Capital, Drawings and loans.
10. Provisions for settlement of accounts in the case of dissolution of the firm.
11. Provisions for Salaries or commissions, payable to the partners, if any.
12. Provisions for expulsion of a partner in case of gross breach of duty or fraud.
13. A partnership firm may add or delete any provision according to the needs of the firm.

### 36. **Partner by holding out (Section 28):**

Partnership by holding out is also known as partnership by estoppel. Where a man holds himself out as a partner, or allows others to do it, he is then stopped from denying the character he has assumed and upon the faith of which creditors may be presumed to have acted.

A person may himself, by his words or conduct have induced others to believe that he is a partner or he may have allowed others to represent him as a partner. The result in both the cases is identical.

**Example:** X and Y are partners in a partnership firm. X introduced A, a manager, as his partner to Z. A remained silent. Z, a trader believing A as partner supplied 100 T.V sets to the firm on credit. After expiry of credit period, Z did not get amount of T.V sets sold to the partnership firm. Z filed a suit against X and A for the recovery of price. Here, in the given case, A, the Manager is also liable for the price because he becomes a partner by holding out (Section 28, Indian Partnership Act, 1932).

It is only the person to whom the representation has been made and who has acted thereon that has right to enforce liability arising out of 'holding out'.

The rule given in Section 28 is also applicable to a former partner who has retired from the firm without giving proper public notice of his retirement. In such cases a person who, even subsequent to the retirement, give credit to the firm on the belief that he was a partner, will be entitled to hold him liable.

**Example:** A partnership firm consisting of P, Q, R and S. S retires from the firm without giving public notice and his name continues to be used on letterheads. Here, S is liable as a partner by holding out to creditors who have lent on the faith of his being a partner.

### **37. IMPLIED AUTHORITY OF PARTNER AS AGENT OF THE FIRM (SECTION 19):**

Subject to the provisions of section 22, the act of a partner which is done to carry on, in the usual way, business of the kind carried on by the firm, binds the firm.

The authority of a partner to bind the firm conferred by this section is called his "implied authority".

In the absence of any usage or custom of trade to the contrary, the implied authority of a partner does not empower him to-

1. Submit a dispute relating to the business of the firm to arbitration;
2. open a banking account on behalf of the firm in his own name;
3. compromise or relinquish any claim or portion of a claim by the firm;
4. withdraw a suit or proceedings filed on behalf of the firm;
5. admit any liability in a suit or proceedings against the firm;
6. acquire immovable property on behalf of the firm;
7. transfer immovable property belonging to the firm; and
8. enter into partnership on behalf of the firm.

### **38. RIGHTS OF TRANSFEREE OF A PARTNER'S INTEREST (SECTION 29)**

#### **Analysis of section 29:**

A share in a partnership is transferable like any other property, but as the partnership relationship is based on mutual confidence, the assignee of a partner's interest by sale, mortgage or otherwise cannot enjoy the same rights and privileges as the original partner.

The rights of such a transferee are as follows:

- (1) During the continuance of partnership, such transferee is not entitled
  - (a) to interfere with the conduct of the business,
  - (b) to require accounts, or
  - (c) to inspect books of the firm.

He is only entitled to receive the share of the profits of the transferring partner and he is bound to accept the profits as agreed to by the partners, i.e., he cannot challenge the accounts.

- (2) On the dissolution of the firm or on the retirement of the transferring partner, the transferee will be entitled, against the remaining partners:
- (a) to receive the share of the assets of the firm to which the transferring partner was entitled, and
  - (b) for the purpose of ascertaining the share, he is entitled to an account as from the date of the dissolution.

### 39. MINORS ADMITTED TO THE BENEFITS OF PARTNERSHIP (SECTION 30)

- (1) A person who is a minor according to the law to which he is subject may not be a partner in a firm, but, with the consent of all the partners for the time being, he may be admitted to the benefits of partnership.
- (2) Such minor has right to such share of the property and of the profits of the firm as may be agreed upon and he may have access to and inspect and copy any of the accounts of the firm.
- (3) Such minor's share is liable for the acts of the firm, but the minor is not personally liable for any such act.
- (4) Such minor may not sue the partners for an account or payment of his share of the property or profits of the firm, save when severing his connection with the firm, and in such case the amount of his share shall be determined by a valuation made as far as possible in accordance with the rules contained in Section 48:  
**Provided that** all the partners acting together or any partner entitled to dissolve the firm upon notice to other partners may elect in such suit to dissolve the firm, and thereupon the Court shall proceed with the suit as one for dissolution and for settling accounts between the partners, and the amount of the share of the minor shall be determined along with the shares of the partners.
- (5) At any time within six months of his attaining majority, or of his obtaining knowledge that he had been admitted to the benefits of partnership, whichever date is later, such person may give public notice that he has elected to become or that he has elected not to become a partner in the firm, and such notice shall determine his position as regards the firm:  
**Provided that**, if he fails to give such notice, he shall become a partner in the firm on the expiry of the said six months.
- (6) Where any person has been admitted as a minor to the benefits of partnership in a firm, the burden of proving the fact that such person had no knowledge of such admission until a particular date after the expiry of six months of his attaining majority shall lie on the persons asserting that fact.
- (7) Where such person becomes a partner,-
  - (a) his right and liabilities as a minor continue up to the date on which he becomes a partner, but he also becomes personally liable to third parties for all acts of the firm done since he was admitted to the benefits of partnership, and
  - (b) his share in the property and profits of firm shall be the share to which he was entitled as a minor.
- (8) Where such person elects not to become a partner-
  - (a) his rights and liabilities shall continue to be those of a minor under this

- section up to the date on which he gives public notice,
  - (b) his share shall not be liable for any acts of the firm done after the date of the notice, and
  - (c) he shall be entitled to sue the partners for his share of the property and profits in accordance with sub-section (4).
- (9) Nothing in sub-sections (7) and (8) shall affect the provisions of section 28.

### **Analysis of section 30:**

You have observed that a minor cannot be bound by a contract because a minor's contract is void and not merely voidable. Therefore, a minor cannot become a partner in a firm because partnership is founded on a contract. Though a minor cannot be a partner in a firm, he can nonetheless be admitted to the benefits of partnership under Section 30 of the Act. In other words, he can be validly given a share in the partnership profits. When this has been done and it can be done with the consent of all the partners then the rights and liabilities of such a partner will be governed under Section 30 as follows:

#### **(1) Rights:**

- (i) A minor partner has a right to his agreed share of the profits and of the firm.
- (ii) He can have access to, inspect and copy the accounts of the firm.
- (iii) He can sue the partners for accounts or for payment of his share but only when severing his connection with the firm, and not otherwise.
- (iv) On attaining majority he may within 6 months elect to become a partner or not to become a partner. If he elects to become a partner, then he is entitled to the share to which he was entitled as a minor. If he does not, then his share is not liable for any acts of the firm after the date of the public notice served to that effect.

#### **(2) Liabilities:**

##### **(i) Before attaining majority:**

- (a) The liability of the minor is confined only to the extent of his share in the profits and the property of the firm.
- (b) Minor has no personal liability for the debts of the firm incurred during his minority.
- (c) Minor cannot be declared insolvent, but if the firm is declared insolvent his share in the firm vests in the Official Receiver/Assignee.

##### **(ii) After attaining majority:**

Within 6 months of his attaining majority or on his obtaining knowledge that he had been admitted to the benefits of partnership, whichever date is later, the minor partner has to decide whether he shall remain a partner or leave the firm.

Where he has elected not to become partner he may give public notice that he has elected not to become partner and such notice shall determine his position as regards the firm. If he fails to give such notice he shall become a partner in the firm on the expiry of the said six months.

**(a) When he becomes partner:** If the minor becomes a partner on his own willingness or by his failure to give the public notice within specified time, his rights and liabilities as given in Section 30(7) are as follows:

- (i) He becomes personally liable to third parties for all acts of the firm done since he was admitted to the benefits of partnership.
- (ii) His share in the property and the profits of the firm remains the same to which he was entitled as a minor.

**(b) When he elects not to become a partner:**

- (i) His rights and liabilities continue to be those of a minor up to the date of

- giving public notice.
- (ii) His share shall not be liable for any acts of the firm done after the date of the notice.
  - (iii) He shall be entitled to sue the partners for his share of the property and profits. It may be noted that such minor shall give notice to the Registrar that he has or has not become a partner.

#### 40. **REVOCAION OF CONTINUING GUARANTEE BY CHANGE IN FIRM (SECTION 38)**

According to section 38, a continuing guarantee given to a firm or to third party in respect of the transaction of a firm is, in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, revoked as to future transactions from the date of any change in the constitution of the firm.

##### **Analysis of section 38:**

Mere changes in the constitution of the firm operates to revoke the guarantee as to all future transactions. Such change may occur by the death, or retirement of a partner, or by introduction of a new partner.

#### 41. **CONSEQUENCES OF NON-REGISTRATION (SECTION 69)**

Under the English Law, the registration of firms is compulsory. Therefore, there is a penalty for non-registration of firms. But the Indian Partnership Act does not make the registration of firms compulsory nor does it impose any penalty for non-registration. However, under Section 69, non-registration of partnership gives rise to a number of disabilities which we shall presently discuss. Although registration of firms is not compulsory, yet the consequences or disabilities of non-registration have a persuasive pressure for their registration. These disabilities briefly are as follows:

- (i) **No suit in a civil court by firm or other co-partners against third party:** The firm or any other person on its behalf cannot bring an action against the third party for breach of contract entered into by the firm, unless the firm is registered and the persons suing are or have been shown in the register of firms as partners in the firm. In other words, a registered firm can only file a suit against a third party and the persons suing have been in the register of firms as partners in the firm.
- (ii) **No relief to partners for set-off of claim:** If an action is brought against the firm by a third party, then neither the firm nor the partner can claim any set-off, if the suit be valued for more than ` 100 or pursue other proceedings to enforce the rights arising from any contract.
- (iii) **Aggrieved partner cannot bring legal action against other partner or the firm:** A partner of an unregistered firm (or any other person on his behalf) is precluded from bringing legal action against the firm or any person alleged to be or to have been a partner in the firm. But, such a person may sue for dissolution of the firm or for accounts and realization of his share in the firm's property where the firm is dissolved.
- (iv) **Third party can sue the firm:** In case of an unregistered firm, an action can be



brought against the firm by a third party.

**Exceptions: Non-registration of a firm does not, however effect the following rights:**

1. The right of third parties to sue the firm or any partner.
2. The right of partners to sue for the dissolution of the firm or for the settlement of the accounts of a dissolved firm, or for realization of the property of a dissolved firm.
3. The power of an Official Assignees, Receiver of Court to release the property of the insolvent partner and to bring an action.
4. The right to sue or claim a set-off if the value of suit does not exceed ` 100 in value.

**Example:** A & Co. is registered as a partnership firm in 2015 with A, B and C partners. In 2016, A dies. In 2017, B and C sue X in the name and on behalf of A & Co., without fresh registration. Now the first question for our consideration is whether the suit is maintainable.

**Answer**

As regards the question whether in the case of a registered firm (whose business was carried on after its dissolution by death of one of the partners), a suit can be filed by the remaining partners in respect of any subsequent dealings or transactions without notifying to the Registrar of Firms, the changes in the constitution of the firm, it was decided that the remaining partners should sue in respect of such subsequent dealings or transactions even though the firm was not registered again after such dissolution and no notice of the partner was given to the Registrar.

The test applied in these cases was whether the plaintiff satisfied the only two requirements of Section 69 (2) of the Act namely,

- (i) the suit must be instituted by or on behalf of the firm which had been registered;
- (ii) the person suing had been shown as partner in the register of firms. In view of this position of law, the suit is in the case by B and C against X in the name and on behalf of A & Co. is maintainable.

**Now, in the above example, what difference would it make, if in 2017 B and C had taken a new partner, D, and then filed a suit against X without fresh registration?**

Where a new partner is introduced, the fact is to be notified to Registrar who shall make a record of the notice in the entry relating to the firm in the Register of firms. Therefore, the firm cannot sue as D's (new partner's) name has not been entered in the register of firms. It was pointed out that in the second requirement, the phrase "person suing" means persons in the sense of individuals whose names appear in the register as partners and who must be all partners in the firm at the date of the suit.

## 42. Dissolution of Firm Vs. Dissolution of Partnership

S. No	Basis of Difference	Dissolution of Firm	Dissolution of Partnership
1.	Continuation of business	It involves discontinuation of business in partnership.	It does not affect continuation of business. It involves only reconstitution of the firm.
2.	Winding up	It involves winding up of the firm and requires realization of assets and settlement of liabilities.	It involves only reconstitution and requires only revaluation of assets and liabilities of the firm.
3.	Order of court	A firm may be dissolved by the order of the court.	Dissolution of partnership is not ordered by the court.
4.	Scope	It necessarily involves dissolution of partnership.	It may or may not involve dissolution of firm.
5.	Final closure of books	It involves final closure of books of the firm.	It does not involve final closure of the books.

## 43. DISSOLUTION BY THE COURT (SECTION 44):

Court may, at the suit of the partner, dissolve a firm on any of the following ground:

- (a) **Insanity/unsound mind:** Where a partner (not a sleeping partner) has become of unsound mind, the court may dissolve the firm on a suit of the other partners or by the next friend of the insane partner. Temporary sickness is no ground for dissolution of firm.
- (b) **Permanent incapacity:** When a partner, other than the partner suing, has become in any way permanently incapable of performing his duties as partner, then the court may dissolve the firm. Such permanent incapacity may result from physical disability or illness etc.
- (c) **Misconduct:** Where a partner, other than the partner suing, is guilty of conduct which is likely to affect prejudicially the carrying on of business, the court may order for dissolution of the firm, by giving regard to the nature of business. It is not necessary that misconduct must relate to the conduct of the business. The important point is the adverse effect of misconduct on the business. In each case nature of business will decide whether an act is misconduct or not.
- (d) **Persistent breach of agreement:** Where a partner other than the partner suing, wilfully or persistently commits breach of agreements relating to the management of the affairs of the firm or the conduct of its business, or otherwise so conduct himself in matters relating to the business that it is not reasonably practicable for other partners to carry on the business in partnership with him, then the court may dissolve the firm at the instance of any of the partners. Following comes in to category of breach of contract:
  - ◆ Embezzlement,
  - ◆ Keeping erroneous accounts

- ♦ Holding more cash than allowed
- ♦ Refusal to show accounts despite repeated request etc.
- (e) **Transfer of interest:** Where a partner other than the partner suing, has transferred the whole of his interest in the firm to a third party or has allowed his share to be charged or sold by the court, in the recovery of arrears of land revenue, the court may dissolve the firm at the instance of any other partner.
- (f) **Continuous/Perpetual losses:** Where the business of the firm cannot be carried on except at a loss in future also, the court may order for its dissolution.
- (g) **Just and equitable grounds:** Where the court considers any other ground to be just and equitable for the dissolution of the firm, it may dissolve a firm. The following are the cases for the just and equitable grounds-
  - (i) Deadlock in the management.
  - (ii) Where the partners are not in talking terms between them.
  - (iii) Loss of substratum.

#### **44. Settlement of partnership accounts (Section 48):**

In settling the accounts of a firm after dissolution, the following rules shall, subject to agreement by the partners, be observed:-

- (i) Losses, including deficiencies of capital, shall be paid first out of profits, next out of capital, and, lastly, if necessary, by the partners individually in the proportions in which they were entitled to share profits.
- (ii) The assets of the firm, including any sums contributed by the partners to make up deficiencies of capital, must be applied in the following manner and order:
  - (a) in paying the debts of the firm to third parties;
  - (b) in paying to each partner rateably what is due to him from capital;
  - (c) in paying to each partner rateably what is due to him on account of capital; and
  - (d) the residue, if any, shall be divided among the partners in the proportions in which they were entitled to share profits.

## TOPIC - 4

# THE LIMITED LIABILITY PARTNERSHIP ACT, 2008

### 45. **LIMITED LIABILITY PARTNERSHIP- MEANING AND CONCEPT**

**Meaning:** A LLP is a new form of legal business entity with limited liability. It is an alternative corporate business vehicle that not only gives the benefits of limited liability at low compliance cost but allows its partners the flexibility of organising their internal structure as a traditional partnership. The LLP is a separate legal entity and, while the LLP itself will be liable for the full extent of its assets, the liability of the partners will be limited.

LLP is an alternative corporate business form that gives the benefits of limited liability of a company and the flexibility of a partnership.

Since LLP contains elements of both 'a corporate structure' as well as 'a partnership firm structure' LLP is called a hybrid between a company and a partnership.

1. **LLP is a body corporate:** Section 2(1)(d) of the LLP Act, 2008 provides that a LLP is a body corporate formed and incorporated under this Act and is a legal entity separate from that of its partners and shall have perpetual succession. Therefore, any change in the partners of a LLP shall not affect the existence, rights or liabilities of the LLP.

Section 3 of LLP Act provides that a LLP is a body corporate formed and incorporated under this Act and is a legal entity separate from that of its partners.

2. **Perpetual Succession:** The LLP can continue its existence irrespective of changes in partners. Death, insanity, retirement or insolvency of partners has no impact on the existence of LLP. It is capable of entering into contracts and holding property in its own name.
3. **Separate Legal Entity:** The LLP is a separate legal entity, is liable to the full extent of its assets but liability of the partners is limited to their agreed contribution in the LLP. In other words, creditors of LLP shall be the creditors of LLP alone.
4. **Mutual Agency:** Further, no partner is liable on account of the independent or unauthorized actions of other partners, thus individual partners are shielded from joint liability created by another partner's wrongful business decisions or misconduct. In other words, all partners will be the agents of the LLP alone. No one partner can bind the other partner by his acts.
5. **LLP Agreement:** Mutual rights and duties of the partners within a LLP are governed by an agreement between the partners. The LLP Act, 2008 provides flexibility to partner to devise the agreement as per their choice. In the absence of any such agreement, the mutual rights and duties shall be governed by the provisions of the LLP Act, 2008.
6. **Artificial Legal Person:** A LLP is an artificial legal person because it is created by a legal process and is clothed with all rights of an individual. It can do everything which any natural person can do, except of course that, it cannot be sent to jail, cannot take an oath, cannot marry or get divorce nor can it practice a learned profession like CA or

Medicine. A LLP is invisible, intangible, immortal (it can be dissolved by law alone) but not fictitious because it really exists.

7. **Common Seal:** A LLP being an artificial person can act through its partners and designated partners. LLP may have a common seal, if it decides to have one [Section 14(c)]. Thus, it is not mandatory for a LLP to have a common seal. It shall remain under the custody of some responsible official and it shall be affixed in the presence of at least 2 designated partners of the LLP.
8. **Limited Liability:** Every partner of a LLP is, for the purpose of the business of LLP, the agent of the LLP, but not of other partners (Section 26). The liability of the partners will be limited to their agreed contribution in the LLP. Such contribution may be of tangible or intangible nature or both.
9. **Management of Business:** The partners in the LLP are entitled to manage the business of LLP. But only the designated partners are responsible for legal compliances.
10. **Minimum and Maximum number of Partners:** Every LLP shall have least two partners and shall also have at least 2 individuals as designated partners, of whom at least one shall be resident in India. There is no maximum limit on the partners in LLP.
11. **Business for Profit Only:** The essential requirement for forming LLP is carrying on a lawful business with a view to earn profit. Thus LLP cannot be formed for charitable or non-economic purpose.
12. **Investigation:** The Central Government shall have powers to investigate the affairs of an LLP by appointment of competence authority for the purpose.
13. **Compromise or Arrangement:** Any compromise or agreements including merger and amalgamation of LLPs shall be in accordance with the provisions of the LLP Act, 2008.
14. **Conversion into LLP:** A firm, private company or an unlisted public company would be allowed to be converted into LLP in accordance with the provisions of LLP Act, 2008.
15. **E-Filing of Documents:** Every form or application of document required to be filed or delivered under the act and rules made thereunder, shall be filed in computer readable electronic form on its website [www.mca.gov.in](http://www.mca.gov.in) and authenticated by a partner or designated partner of LLP by the use of electronic or digital signature.
16. **Foreign LLPs:** Section 2(1)(m) defines foreign limited liability partnership "as a limited liability partnership formed, incorporated, or registered outside India which established as place of business within India". Foreign LLP can become a partner in an Indian LLP.

#### 46. **Distinction between LLP and Partnership Firm:**

The points of distinction between a limited liability partnership and partnership firm are tabulated as follows:

	Basis	LLP	Partnership firm
1.	Regulating Act	The Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008.	The Indian Partnership Act, 1932.
2.	Body corporate	It is a body corporate.	It is not a body corporate,
3.	Separate legal entity	It is a legal entity separate from its members.	It is a group of persons with no separate legal entity.
4.	Creation	It is created by a legal process called registration under the LLP Act, 2008.	It is created by an agreement between the partners.
5.	Registration	Registration is mandatory. LLP can sue and be sued in its own name.	Registration is voluntary. Only the registered partnership firm can sue the third parties.
6.	Perpetual succession	The death, insanity, retirement or insolvency of the partner(s) does not affect its existence of LLP. Members may join or leave but its existence continues forever.	The death, insanity, retirement or insolvency of the partner(s) may affect its existence. It has no perpetual succession.
7.	Name	Name of the LLP to contain the word limited liability partners (LLP) as suffix.	No guidelines. The partners can have any name as per their choice.
8.	Liability	Liability of each partner limited to the extent to agreed contribution except in case of willful fraud.	Liability of each partner is unlimited. It can be extended upto the personal assets of the partners.
9.	Mutual agency	Each partner can bind the LLP by his own acts but not the other partners.	Each partner can bind the firm as well as other partners by his own acts.
10.	Designated partners	At least two designated partners and atleast one of them shall be resident in India.	There is no provision for such partners under the partnership Act, 1932.
11.	Common seal	It may have its common seal as its official signatures.	There is no common seal in partnership

12.	Legal compliances	Only designated partners are responsible for all the compliances and penalties under this Act.	All partners are responsible for all the compliances and penalties under the Act.
13.	Annual filing of documents	LLP is required to file: (i) Annual statement of accounts (ii) Statement of solvency (iii) Annual return with the registration of LLP every year.	Partnership firm is not required to file any annual document with the registrar of firms.
14.	Foreign partnership	Foreign nationals can become a partner in a LLP.	Foreign nationals cannot become a partner in a partnership firm.
15.	Minor as partner	Minor cannot be admitted to the benefits of LLP.	Minor can be admitted to the benefits of the partnership with the prior consent of the existing partners.

**TOPIC - 5**  
**THE COMPANIES ACT, 2013**

**47. Corporate Veil:**

Corporate Veil refers to a legal concept whereby the company is identified separately from the members of the company.

The term Corporate Veil refers to the concept that members of a company are shielded from liability connected to the company's actions. If the company incurs any debts or contravenes any laws, the corporate veil concept implies that members should not be liable for those errors. In other words, they enjoy corporate insulation.

Thus, the shareholders are protected from the acts of the company.

The *Salomon Vs. Salomon and Co Ltd.* laid down the foundation of the concept of corporate veil or independent corporate personality.

**Lifting of Corporate Veil**

The following are the cases where company law disregards the principle of corporate personality or the principle that the company is a legal entity distinct and separate from its shareholders or members:

- (1) To determine the character of the company i.e. to find out whether co-enemy or friend
- (2) To protect revenue/tax
- (3) To avoid a legal obligation
- (4) Formation of subsidiaries to act as agents

**48. One person company:**

The Companies Act, 2013 introduced a new class of companies which can be incorporated by a single person.

Section 2(62) of the Companies Act, 2013 defines one person company (OPC) as a company which has only one person as a member.

One person company has been introduced to encourage entrepreneurship and corporatization of business. OPC differs from sole proprietary concern in an aspect that OPC is a separate legal entity with a limited liability of the member whereas in the case of sole proprietary, the liability of owner is not restricted and it extends to the owner's entire assets constituting of official and personal.

The procedural requirements of an OPC are simplified through exemptions provided under the Act in comparison to the other forms of companies.

According to section 3(1)(c) of the Companies Act, 2013, **OPC is a private limited company** with the minimum paid up share capital as may be prescribed and has at least one member.

**OPC (One Person Company) - significant points**

- ◆ Only one person as member.
- ◆ Minimum paid up capital - no limit prescribed.
- ◆ The memorandum of OPC shall indicate the name of the other person, who shall, in the



event of the subscriber's death or his incapacity to contract, become the member of the company.

- ♦ The other person whose name is given in the memorandum shall give his prior written consent in prescribed form and the same shall be filed with Registrar of companies at the time of incorporation.
- ♦ Such other person may be given the right to withdraw his consent.
- ♦ The member of OPC may at any time change the name of such other person by giving notice to the company and the company shall intimate the same to the Registrar.
- ♦ Any such change in the name of the person shall not be deemed to be an alteration of the memorandum.
- ♦ Only a natural person who is an Indian citizen and resident in India (person who has stayed in India for a period of not less than 182 days during the immediately preceding one calendar year)-
  - shall be eligible to incorporate a OPC;
  - shall be a nominee for the sole member of a OPC.
- ♦ No person shall be eligible to incorporate more than one OPC or become nominee in more than one such company.
- ♦ No minor shall become member or nominee of the OPC or can hold share with beneficial interest.
- ♦ Such Company cannot be incorporated or converted into a company under section 8 of the Act. Though it may be converted to private or public companies in certain cases.
- ♦ Such Company cannot carry out Non-Banking Financial Investment activities including investment in securities of anybody corporate.
- ♦ OPC cannot convert voluntarily into any kind of company unless two years have expired from the date of incorporation, except where the paid up share capital is increased beyond fifty lakh rupees or its average annual turnover during the relevant period exceeds two crore rupees.
- ♦ If One Person Company or any officer of such company contravenes the provisions, they shall be punishable with fine which may extend to ten thousand rupees and with a further fine which may extend to one thousand rupees for every day after the first during which such contravention continues.

#### **48A. Private Company [Section 2(68)]:**

"Private company" means a company having a minimum paid-up share capital as may be prescribed, and which by its articles,—

(i) restricts the right to transfer its shares;

(ii) except in case of One Person Company, limits the number of its members to two hundred:

**Provided** that where two or more persons hold one or more shares in a company jointly, they shall, for the purposes of this clause, be treated as a single member:

**Provided further** that—

(A) persons who are in the employment of the company; and

(B) persons who, having been formerly in the employment of the company, were members of the company while in that employment and have continued to be members after the employment ceased, shall not be included in the number of members; and

(iii) prohibits any invitation to the public to subscribe for any securities of the company;

### **Private company - significant points**

- ♦ No minimum paid-up capital requirement.
- ♦ Minimum number of members - 2 (except if private company is an OPC, where it will be 1).
- ♦ Maximum number of members - 200, excluding present employee-cum-members and erstwhile employee-cum-members.
- ♦ Right to transfer shares restricted.
- ♦ Prohibition on invitation to subscribe to securities of the company.
- ♦ Small company is a private company.
- ♦ OPC can be formed only as a private company.
- ♦

### **48B. Small Company:**

Small company given under the section 2(85) of the Companies Act, 2013 which means a company, other than a public company—

- paid-up share capital** of which does not exceed fifty lakh rupees or such higher amount as may be prescribed which shall not be more than five crore rupees; and
- turnover** of which as per its last profit and loss account does not exceed two crore rupees or such higher amount as may be prescribed which shall not be more than twenty crore rupees:

**Exceptions:** This section shall not apply to:

- a holding company or a subsidiary company;
- a company registered under section 8; or
- a company or body corporate governed by any special Act.

### **Small Company -significant points**

- ♦ A private company
- ♦ Paid up capital - not more than Rs. 50 lakhs

Or

Turnover - not more than Rs. 2 crores.

- ♦ Should not be - Section 8 company  
- Holding or a Subsidiary company

### **48C. Associate company [Section 2(6)]:**

In relation to another company, means a company in which that other company has a significant influence, but which is not a subsidiary company of the company having such influence and includes a joint venture company.

**Explanation.** — For the purpose of this clause —

- the expression "significant influence" means control of at least twenty per cent of total voting power, or control of or participation in business decisions under an agreement;
- the expression "joint venture" means a joint arrangement whereby the parties that have joint control of the arrangement have rights to the net assets of the arrangement.

The term "Total Share Capital", means the aggregate of the -

- Paid-up equity share capital; and

(b) Convertible preference share capital.

This is a new definition inserted in the 2013 Act.

Vide General Circular no. 24/2014 dated 25th of June 2014, the Ministry of Corporate Affairs has clarified that the shares held by a company in another company in a 'fiduciary capacity' shall not be counted for the purpose of determining the relationship of 'associate company' under section 2(6) of the Companies Act, 2013.

#### **48D. Section 8 Company- Significant points**

- Formed for the promotion of commerce, art, science, religion, charity, protection environment, sports, etc.
- Requirement of minimum share capital does not apply.
- Uses its profits for the promotion of the objective for which formed.
- Does not declare dividend to members.
- Operates under a special licence from Central Government.
- Need not use the word Ltd./ Pvt. Ltd. in its name and adopt a more suitable name such as club, chambers of commerce etc.
- Licence revoked if conditions contravened.
- On revocation, Central Government may direct it to
- Converts its status and change its name
- Wind - up
- Amalgamate with another company having similar object.
- Can call its general meeting by giving a clear 14 days notice instead of 21 days.
- Requirement of minimum number of directors, independent directors etc. does not apply.
- Need not constitute Nomination and Remuneration Committee and Shareholders Relationship Committee.
- A partnership firm can be a member of Section 8 company.

#### **Simplified Proforma for Incorporating Company Electronically (SPICe)**

The Ministry of Corporate Affairs has taken various initiatives for ease of business. In a step towards easy setting up of business, MCA has simplified the process of filing of forms for incorporation of a company through Simplified Proforma for incorporating company electronically.

## 49. **OTHERS:**

### 1. **MEMORANDUM OF ASSOCIATION**

The Memorandum of Association of company is in fact its charter; it defines its constitution and the scope of the powers of the company with which it has been established under the Act. It is the very foundation on which the whole edifice of the company is built.

#### **Object of registering a memorandum of association:**

- ♦ It contains the object for which the company is formed and therefore identifies the possible scope of its operations beyond which its actions cannot go.
- ♦ It enables shareholders, creditors and all those who deal with company to know what its powers are and what activities it can engage in.

A memorandum is a public document under Section 399 of the Companies Act, 2013. Consequently, every person entering into a contract with the company is presumed to have the knowledge of the conditions contained therein.

- ♦ The shareholders must know the purposes for which his money can be used by the company and what risks he is taking in making the investment.
- ♦ A company cannot depart from the provisions contained in the memorandum however imperative may be the necessity for the departure. It cannot enter into a contract or engage in any trade or business, which is beyond the power conferred on it by the memorandum. If it does so, it would be ultra vires the company and void.

As per Section 4, Memorandum of a company shall be drawn up in such form as is given in Tables A, B, C, D and E in Schedule I of the Companies Act, 2013.

**Table A** is a form for memorandum of association of a company limited by shares.

**Table B** is a form for memorandum of association of a company limited by guarantee and not having a share capital.

**Table C** is a form for memorandum of association of a company limited by guarantee and having a share capital.

**Table D** is a form for memorandum of association of an unlimited company.

**Table E** is a form for memorandum of association of an unlimited company and having share capital.

The memorandum and articles of a company must be as close to model forms, as possible, depending upon the circumstances.

**Content of the memorandum:** The memorandum of a company shall state—

- (a) the name of the company (**Name Clause**) with the last word "Limited" in the case of a public limited company, or the last words "Private Limited" in the case of a private limited company. This clause is not applicable on the companies formed under section 8 of the Act.
- (b) the State in which the registered office of the company (**Registered Office clause**) is to be situated;
- (c) the objects for which the company is proposed to be incorporated and any matter considered necessary in furtherance thereof (**Object clause**);

If any company has changed its activities which are not reflected in its name, it shall change its name in line with its activities within a period of six months from the change of activities after complying with all the provisions as applicable to change of name.

- (d) the liability of members of the company (**Liability clause**), whether limited or unlimited
- (e) the amount of authorized capital (**Capital Clause**) divided into share of fixed amounts and the number of shares with the subscribers to the memorandum have agreed to take, indicated opposite their names, which shall not be less than one share. A company not having share capital need not have this clause.
- (f) the desire of the subscribers to be formed into a company. The Memorandum shall conclude with the **association clause**. Every subscriber to the Memorandum shall take atleast one share, and shall write against his name, the number of shares taken by him.

The above clauses of the Memorandum are called compulsory clauses, or "Conditions". In addition to these a memorandum may contain other provisions, for example rights attached to various classes of shares.

The Memorandum of Association of a company cannot contain anything contrary to the provisions of the Companies Act. If it does, the same shall be devoid of any legal effect. Similarly, all other documents of the company must comply with the provisions of the Memorandum.

## 2. **DOCTRINE OF ULTRA VIRES**

**Doctrine of ultra vires:** The meaning of the term ultra vires is simply "beyond (their) powers". The legal phrase "ultra vires" is applicable only to acts done in excess of the legal powers of the doers. This presupposes that the powers in their nature are limited.

It is a fundamental rule of Company Law that the objects of a company as stated in its memorandum can be departed from only to the extent permitted by the Act, thus far and no further. In consequence, any act done or a contract made by the company which travels beyond the powers not only of the directors but also of the company is wholly void and inoperative in law and is therefore not binding on the company. On this account, a company can be restrained from employing its fund for purposes other than those sanctioned by the memorandum. Likewise, it can be restrained from carrying on a trade different from the one it is authorised to carry on.

The impact of the doctrine of ultra vires is that a company can neither be sued on an ultra vires transaction, nor can it sue on it.

**An ultra vires contract can never be made binding on the company. It cannot become "Intravires" by reasons of estoppel, acquiescence, lapse of time, delay or ratification.**

**The whole position regarding the doctrine of ultra vires can be summed up as:**

- (i) When an act is performed, which though legal in itself, is not authorized by the object clause of the memorandum, or by the statute, it is said to be ultravires the company, and hence null and void.
- (ii) An act which is ultravires, the company cannot be ratified even by the unanimous consent of all the shareholders.
- (iii) An act which is ultravires the directors, but intravires the company can be ratified by the members of the company through a resolution passed at a general meeting.
- (iv) If an act is ultravires the Articles, it can be ratified by altering the Articles by a

### 3. ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION

The articles of association of a company are its rules and regulations, which are framed to manage its internal affairs. Just as the memorandum contains the fundamental conditions upon which the company is allowed to be incorporated, so also the articles are the internal regulations of the company.

The document containing the articles of association of a company (the Magna Carta) is a business document; hence it has to be construed strictly. It regulates domestic management of a company and creates certain rights and obligations between the members and the company.

The articles of association are in fact the bye-laws of the company according to which directors and other officers are required to perform their functions as regards the management of the company, its accounts and audit. It is important therefore that the auditor should study them and, while doing so he should note the provisions therein in respect of relevant matters.

**Section 5 of the Companies Act, 2013 seeks to provide the contents and model of articles of association. The section lays the following law-**

- (1) **Contains regulations:** The articles of a company shall contain the regulations for management of the company.
- (2) **Inclusion of matters:** The articles shall also contain such matters, as are prescribed under the rules. However, a company may also include such additional matters in its articles as may be considered necessary for its management.
- (3) **Contain provisions for entrenchment:** The articles may contain provisions for entrenchment (to protect something) to the effect that specified provisions of the articles may be altered only if conditions or procedures as that are more restrictive than those applicable in the case of a special resolution, are met or complied with.
- (4) **Manner of inclusion of the entrenchment provision:** The provisions for entrenchment shall only be made either on formation of a company, or by an amendment in the articles agreed to by all the members of the company in the case of a private company and by a special resolution in the case of a public company.
- (5) **Notice to the registrar of the entrenchment provision:** Where the articles contain provisions for entrenchment, whether made on formation or by amendment, the company shall give notice to the Registrar of such provisions in such form and manner as may be prescribed.
- (6) **Forms of articles:** The articles of a company shall be in respective forms specified in Tables, F, G, H, I and J in Schedule I as may be applicable to such company.
- (7) **Model articles:** A company may adopt all or any of the regulations contained in the model articles applicable to such company.
- (8) **Company registered after the commencement of this Act:** In case of any company, which is registered after the commencement of this Act, in so far as the registered articles of such company do not exclude or modify the regulations contained in the model articles applicable to such company, those regulations shall, so far as applicable, be the regulations of that company in the same manner and to the extent as if they were contained in the duly registered articles of the company.

#### 4. **Doctrine of Constructive Notice:**

Section 399 of the Companies Act, 2013 provides that any person can inspect by electronic means any document kept by the Registrar, or make a record of the same, or get a copy or extracts of any document, including certificate of incorporation of any company, on payment of prescribed fees.

The memorandum and articles of association of a company when registered with Registrar of Companies, become public documents, and they are available for inspection to any person, on the payment of a nominal fees.

In other words, Section 399 confers the right of inspection to all. It is, therefore, the duty of every person dealing with a company to inspect its documents and make sure that his contract is in conformity with their provisions but whether a person reads them or not, it will be presumed that he knows the contents of the documents. This kind of presumed/implied notice is called constructive notice.

**By constructive notice is meant:**

- (i) Whether a person reads the documents or not, he is presumed to have knowledge of the contents of the documents, He is not only presumed to have read the documents but also understood them in their true perspective, and
- (ii) Every person dealing with the company not only has the constructive notice of the memorandum and articles, but also of all the other related documents, such as Special Resolutions etc., which are required to be registered with the Registrar.

Thus, if a person enters into a contract which is beyond the powers of the company as defined in the memorandum, or outside the authority of directors as per memorandum or articles, he cannot acquire any rights under the contract against the company.

#### 5. **Doctrine of Indoor Management:**

The Doctrine of Indoor Management is the **exception** to the doctrine of constructive notice. The aforesaid doctrine of constructive notice does in no sense mean that outsiders are deemed to have notice of the internal affairs of the company. For instance, if an act is authorised by the articles or memorandum, an outsider is entitled to assume that all the detailed formalities for doing that act have been observed.

#### 50. **The following are the key differences between the Memorandum of Association vs. Articles of Association:**

1. **Objectives:** Memorandum of Association defines and delimits the objectives of the company whereas the Articles of association lays down the rules and regulations for the internal management of the company. Articles determine how the objectives of the company are to be achieved.
2. **Relationship:** Memorandum defines the relationship of the company with the outside world and Articles define the relationship between the company and its members.
3. **Alteration:** Memorandum of association can be altered only under certain circumstances

and in the manner provided for in the Act. In most cases permission of the Regional Director, or the Tribunal is required. The articles can be altered simply by passing a special resolution.

4. **Ultra Vires:** Acts done by the company beyond the scope of the memorandum are ultra-vires and void. These cannot be ratified even by the unanimous consent of all the shareholders. The acts ultra-vires the articles can be ratified by a special resolution of the shareholders, provided they are not beyond the provisions of the memorandum.

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