Referencer for Quick Revision



Intermediate Course Paper-3: Cost and Management Accounting



A compendium of subject-wise capsules published in the monthly journal "The Chartered Accountant Student"

Board of Studies (Academic)

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Cost and Management Accounting - A Capsule for Quick Revision

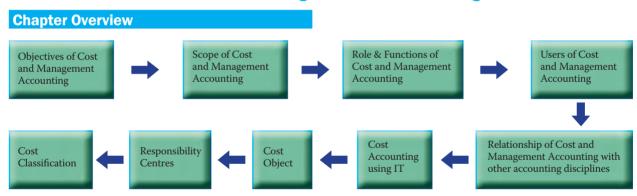
In contemporary business environment, existence of an entity depends on the way it tackles the challenges posed by the competitive market conditions. Cost leadership being one of the competitive strategies, gives an added advantage to the entity. Cost being an important aspect for survival and growth in business, requires a mandatory awareness about the cost control and cost reduction. Fourth industrial revolution, also known as Industry 4.0, puts more emphasis on the digitization of information for effective decision-making, which enables an entity in keeping ahead in competition. Cost and Management accounting, a discipline of accounting, capacitates an entity in taking timely decisions by provisions of cost, profitability and other relevant information.

Chartered Accountants, as a global business solution provider, play an important role in business, have an onus by helping an entity to achieve its long-term objectives. In this direction, Cost and Management Accounting helps Chartered Accountants in taking timely and informed business decisions. In view of nobility of the objective to provide quality academic inputs to the students of CA course, the Board of Studies (BoS) of ICAI has decided to bring forth a capsule module of Cost and Management Accounting. Although, the capsule has been prepared keeping in view the new and revised Scheme of Education and Training of ICAI, the students of earlier Scheme may also be benefitted from it.

In the beginning, a chapter overview has been provided to present a holistic viewpoint on the topic's coverage. This capsule, though, facilitates the students in undergoing quick revision, under no circumstances; such revisions can substitute the detailed study of the material provided by the BoS.

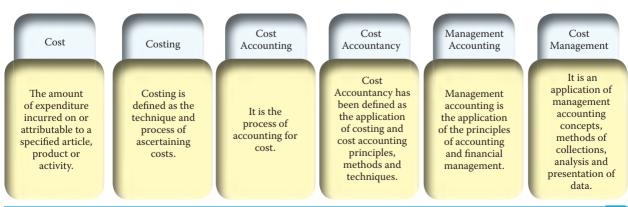
Remember, "The expert in anything was once a beginner". Now, let us begin.

Introduction to Cost and Management Accounting



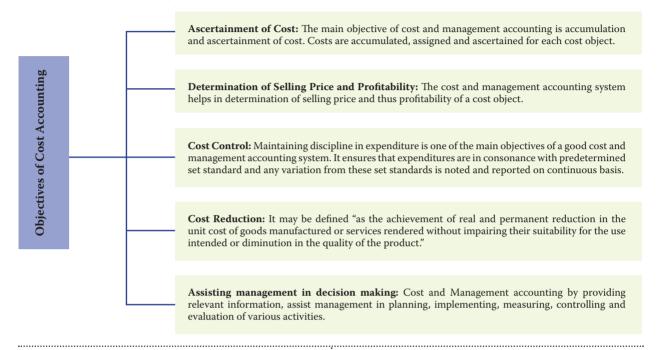
Meaning of Terms used in Cost and Management Accounting

First of all, let us discuss the meaning of various terminologies used in Cost and Management Accounting to have a clear understanding about the subject.



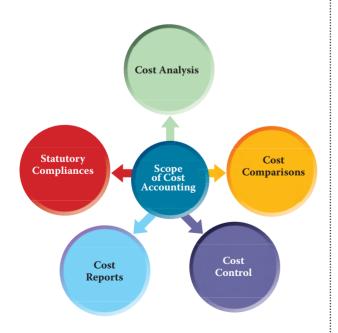
Objectives of Cost Accounting

There are many objectives of cost accounting. The main objectives are explained as below. We also need to keep our focus on understanding the difference between Cost Control and Cost Reduction.



Scope of Cost Accounting

We also need to know various scopes of cost accounting. Cost ascertainment and the process of cost accounting are the major scopes. The other scopes are presented.



Role and Functions of Cost and **Management Accounting**

Role of a Cost and Management Accounting system

Provide relevant information to management for decision making

Assist management for planning, measurement, evaluation and controlling of business activities

Help in allocation of cost to products and inventories for both external and internal users.



Functions of Cost and Management Accounting System

Collection and accumulation of cost for each element of cost

Assigning costs to cost objects to ascertain cost.

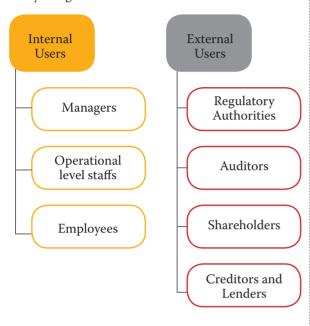
Sets budget and standards for a particular period or activity beforehand and these are compared with the assigned and ascertained cost.

Provision of relevant information to the management for decision making.

To gather data like time taken, wastages, process idleness etc., analyse the data, prepare reports and take necessary actions

Users of Cost and Management Accounting

Cost and Management Accounting information which are generated or collected are used by various stakeholders. The users of the information can be broadly categorized as below:



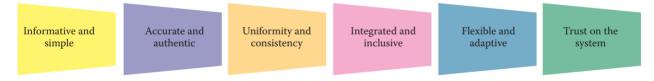
Relationship of Cost Accounting, Management Accounting, Financial Accounting and Financial Management

There is a close relationship between various disciplines like Cost Accounting, Management Accounting, Financial Accounting and Financial Management. Sometimes these disciplines are interrelated and dependent on each other also.



Essentials of a good Cost Accounting System

The essential features which a cost accounting system should possess are depicted as below:



Cost Accounting using Information Technology

With the use of information technology, the cost accounting system gets integrated and automated. The basic features are depicted as below:



Cost Objects

It is very important to understand the meaning of cost object, cost unit and cost driver. Their meaning alongwith examples are illustrated below.

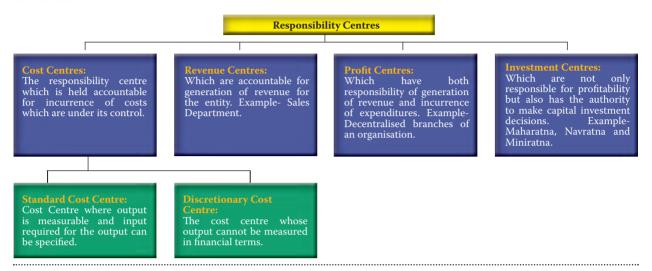
Cost Object: Cost object is anything for which

a separate measurement of cost is required. Cost object may be a product (book), a service (airline), a project, a customer, a brand category etc.

Cost Units: It is a unit of product, service or time (or combination of these) in relation to which costs may be ascertained or expressed. Example for power industry is kilo Watt hour (kWh).

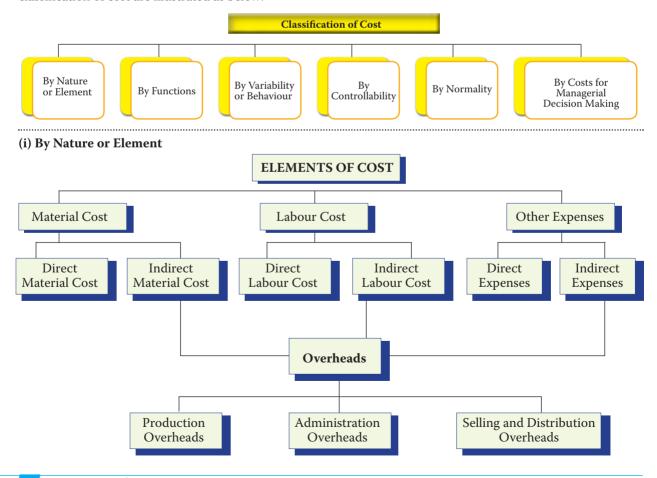
Responsibility Centres

To have a better control over the organisation, management delegates its responsibilities and authorities to various departments or persons, which are known as responsibility centres. There are four types of responsibility centres as discussed below:



Classification of Cost

Classification of cost basically means grouping of cost according to their common features. The important ways of classification of cost are illustrated as below:



(ii) By Functions

Direct Materials **Direct Employees** (Labours)

Prime Cost

Direct Expenses Indirect

Factory Overheads

Factory Cost or Works Cost

Indirect Labour Indirect

Expenses 1

Material

Administration Overheads Selling and Distribution

Cost of Goods Sold

Cost of Sales

(iii) By Variability or Behaviour

Overheads

Fixed Cost

Variable Cost

Semi-variable Cost

(iv) By Controllability

Controllable Costs: Cost that can be controlled

Uncontrollable Costs: Costs which cannot be influenced or controlled

(v) By Normality

Normal Cost - It is the cost which is normally incurred

Abnormal Cost - It is the cost which is not normally incurred

(vi) By Cost for Managerial Decision Making

determined Cost

A cost which is computed in advance before production or operations start

(b) Standard Cost

A pre-determined cost, which is calculated from managements 'expected standard of efficient operation' and the relevant necessary expenditure

(c) Marginal Cost

The amount at any given volume of output by which aggregate costs are changed if the volume of output is increased or decreased by one unit

(d) Estimated Cost

The expected cost of manufacture, or acquisition, often in terms of a unit of product computed on the basis of information available in advance of actual production or purchase

(e) Differential Cost

It represents the change (increase or decrease) in total cost (variable as well as fixed) due to change in activity level, technology, process or method of production, etc.

These costs are notional costs which do not involve any cash outlay

g) Capitalised

These are costs which are initially recorded as assets and subsequently treated as expenses.

(h) Product Costs

These are the costs which are associated with the purchase and sale of goods (in the case of merchandise inventory).

Opportunity

This cost refers to the value of sacrifice made or benefit of opportunity foregone in accepting an alternative course of action

(i) Out-ofpocket Cost

It is that portion of total cost, which involves cash outflow

(k) Shut down Costs

Those costs, which continue to be incurred even when a plant is temporarily shut-down e.g. rent, rates, depreciation, etc

(1) Sunk Costs

Historical costs incurred in the past are known as sunk costs. They play no role in decision making in the current period.

(m) Absolute Cost

These costs refer to the cost of any product, process or unit in its totality.

(n) Discretionary

Such costs are not tied to a clear cause and effect relationship between inputs and outputs.

(o) Period Costs

These are the costs, which are not assigned to the products but are charged as expenses against the revenue of the period in which they are incurred.

(p) Engineered

These are costs that result specifically from a clear cause and effect relationship between inputs and outputs.

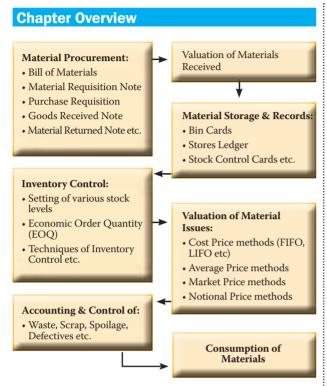
(q) Explicit

These costs are also known as out of pocket costs and refer to costs involving immediate payment of cash. Salaries, wages, postage and telegram, printing and stationery, interest on loan etc.

(r) Implicit Costs

These costs do not involve any immediate cash payment.

Material Cost



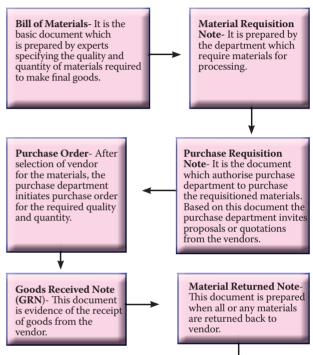
Value at Which Materials are Recorded in **Stores Ledger**

From the following table we can understand the procedure of calculating total value at which materials are to be recorded in stores ledger.

Particulars	Amount	Amount
Purchase Price		XXX
Additions/ Inclusions:		
Insurance charges	XXX	
Commission or brokerage	XXX	
Freight inward	XXX	
Cost of containers	XXX	
Wastage due to normal reasons	XXX	
Duties and Taxes for which no credit or refund is available	XXX	XXX
Deduction/Exclusions:		
Discount, Rebate and Subsidy	XXX	
Duties and Taxes for which credit or refund is available	XXX	
Penalties and charges	XXX	
Other expenses not borne	XXX	(XXX)
		XXX

How Material is Procured?

Material requirement procedure can be understood with the help of the following diagram. We should focus on various documents in general required and also should keep in mind the departments who initiate these documents.

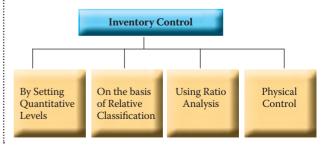


How Inventory is Controlled?

store ledger and books of account.

Inventory control is the function of ensuring that sufficient inventory is retained to meet all requirements. In inventory control, it is essential to balance between overstock and understock. Various techniques of inventory control are illustrated below:

Invoice- This is the bill charged by vendor for the materials. Invoice also shows the duties and taxes to be paid for the purchase of materials. The invoice is the basis for valuation of material in



(a) Inventory Control- By Setting Quantitative Levels



- (i) Re-order Stock Level (ROL): Maximum Consumption × Maximum Re-order Period Or, ROL = Minimum Stock Level + (Average Rate of Consumption × Average Re-order period)
- (ii) Re-Order Quantity/ Economic Order Quantity (EOQ):

EOQ =
$$\sqrt{\frac{2x \text{ Annual Requirement (A) } x \text{ Cost per order (O)}}{\text{Carrying Cost per unit per annum (C)}}}$$

Just in Time (JIT) Inventory Management

JIT is a system of inventory management with an approach to have a zero inventories in stores. According to this approach material should only be purchased when it is actually required for production.



(iii) Minimum Stock Level:

Minimum Stock Level = Re-order Stock Level -(Average Consumption Rate × Average Re-order Period)

(iv) Maximum Stock Level:

Maximum Stock Level = Re-order Level + Reorder Quantity - (Minimum Consumption Rate × Minimum Re-order Period)

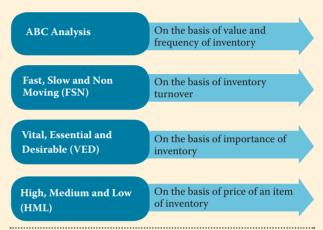
(v) Average Inventory Level:

Average Stock Level = Minimum Stock Level + 1/2 Re-order Quantity

Average Stock Level =

Maximum Stock Level + Minimum Stock Level

(b) On the basis of Relative Classification



(c) Using Ratio Analysis

(i) Input Output Ratio: Input-output ratio is the ratio of the quantity of input of material to production and the standard material content of the actual output.

(ii) Inventory Turnover Ratio:

Inventory Turnover Ratio =

Cost of materials consumed during the period

Cost of average stock held during the period

(d) Physical Control

- (i) Two Bin System: Two Bin System is supplemental to the record of respective quantities on the bin card and the stores ledger card.
- (ii) Establishment of system of budgets: Based on this, inventories requirement budget can be prepared. Such a budget will discourage the unnecessary investment in inventories.

(iii) Perpetual inventory records and continuous stock verification:

Perpetual inventory represents a system of records maintained by the stores department in the form of Bin cards and Stores ledger.

(iv) Continuous Stock Verification:

The system of continuous stock-taking consists of physical verification of items of inventory.

Valuation of Material Issue

Cost Price Methods

- Specific Price Method First-in First-out (FIFO) method
- Last-in-First-out (LIFO) method
- Base Stock Method

Average Price Methods

- Simple Average Price Method
- Weighted Average Price Method

Market Price Methods

- Replacement Price Method
- Realisable Price Method

Notional Price Methods

- Standard Price Method
- Inflated Price Method Re-use Price Method

Some of the techniques are discussed as follows:

- (i) First-in First-out method (FIFO): The materials received first are to be issued first when material requisition is received. Materials left as closing stock will be at the price of latest purchases.
- (ii) Last-in First-out method (LIFO): The materials purchased last are to be issued first when material requisition is received. Closing stock is valued at the oldest stock price.

(Accounting Standard- 2 and Ind AS-2 do not allow LIFO method for inventory valuation, however, for academic knowledge it may be studied).

(iii) Simple Average Method: Material Issue Price=

Total of unit price of each purchase

Total Nos of Purchases

(iv) Weighted Average Price Method: This method gives due weightage to quantities purchased and the purchase price to determine the issue price.

Weighted Average Price =

Total cost of materials in stock

Total quantity of materials

Treatment of Loss of Material

(i) Treatment of Waste

Normal- Cost of normal waste is absorbed by good production units.

Abnormal- The cost of abnormal loss is transferred to Costing Profit and loss account.

(ii) Treatment of Scrap

Normal- The cost of scrap is borne by good units and income arises on account realisable value is deducted from the cost.

Abnormal- The scrap account should be charged with full cost. The credit is given to the job or process concerned. The profit or loss in the scrap account, on realisation, will be transferred to the Costing Profit and Loss Account.

(iii) Treatment of Spoilage

Normal- Normal spoilage (i.e., which is inherent in the operation) costs are included in costs either charging the loss due to spoilage to the production order or by charging it to production overhead so that it is spread over all products.

Abnormal- The cost of abnormal spoilage (i.e., arising out of causes not inherent in manufacturing process) is charged to the Costing Profit and Loss Account.

(iv) Treatment of Defectives:

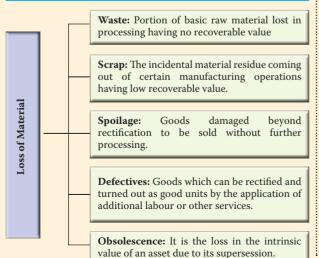
Normal- The cost less realisable value on sale of defectives are charged to material cost of good production.

Abnormal- The material cost of abnormal loss is transferred to costing profit and loss account.

(v) Treatment of Obsolescence:

The value of the obsolete material held in stock is a total loss and immediate steps should be taken to dispose it off at the best available price. The loss arising out of obsolete materials on abnormal loss does not form part of the cost of manufacture.

Normal and Abnormal Loss of Materials



CA INTERMEDIATE - PAPER 3 - COST AND MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING

In today's business world, Chartered Accountants are very much part of the decision-making team of any organisation. They are rigorously involved in decision-making process with the help of Cost and Management Accounting tools. While being associated with an industry, a Chartered Accountant may also be involved in monitoring, measuring, compensating appropriately to the employees (labour) to achieve economy in cost as well as retain best talent, efficiency in performance and effectiveness in desired output, side by side ascertaining cost for a cost object through elementwise collection of cost, accumulation of the costs into a cost sheet. While this edition of Cost & Management Accounting (CMA) Capsule discusses the topic 'Employee (Labour) Cost' covering Wages and Incentive Payment system to employees, its absorption; efficiency rating procedures; treatment of overtime, idle time; Employee Turnover along with topic 'Cost Sheet' covering its classification, format and advantages, students are advised to thoroughly go through the same to meticulously understand the concepts before attempting questions.

EMPLOYEE (LABOUR) COST

Points of Discussion Meaning of Wage and Absorption of Employee Incentives Wages (Labour) Cost Payment System Efficiency Control of Overtime Rating **Employee Cost** Procedures Attendance **Employee** & Payroll Idle Time (Labour) Procedures Turnover **Meaning of Employee (Labour) Cost** Benefits paid or payable to the employees EMPLOYEE (LABOUR) of an entity, whether permanent, or temporary for the services rendered **COST** by them. Includes payments made in cash or kind. Wages and salary Other benefits (leave with pay, Allowances and free or subsidised incentives food, leave travel concession etc.) **Employee** cost includes Employer's

Classification of Employee cost: Direct employee cost Indirect employee cost

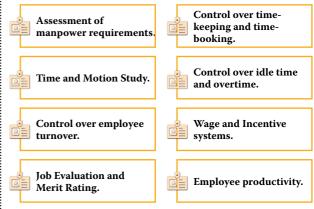
Direct employee cost	Indirect employee cost
1. Cost of employees, directly engaged in the production process.	Cost of employees who are not directly engaged in the production process.
2. Easily identifiable and allocable to cost unit.	2. Apportioned on some appropriate basis.
3. Varies with the volume of production and has positive relationship with the volume.	3. May not vary with the volume of production.

Employee Cost Control

EMPLOYEE (LABOUR) COST CONTROL

- To control over the cost incurred on employees.
- To keep the wages per unit of output as low as possible.
- To give the employees an appropriate compensation and encourage efficiency.

Factors for the Control of Employee Cost:



contribution to PF

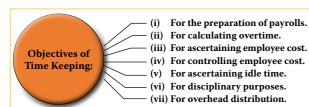
and other welfare

funds:

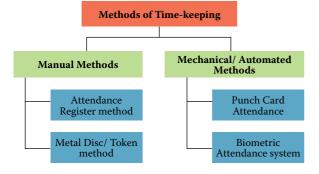
Payment for

overtimes

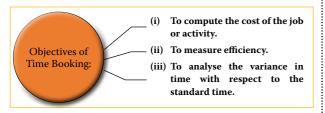
Time-keeping: A record of total time spent by the employees in a factory.



Methods of Time-keeping

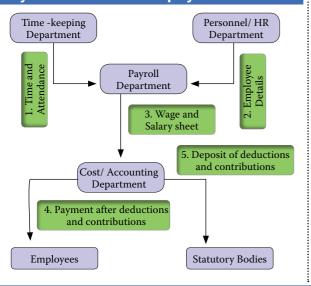


Time-Booking: A method wherein each activity of an employee is recorded.



For the collection of all such data, a separate record, generally known as Time (or Job) card, is kept.

Payroll Procedures of Employees



• Attendance and Time details:

Detailed sheet of number of days or hours worked by each employee as reflected by the time keeping methods are sent to the payroll department.

· List of employees and other details:

List of employees on roll and the rate at which they will be paid is sent by the personnel/ HR department.

Computation of wages and other incentives:

Payroll department prepares pay slip and forward the same to the cost/accounting department.

• Payment to the employees:

After all deductions (like PF, ESI, TDS), wages/ salary is paid to the employees.

· Deposit of all statutory liabilities:

All statutory deduction are paid to the respective statutory bodies & funds.

Idle Time

Step-5

Step-1

Step-2

Step-3

Step-4

The time during which no production is carried-out because the worker remains idle but are paid.

Normal idle Abnormal idle time

Normal Idle Time: Time which cannot be avoided or reduced in the normal course of business.

• Time lost between factory gate and the place of

Interval between one job and another,

Setting up time for the machine,

Normal rest time, break for lunch etc.

Treatment of Normal **Idle Time**

Causes:

- Treated as a part of cost of production.
- In the case of direct workers an allowance for normal idle time is considered while setting of standard hours or standard rate.
- In case of indirect workers, normal idle time is considered for the computation of overhead rate.

Abnormal Idle Time: Apart from normal idle time, there may be factors which give rise to abnormal idle time.



- · Lack of coordination,
- · Power failure, Breakdown of machines,
- Non-availability of raw materials,
- · Strikes, lockouts, poor supervision, fire, flood

Causes further analysed into

Controllable abnormal idle time

Uncontrollable abnormal idle time

Time which could have been put to productive use had the management been more alert and efficient.

Time lost which management does not have any control e.g., breakdown of machines, flood etc.

- · Not included in production cost.
- Shown as a separate item in the Costing Profit and Loss Account.
- For each category i.e. controllable and uncontrollable idle time, the break-up of cost due to various factors should be separately shown.
- Management should aim at eliminating controllable idle time.

Overtime

Treatment

of Abnormal

Idle time

Overtime: Work done beyond normal working hours.

Overtime Payment = Wages paid for overtime at normal rate + Premium (extra) payment for overtime work

premium:

Extra amount so paid over the normal rate

CAUSES

TREATMENT

Urgency of work.

Charged to job directly.

To make up shortfall in production due to some unexpected development. Treated as overhead cost of the particular cost centre which works overtime.

To make up shortfall in production due to some fault of management.

If overtime is worked in a department due to the fault of another department, then premium should be charged to the latter department.

To take advantage of an expanding market or of rising demand.

Overtime worked on account of abnormal conditions such as flood, etc., should be charged to Costing P/L Account.

Systems of Wage Payment and Incentives

System of Wages Payment

Time Output based based

Combination of time and output based

Premium Group Bonus bonus method scheme Incentives for indirect workers

Time based (Time Rate System):

Workers are paid on time basis i.e. hour, day, week, or month.

Wages = Time Worked (Hours/ Days/ Months) × Rate for the time

Output Based (Piece Rate System):

Each operation, job or unit of production is termed a piece. A rate of payment, is fixed for each piece.

The wages of the worker depend upon his output and rate of each unit of output.

Wages = Number of units produced × Rate per unit

Premium Bonus Method:

The worker is guaranteed his daily wages, if output is below and up to standard.

In case the task is completed in less than the standard time, the saved time is shared between the employees and the employer.

HALSEY **PREMIUM PLAN**

- A standard time is fixed for each job or
- Worker gets his time rate even if he exceeds the standard time limit, since his day rate is guaranteed.
- If job done in less than the standard time, bonus equal to 50 percent of the wages of time saved is paid.

Wages = Time taken \times Time rate + 50% of time saved \times Time rate

ADVANTAGES of HALSEY PREMIUM PLAN

- · Time rate is guaranteed.
- · Opportunity for increasing earnings by increasing production.
- System is equitable in as much as the employer gets a direct return for his efforts in improving production methods.

DISADVANTAGES of **HALSEY PREMIUM PLAN**

- · Incentive is not so strong as with piece rate system.
- · Harder the worker works, the lesser he gets per piece.
- Sharing principle may **not** be liked by employees.



ROWAN PREMIUM PLAN

- · Standard time allowance is fixed for performance of a job.
- Bonus is paid if time is saved.
- · Bonus is that proportion of the time wages as time saved bears to the standard time.

Time Saved × Time taken × Rate per hour Time taken × Rate per hour + Time Allowed

ADVANTAGES of ROWAN PREMIUM PLAN

- A worker can never double his earnings even if there is bad rate setting.
- · Suitable for encouraging moderately efficient workers.
- Sharing principle appeals to the employer as being equitable.

DISADVANTAGES of **ROWAN PREMIUM PLAN**

- System is a bit complicated.
- · Incentive is weak at a high production level where the time saved is more than 50% of the time allowed.
- Sharing principle is not generally welcomed by employees.

Absorption of Wages

ELEMENTS OF WAGES

Monetary payment

- · Basic wages,
- Dearness allowance,
- · Overtime wages,
- Production bonus,
- Employer's contribution to PF, ESI and other funds,
- · Leave pay, etc.

Non-monetary benefits

- · Medical facilities;
- **Educational and training** facilities;
- Recreational and sports facilities:
- · Housing and social welfare; and
- · Cost of subsidised canteen and co-operative societies, etc.

Efficiency Rating Procedures

If the time taken by a worker on a job \leq the standard time, then he is rated efficient.

Time allowed as per standard × 100 Efficiency in % = Time Taken

Need for Efficiency rating:

Firm following system of payment by results

Payment has a direct relationship with the output



Factors for increasing Employee productivity:

Employing who possess right type of skill.

Placing the **right** type of **person** to the **right job**.

Training young and old workers by providing right types of opportunities.

Taking appropriate measures to avoid the situation of excess or shortage of employees.

Carrying out work study for fixation of wages.

Employee (Labour) Turnover

EMPLOYEE TURNOVER

Rate of change in the composition of employee force during a specified period measured against a suitable index.

Methods to calculate Employee Turnover

Replacement Method

This considers actual replacement of employees irrespective of number of persons leaving the organisation

Separation Method

This considers total number of employees separated

Flux Method

This considers both the number of replacements as well as the number of separations

Number of employees Replaced $\frac{\text{during the period}}{\text{Average number of employees during the}} \times 100$ Replacement method = period on roll

Number of employees Seperated during the period

Number of employees Seperated + Number of employees Replaced during the period Flux method = $\frac{\text{Number of employees Replaced during the period}}{\text{Average number Of employees during the period on roll}} \times 100$

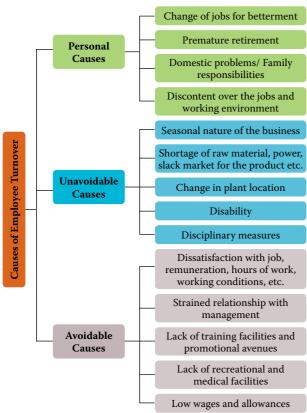
No. of Separations+No.of Accessions (i.e. No.of Replacements+ No.of New Joinings) Average no.of employees during the period on roll

Newly recruited employees are also responsible for changes in the composition or work force, some management accountants feel to take new recruitment for calculating

employee turnover. The total number of workers joining, including replacements, is called accessions.

-×100

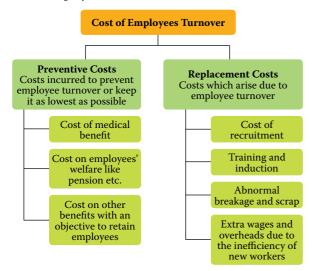
Causes of Employee Turnover:



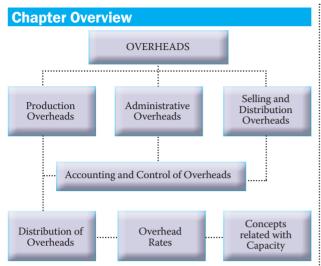
Effects of Employee Turnover:



Cost of Employees Turnover:



Overheads



Classification of Overheads

Overheads are the expenditure which can not be identified with a particular cost unit. Overheads can be classified as under.

By Function	By Nature	By Element	By Control
Factory or Manufacturing or Production Overhead Office and Administrative Overheads Selling and Distribution Overheads	Fixed Overhead Variable Overhead Semi-Variable Overheads	Indirect materials Indirect employee cost Indirect expenses	Controllable costs Uncontrollable costs

Functional Classification of Overheads

One of the most important ways of classifying overheads is as per their function. As per this classification overheads are classified as under.

Indirect cost incurred for manufacturing or Factory or production activity in a factory. Manufacturing Manufacturing overhead includes all expenditures incurred or Production from the procurement of materials to the Overhead completion of finished product. Expenditures incurred on all activities relating to general management and administration of an organisation. It includes formulating Office and the policy, directing the organisation and Administrative controlling the operations of an undertaking Overheads which is not related directly to production, selling, distribution, research or development activity or function. (i) Selling overhead: expenses related to sale of Selling and products and include all indirect expenses in Distribution sales management for the organisation. Overheads (ii) Distribution overhead: cost incurred on making product available for sale in the market.

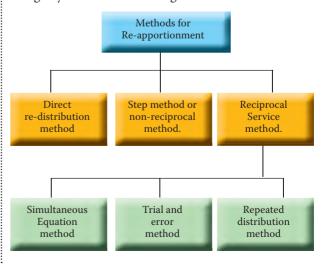
Steps for Distribution of Overheads Estimation of Overheads Apportionment of Allocation of Overheads: Overheads: Allotment Direct assignment of cost of proportions of items to a cost object which can of cost to cost centres or be traced directly departments on some basis Production Production Service Service Department-I Department-II Department-I Re-apportionment of Overheads: The process of assigning service department overheads to production departments is called reassignment or re-apportionment. Methods of reapportionment are: (i) Direct re-distribution method (ii) Step method of secondary distribution or non-reciprocal method (iii) Reciprocal Service method. Total Overheads: The sum of allocated, apportioned and re-

Absorption of Overheads: Total overheads calculated as above is distributed over the actual quantity of goods produced. The distribution of total estimated overheads to units of production is called absorption of overheads.

apportioned overhead is called total overheads for a cost object.

Methods for Re-apportionment of Overheads

The re-apportionment of service department expenses over the production departments may be carried out by using any one of the following methods:



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Methods of Absorbing Overheads to various Products or Jobs

Several methods are commonly employed either individually or jointly for computing the appropriate overhead rate. The more common of these are:

Percentage of direct materials Percentage of prime cost

Percentage of direct labour cost

Labour hour rate

Machine hour rate

Rate per unit of Õutput

Machine hour rate

Machine hour rate implies, cost of running a machine for an hour to produce goods.

The steps involved in determining of Machine hour rate is as follows:

Step1: Calculate total of overheads apportioned to a production department.

Step 2: Apportion further these overheads to machines or group of machines in the department.

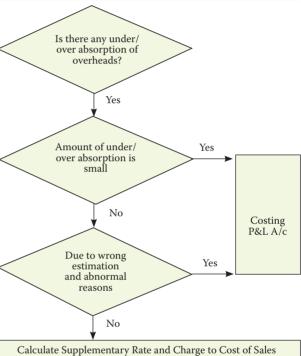
Step 3: Allocate machine specific costs (directly identifiable with the machine)

Step 4: Estimate total productive hours for the machine

Step 5: Aggregate overheads as apportioned in step-2 and allocated in step-3 and divide it by Estimated total productive

The resultant figure is machine hour rate

Treatment of Under-absorption and Overabsorption of overheads in Cost Accounting



A/c, Finished Goods A/c and W-I-P A/c

Types of Overhead Rates

Normal Rate: This rate is calculated by dividing the actual overheads by actual base. It is also known as actual rate. Pre-determined Overhead Rate: This rate is determined in advance by estimating the amount of the overhead for the period in which it is to be used. Blanket Overhead Rate: Blanket overhead rate refers to the computation of one single overhead rate for the whole factory. Departmental Overhead Rate: It refers to the computation of one single overhead rate for a particular production unit or department.

Concepts related with Capacity

Installed/ Rated capacity

The maximum capacity of producing goods or providing services. It is also known as theoretical capacity.

Practical capacity

It is defined as actually utilised capacity of a plant. It is also known as operating capacity.

Normal capacity The volume of production or services achieved or achievable on an average over a period under normal circumstances taking into account the reduction in capacity resulting from planned maintenance.

Actual capacity

Capacity actually achieved during a given period.

Idle capacity

It is that part of the capacity of a plant, machine or equipment which cannot be effectively utilised in production.

Treatment of Certain Items in Cost Accounting

Interest and financing charges

It includes any payment in nature of interest for use of non- equity funds and incidental cost that an entity incurs in arranging those funds. Interest and financing charges shall be presented in the cost statement as a separate item of cost of sales.

Packing expenses

Cost of primary packing necessary for protecting the product or for convenient handling, should become a part of cost of production. The cost of packing to facilitate the transportation of the product from the factory to the customer should become a part of the distribution cost.

Fringe benefits

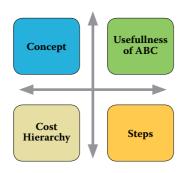
These indirect benefits stand to improve the morale, loyalty and stability of employees towards the organisation. If the amount of fringe benefit is considerably large, it may be recovered as direct charge by means of a supplementary wage or labour rate; otherwise these may be collected as part of production

Research and Development Expenses

If research is conducted in the methods of production, the research expenses should be charged to the production overhead; while the expenditure becomes a part of the administration overhead if research relates to administration. Similarly, market research expenses are charged to the selling and distribution overhead. Development costs incurred in connection with a particular product should be charged directly to that product. Such expenses are usually treated as "deferred revenue expenses," and recovered as a cost per unit of the product when production is fully established.

ACTIVITY BASED COSTING

POINTS OF DISCUSSION



MEANING OF ACTIVITY BASED COSTING

ACTIVITY **BASED COSTING** (ABC)

- · Accounting methodology that assigns costs to activities rather than products or services.
- Costs are assigned based on their use of resources.
- Creates a LINK BETWEEN THE ACTIVITY (resource consumption) and the COST OBJECT.
- Useful to the ORGANIZATION WITH MULTIPLE PRODUCTS.

FACTORS PROMPTING DEVELOPMENT OF ABC



USEFULNESS/SUITABILITY OF ABC

ABC is particularly needed in the following situations:					
High amount of overhead	Wide range of products	Presence of non-volume related activities	Stiff competition		

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF ABC

ADVANTAGES

- · More accurate costing.
- Overhead allocation is done on logical basis.
- Enables better pricing policies.
- Utilizes unit cost rather than just total cost.
- Help to identify non-value added activities.
- Helpful to the organizations with multiple products.
- Highlights problem areas which require attention of the management.

DISADVANTAGES

- Expensive.
- Not helpful to the small organizations.
- May not be applied to organizations with limited products.
- Selection of the most suitable cost driver may be difficult or complicated.

TERMS USED

(i) Activity • Event that incurs cost.

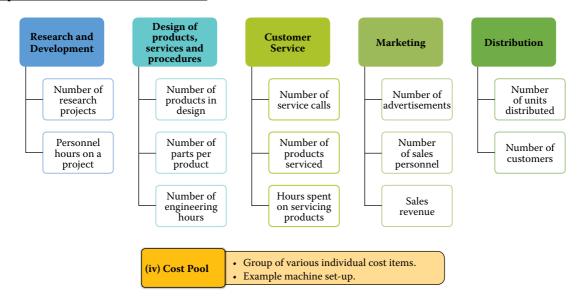
· An item for which cost measurement is (ii) Cost Object required

activity-Resource cost driver: Measure of the (iii) Cost Driver quantity of resources.

> · Activity cost driver: Measure of the frequency and intensity of demand.

· Factor that causes a change in the cost of an

Examples of Cost Driver business function wise:

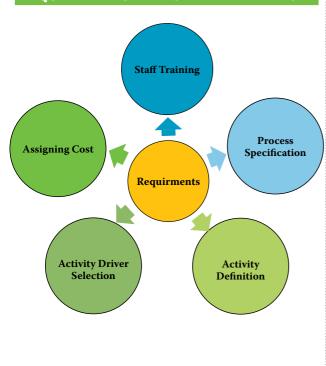


COST ALLOCATION



Cost

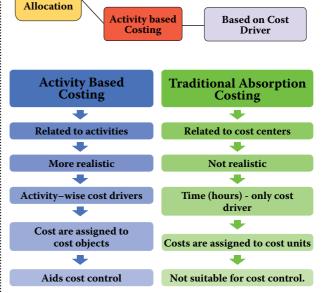
REQUIREMENTS IN ABC IMPLEMENTATION



TRADITIONAL ABSORPTION COSTING VS **ABC**

Traditional

Costing



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Based on Machine

hours, labour Hours, Volume etc.

LEVEL OF ACTIVITIES UNDER ABC METHOD-OLOGY/COST HIERARCHY

Unit level activities

Activities which can be identified with the number of units produced.

- Indirect materials/ consumables - Inspection or testing of every item produced

Batch level activities

Activities which are performed each time a batch of goods is produced.

- Material ordering
- Machine set-up costs

Product level activities

Activities which are performed to support different products in product line.

- Designing the product - Producing parts
- specifications

Facilities level activities

Activities which are common and joint to all products manufactured.

- Maintenance of buildings
 - Plant security

STAGES IN ACTIVITY BASED COSTING (ABC)

Identify different activities within the organisation

Break the organisation down into many very small activities.

Relate the overheads to the activities

This creates 'cost pools or 'cost buckets?

Support activities are then spread across the primary activities

Where base is the cost driver measuring, how the support activities

Determine the activity cost drivers

Calculate

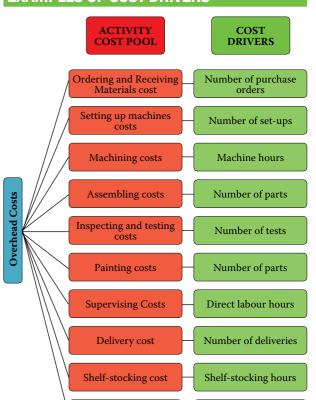
To relate are used.

activity cost the driver rates overheads Calculate collected activity in cost cost driver pools to rates the cost for each objects. activity



Total cost of activity Activity cost driver rate = Activity driver

EXAMPLES OF COST DRIVERS



HOW TO CALCULATE COST PER PRODUCT USING ABC?

Customer Support

If it is given that,

Activity	Cost (₹)
Ordering	64,000
Delivery	1,40,000
Shelf stocking	80,000

Particulars	Product 1	Product 2
No. of Purchase Orders	30	50
No. of Deliveries	110	90
Shelf Stocking Hours	220	180

Number of items sold



Image source: https://www.dreamstime.com/photos-images/activity-basedcosting.html

Then, cost per product as per ABC

Activity	Total Cost (₹)	Cost Driver	Cost Driver Level	Cost Driver Rate (₹)	Product 1 (₹)	Product 2 (₹)
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e) = (b)/(d)	(f)	(g)
Ordering	64,000	No. of Purchase Orders	80 (30+50)	800	24,000 (800 x 30)	40,000 (800 x 50)
Delivery	1,40,000	No. of Deliveries	200 (110 + 90)	700	77,000 (700 x 110)	63,000 (700 x 90)
Shelf stocking	80,000	Shelf Stocking Hours	400 (220 +180)	200	44,000 (200 x 220)	36,000 (200 x 180)

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF ACTIVITY BASED COSTING

As a Decision-Making Tool

Improve performance and profitability

Decisision
w.r.t.
introduction
of new product
or vendor

Decisions related to facility and resource expansion



Helps in determining price based on cost plus markup basis

Decision support for human resources

As Activity Based Management

Cost Driver Analysis Value-Added Activities (VA) Activity Analysis Non-Value-Added Activities (NVA) **Activity Based Cost Management** (ABM): Using ABC to manage costs at **Cost Reduction** activity level. **Business Process** Re-engineering Performance **Analysis** Benchmarking Performance Measurement

Facilitate Activity Based Budgeting (ABB)

plans and budgets.

It analyses the resource input or cost for each activity. It is the reversing of the ABC process to produce financial

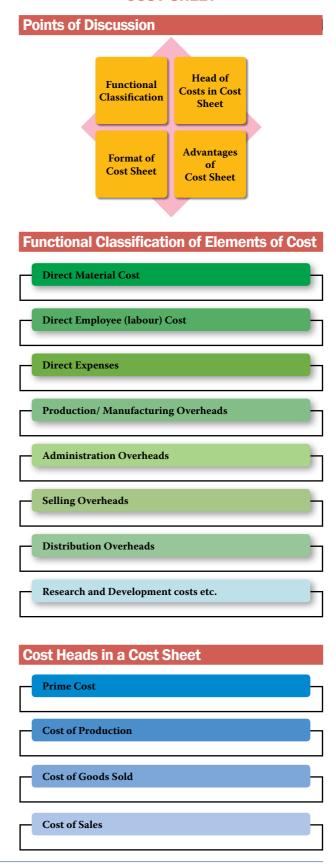
Key Elements

- Type of work to be done
- Quantity of work to be done
- Cost of work to be done

Benefits

- Enhance accuracy of financial forecasts
- Increasing management understanding
- Rapidly and accurately produce financial plans
- Eliminates much of the needless rework

COST SHEET



Prime Cost:

Stock of

Material

Cost of Production:

Prime

cost

Purchases

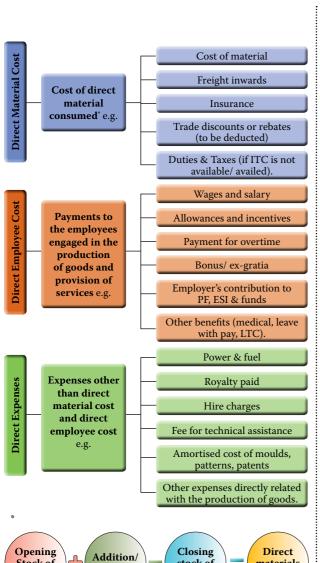
Factory

related

costs and

overheads





Prime Cost	xxxx
Add: Factory Overheads#	xxx
Gross Works Costs	xxxx
Add: Opening stock of Work-in-process	xxx
Less: Closing stock of Work-in-process	(xxx)
Factory or Works Costs	xxxx
Add: Quality Control Cost	xxx
Add: Research & Development cost (Process related)	xxx
Add: Administrative Overheads related with production	xxx
Less: Credit for recoveries (miscellaneous income)	(xxx)
Add: Packing Cost (Primary packing)	xxx
Cost of Production	xxxx

Factory Overheads (Works / production / manufacturing overheads) includes-

Consumable stores and spares

Depreciation

Lease rent of production assets

Repair and maintenance of plant and machinery, factory building

Indirect employees cost related with production activities

Drawing and Designing department cost

Insurance of plant and machinery, factory building, stock of raw material & WIP

Amortised cost of jigs, fixtures, tooling

Service department cost such as Tool Room, **Engineering &** Maintenance, **Pollution Control**

Cost of Goods Sold:



Cost of Sales:

materials

consumed

Cost of

Production

stock of

Material

=

Cost of Goods Sold	
Add: Administrative Overheads (General)	xxx
Add: Selling Overheads	xxx
Add: Packing Cost (secondary)	xxx
Add: Distribution Overheads	
Cost of Sales	xxxx



Examples:

Administrative Overheads (General)

Depreciation and maintenance of, office building, furniture etc.

Salary of administrative employees, accountants, etc.

Rent, rates & taxes

Insurance, lighting, office expenses

Indirect materialsprinting and stationery, office supplies etc.

Legal charges, audit fees, meeting expenses etc.

Selling Overheads

Salary and wages related with sales department

Rent, depreciation, maintenance related with sales department

Advertisement, maintenance of website for online sales, market research etc.

Packing Cost (secondary)

Packing material that enables to store, transport, and make the product marketable.

Distribution Overheads

Salary and wages of employees engaged in distribution of goods

Transportation and insurance costs related with distribution

Depreciation, hire charges, maintenance and other operating costs related with distribution.



Cost Sheet-Specimen Format

	Particulars	Total Cost (₹)	Cost per unit (₹)
1.	Direct materials consumed:		
	Opening Stock of Raw Material	xxx	
	Add: Additions/ Purchases	xxx	
	Less: Closing stock of Raw Material	(xxx)	
		xxx	xxx
2.	Direct employee (labour) cost	xxx	
3.	Direct expenses	xxx	
4.	Prime Cost (1+2+3)	xxx	xxx
5.	Add: Works/ Factory Overheads	xxx	
6.	Gross Works Cost (4+5)	xxx	
7.	Add: Opening Work in Process	xxx	
8.	Less: Closing Work in Process	(xxx)	
9.	Works/ Factory Cost (6+7-8)	xxx	xxx
10.	Add: Quality Control Cost	xxx	
11.	Add: Research and Development Cost	xxx	
12.	Add: Administrative Overheads (relating to production activity)	xxx	
13.	Less: Credit for Recoveries/Scrap/By-Products/ misc. income	(xxx)	
14.	Add: Packing cost (primary)	xxx	
15.	Cost of Production (9+10+11+12-13+14)	xxx	xxx
16.	Add: Opening stock of finished goods	xxx	
17.	Less: Closing stock of finished goods	(xxx)	
18.	Cost of Goods Sold (15+16-17)	xxx	xxx
19.	Add: Administrative Overheads (General)	xxx	
20.	Add: Marketing Overheads:		
	Selling Overheads	xxx	
	Distribution Overheads	xxx	
21.	Cost of Sales (18+19+20)	xxx	xxx



Treatment of various items of cost in Cost Sheet:

Abnormal costs

· Any abnormal cost, where it is material and quantifiable, shall not form part of cost of production or acquisition or supply of goods or provision of service.

Subsidy/ Grant/ Incentives

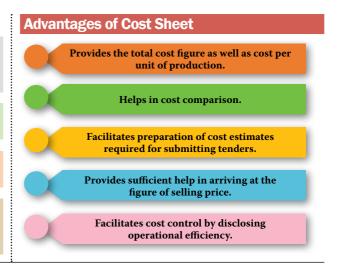
• Reduced from the cost objects to which such amount pertains.

Penalty, fine, damages, and demurrage

• Does not form part of cost.

Interest and other finance costs

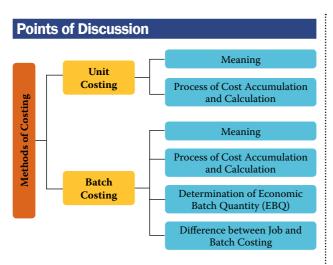
- · Not included in cost of production.
- · Shall be presented in the cost statement as a separate item of cost of sales.



CA INTERMEDIATE (NEW) PAPER 3- COST AND MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING

Different Industries follow different method of Costing as the nature of their work varies. A Chartered Accountant will be associated with various industries, hence it is of paramount importance that a CA student must be familiar with method of costing followed by these Industries. This edition of Cost and Management Accounting capsule covers the topic Unit & Batch Costing, Job & Contract Costing, Activity Based Costing (ABC), Joint Products & By-products. Brief overview of the topics is given as follows for quick recapitulation: Industries like paper, cement, mining, etc. follows unit costing where output produced is identical and each unit of output requires identical cost, while batch costing is followed where products are manufactured in predetermined lots known as batches like in case of pen manufacturing industry, vaccine manufacturing etc. The job costing method is also applicable to industries in which production is carried out to accomplish a specific Job, while contract costing is followed where job is relatively at larger scale and takes longer than a year to complete like in case of construction of building, setting up plants. ABC is an approach followed while allocating cost to cost object based on cost drivers. The joint product costs are the expenditures incurred up-to the point of separation, however, its apportionment may be done based on different methods like physical units method, net realisable value at split-off point, etc.

UNIT & BATCH COSTING



UNIT COSTING

Meaning of Unit Costing

UNIT COSTING

- where the output produced is identical and each unit of output requires identical cost.
- also known as single or output costing.
 applied in industries like PAPER, CEMENT, STEEL WORKS, MINING, BREWERIES ETC.

Here, costs are collected and analysed element wise and then total cost per unit is ascertained as follows:

Cost per unit = Total cost of production

No. of units produced

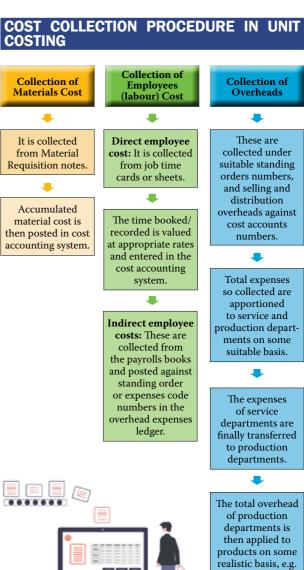
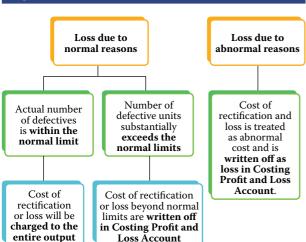


Image source: https://metry.io/en/cost-collection-from-invoices/

machine hour; labour hour etc.

TREATMENT OF SPOILED AND DEFECTIVE WORK



BATCH COSTING

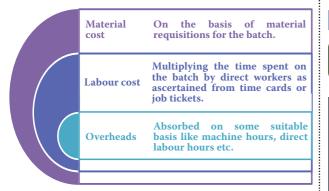
Meaning of Batch Costing

BATCH COSTING

- ☐ is a type of specific order costing where articles are manufactured in predetermined lots, known as batch.
- ☐ the cost object for cost determination is a batch for production.
- □ example PEN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

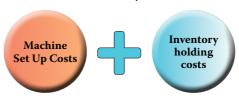
A batch consists of certain number of units which are PROCESSED SIMULTANEOUSLY. Under this method of manufacturing, the inputs are accumulated in the assembly line till it reaches minimum batch size. Soon after a batch size is reached, all inputs in a batch is processed for further operations.

COSTING PROCEDURE IN BATCH COSTING



ECONOMIC BATCH QUANTITY (EBQ)

Primarily, the total production cost under batch production comprises of two main costs, namely,



Balancing Machine set up cost and Inventory holding cost



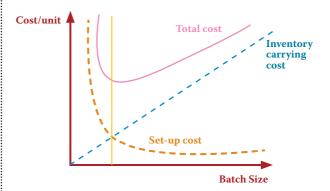
- **Set up cost** may **decline** due to lesser number of set ups.
- But units in inventory will go up leading to higher holding costs
- Lower inventory holding costs.
- But higher set up costs due to high ry will go up to higher - But higher set up costs due to high number of set ups.

Lower lot size



ECONOMIC BATCH QUANTITY (EBQ)

☐ It is the size of a batch where total cost of set-up and holding costs are at minimum.



Determination of EBQ

By calculating the total cost for a series of possible batch sizes and checking which batch size gives the minimum cost.

Mathematical formula:

$$EBQ = \sqrt{\frac{2DS}{C}}$$

Where, D = Annual demand for the product

S = Setting up cost per batch

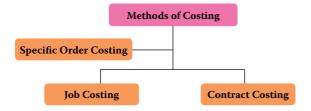
C = Carrying cost per unit of production

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN JOB AND BATCH

Sr. No	Job Costing	Batch Costing
1	Used for non- standard and non- repetitive products produced as per customer specifications and against specific orders.	Homogeneous products produced in a continuous production flow in lots.
2	Cost determined for each Job.	Cost determined in aggregate for the entire Batch and then arrived at on per unit basis.
3	Jobs are different from each other and independent of each other. Each Job is unique.	Products produced in a batch are homogeneous and lack of individuality.

JOB AND CONTRACT COSTING

POINTS OF DISCUSSION



JOB COSTING

MEANING OF JOB COSTING

JOB COSTING

- ☐ It is applicable where the work consists of separate contracts, jobs or batches, each of which is authorised by specific order or contract.
- □ Industry PRINTING; example: FURNITURE; HARDWARE; SHIP-BUILDING; HEAVY MACHINERY; INTERIOR DECORATION.

PRINCIPLES OF JOB COSTING

Analysis and ascertainment of cost of each unit of production

Control and regulate cost

Determine the profitability

PROCESS OF JOB COSTING

Prepare a separate cost sheet for each job

Disclose cost of materials issued for the job

Employee costs incurred (on the basis of bill of material and time cards respectively)

When job is completed, overhead charges are added for ascertaining total expenditure

SUITABILITY OF JOB COSTING

When jobs are executed for different customers according to their specifications.

> When no two orders are alike and each order/ job needs special treatment.

Where the work-in-progress differs from period to period on the basis of the number of jobs in hand.

JOB COST CARD/ SHEET

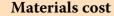
JOB COST CARD/ SHEET

- A cost sheet where,
- ☐ quantity of materials issued,
- □ hours spent by different class of employees,
- □ amount of other expenses and share of overheads are recorded.

Format of Job Cost Sheet:

	JOB COST SHEET							
Description: Blue Print No.: Material No.: Reference No.:			Job No.:					
Date	Reference	Details	Material	Labour	Overhead			
		Total						
Summary of costs		Estimated (₹)	Actual (₹)	For the job				
Direct material cost Direct wages Production overhead PRODUCTION COST Administration and Selling & Distribution Overheads								
TOTAL COST PROFIT/LOSS SELLING PRICE								

COLLECTION OF COSTS FOR A JOB



Traced to and identified with specific job or work order

Posted to individual job cost sheets or cards in the work-inprogress ledger

If the surplus material is utilised on some other job, instead of being returned to the stores first, a material transfer note is prepared.

Labour cost

Booked against specific jobs in the job time cards or sheets

Posted to the appropriate job cost card or sheet in workin-progress ledger



Image source: https://www.dreamstime.com/ job-costing-text-paper-sheet-chart-dice-spectaclespen-laptop-blue-yellow-push-pin-wooden-tablebusiness-banking-image 197323655

Overheads

Manufacturing overheads are collected under suitable standing order numbers

Selling and distribution overheads are collected against cost accounts numbers

Total overhead expenses are apportioned to service and production departments on some suitable basis.

The expenses of service departments are finally transferred to production departments.

The total production overhead is then applied to products on some realistic basis.

SPOILED AND DEFECTIVE WORK

Meaning

Spoiled work

It is the quantity of production that has been totally rejected and cannot be rectified.

Defective work ~

It refers to production that is not as perfect as the saleable product but is capable of being rectified

Treatment

Where a percentage of defective work is ALLOWED in a particular batch AS IT CANNOT BE AVOIDED.

The cost of rectification will be charged to the whole job and spread over the entire output of the batch

Where defect is DUE TO BAD WORKMANSHIP. The cost of rectification shall be written off as a loss being an abnormal cost

Where defect is due to the inspection department WRONGLY ACCEPTING INCOMING MATERIAL OF POOR QUALITY.

Cost of rectification will be charged to the department and will not be considered as cost of manufacture of the batch

ACCOUNTING OF COSTS FOR A JOB

1.	For purchase of materials	
	Stores Ledger Control A/c	Dr.
	To Cost Ledger Control A/c	
2.	For the value of direct materials issued to jobs	
	Work-in-Process Control A/c	Dr.
	To Stores Ledger Control A/c	
3.	For return of direct materials from jobs	
	Stores Ledger Control A/c	Dr.
	To Work-in-Process Control A/c	
4.	For return of materials to suppliers	
4.	For return of materials to suppliers Cost Ledger Control A/c	Dr.
4.	**	Dr.
4. 5.	Cost Ledger Control A/c	Dr.
	Cost Ledger Control A/c To Stores Ledger Control A/c	Dr.
	Cost Ledger Control A/c To Stores Ledger Control A/c For indirect materials	
	Cost Ledger Control A/c To Stores Ledger Control A/c For indirect materials Factory Overhead Control A/c	
5.	Cost Ledger Control A/c To Stores Ledger Control A/c For indirect materials Factory Overhead Control A/c To Stores Ledger Control A/c	

7.	For direct wages incurred on jobs				
	Work-in-Process Control A/c	Dr.			
	To Wages Control A/c				
8.	For indirect wages				
	Factory Overhead Control A/c	Dr.			
	To Wages Control A/c				
9.	For any indirect expense paid				
	Factory Overhead Control A/c	Dr.			
	To Cost Ledger Control A/c				
10.	For charging overhead to jobs				
	Work-in-Process Control A/c	Dr.			
	To Factory Overhead Control A/c				
11.	For the total cost of jobs completed				
	Cost of Sales A/c	Dr.			
	To Work-in-Progress Control A/c				
12.	The balance of Cost of Sales A/c is transferred to Costing Profit and Loss A/c; For such transfer				
	Costing Profit and Loss A/c	Dr.			
	To Cost of Sales A/c				
13.	For the sales value of jobs completed				
	Cost Ledger Control A/c	Dr.			
	To Costing Profit and Loss A/c				

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF JOB



Details of Cost of material, labour and overhead for all job is available to control.

Profitability of each job can be derived.

Facilitates production planning.

Budgetary control and Standard Costing can be applied in job costing.

Spoilage and detective can be identified and responsibilities can be fixed accordingly.



It is costly and laborious method.

Chances of error is more as lot of clerical process is involved.

This method not suitable in inflationary condition.

Previous records of costs will be meaningless if there is any change in market condition.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN JOB COSTING AND PROCESS COSTING

Job Costing

A Job is carried out by specific orders.

Costs determined for each job.

Each job is separate and independent.

Each job has a number and costs are collected against the same job number.

Costs are computed when a job is completed.

More managerial attention is required for effective control.

Process Costing

Process of producing the product has a continuous flow and the product produced is homogeneous.

Costs are compiled on time basis i.e., for each process or department.

Products lose their individual identity.

The unit cost of process is an average cost for the period.

Costs are calculated at the end of the cost period.

Control here is comparatively

CONTRACT COSTING

MEANING OF CONTRACT COSTING

CONTRACT COSTING

- ☐ It is a form of specific order costing where job undertaken is relatively large and normally takes period longer than a year to complete.
- □ Adopted by the contractors engaged in contracts like CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDING, ROAD, BRIDGE, ERECTION OF TOWER ETC.

FEATURES OF CONTRACT COSTING

Work in contract is ordinarily carried out at the site of the contract.

Separate account is usually maintained for each contract.

Bulk of the expenses incurred are considered as direct.

Number of contracts undertaken by a contractor at a time is usually few.

Indirect expenses mostly consist of office expenses, stores and works.

Cost unit in contract costing is the contract itself.

TERMS USED IN CONTRACT COSTING

(i) Work-in-Progress

Work-in-Progress

The contract which is not complete at the reporting date. It includes:

Cost of work completed (certified and uncertified)

Cost of work not yet completed

Amount of estimated/ notional profit

(ii) Cost of Work Certified or Value of Work Certified

Expert, based on his assessment, certifies the work completion in terms of percentage of total work.

Cost or value of certified portion is calculated and is known as Cost of work certified or Value of work certified respectively.

- (a) Value of Work Certified = Value of Contract × Work certified (%)
- (b) Cost of Work Certified = Cost of work to date (Cost of work uncertified + Material in hand + Plant at site)

(iii) Cost of Work Uncertified

Cost of the work carried out but not certified by the expert.

Always shown at cost price.

The cost of Work Uncertified may be ascertained as follows:

	(₹)	(₹)
Total cost to date		xxx
Less: Cost of work certified	xxx	
Material in hand	xxx	
Plant at site	xxx	xxx
Cost of work uncertified		xxx

(iv) Progress Payment



(v) Retention Money



(vi) Cash Received



(vii) Notional Profit



(viii) Estimated Profit



SPECIMEN OF CONTRACT ACCOUNT (with few items)

The cost of Work Uncertified may be ascertained as follows:

	Particulars	(₹)		Particulars	(₹)
То	Materials	xxx	Ву	Plant at site c/d	xxx
"	Wages	xxx	"	Work-in-progress c/d:	xxx
"	Direct expenses	xxx		- Work certified	xxx
"	Indirect expenses	xxx		- Work uncertified	xxx
"	Plant and Machinery	xxx	"	Costing P&L A/c (b/f) (If Loss)	xxx
"	Cost of Sub- Contract	xxx			
"	Costing P&L A/c (b/f) (If Profit)	xxx			
		XXX			XXX

COST PLUS CONTRACT

Cost- Plus Contract When the value of the contract is determined by adding an agreed percentage of profit to the total cost.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF COST PLUS CONTRACT

ADVANTAGES

- Contractor is assured of a fixed percentage of profit.
- Useful when work to be done is not definitely fixed at the time of making the estimate.
- Contractee can ensure himself about 'the cost of the contract;' as he is empowered to examine the books and documents of the contractor.

DISADVANTAGES

 Contractor may not have any inducement to avoid wastages and effect economy in production to reduce cost.

CMA

ESCALATION CLAUSE Empowers the contractor to recover the increased prices. Protect the contractor from adverse financial impacts. Contractor may increase the contract price if the cost of materials, employees and other expenses increases beyond a certain limit.

Process and Operation Costing

Chapter Overview Meaning Costing Procedure Normal Process & Operation Costing Treatment of Process loss/gain Abnormal Process Costing Methods Valuation of WIP **Equivalent Units** Inter-process Profit **Operation Costing**

Meaning of Process Costing

Process Costing is a method of costing used in industries where the material has to pass through two or more processes for being converted into a final product. It is defined as "a method of Cost Accounting whereby costs are charged to processes or operations and averaged over units produced".

This can be understood with the help of the following diagram:



Costing Procedure in Process Costing

Materials: Each process for which the materials are used, are debited with the cost of materials consumed on the basis of the information received from the Cost Accounting department.

Employee Cost (Labour) - Each process account should be debited with the labour cost or wages paid to labour for carrying out the processing activities. Sometimes the wages paid are apportioned over the different processes after selecting appropriate basis.

Direct expenses - Each process account should be debited with direct expenses like depreciation, repairs, maintenance, insurance etc. associated with it.

Production Overheads- These expenses cannot be allocated to a process. The suitable way out to recover them is to apportion them over different processes by using suitable basis.

Steps in Process Costing Step-1: Analyse the Physical Flow of Production Units Step-2: Calculate Equivalent Units for each Cost Elements Step-3: Determine Total Cost for each Cost Element Step-4: Compute Cost Per Equivalent Unit for each Cost Element Step-5: Assign Total Costs to Units Completed and Ending WIP

Treatment of Normal, Abnormal Loss and **Abnormal Gain**

• The cost normal process loss in practice absorbed by good units produced under the process. The amount realised by the sale of normal process loss units should be credited to the process

account.

Abnormal Process Los

- The cost an abnormal process loss unit is equal to the cost of a good unit. The total cost of abnormal process loss is credited to the process account from which it arises.
- Total cost of abnormal process loss debited to costing profit and loss account.

Abnormal Process Gain/ Yield

· The process account under which abnormal gain arises is debited with the abnormal gain and credited to abnormal gain account which will be closed by transferring to the Costing Profit and Loss account.

Valuation of Work-in-process

The valuation of work-in-process presents a good deal of difficulty because it has units under different stages of completion from those in which work has just begun to those which are only a step short of completion.

(i) Equivalent Units

Equivalent units or equivalent production units, means converting the incomplete production units into their equivalent completed units. Under each process, an estimate is made of the percentage completion of work-in-process with regard to different elements of costs, viz., material, labour and overheads.

The formula for computing equivalent completed units is:

Equivalent completed units =
$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{Actual number of units in} \\ \text{the process of manufacture} \end{pmatrix} X \begin{pmatrix} \text{Percentage of} \\ \text{Work completed} \end{pmatrix}$$

Input Details	Units	Output Particulars	Units	Equivalent Units					
		Particulars		Material		rial Labour		Overhead	
				%	Units	%	Units	%	Units
			a	b	c= a×b	d	e=a×d	f	g=a×f
Opening W-I-P	xxx	Opening W-I-P*	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx
Unit Introduced	xxx	Finished output**	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx
		Normal loss***	xxx	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Abnormal loss/ Gain****	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx
Total		Closing W-I-P	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx
	xxx	Total	xxx		xxx		xxx		xxx

^{*} Equivalent units for Opening W-I-P is calculated only under FIFO method. Under the Average method, it is not shown separately.

^{**}Under the FIFO method, Finished Output = Units completed and transferred to next process less Opening WIP. Under Average method, Finished Output = Units completed and transferred.

^{***}For normal loss, no equivalent unit is calculated.

^{****}Abnormal Gain/ Yield is treated as 100% complete in respect of all cost elements irrespective of percentage of completion.

(ii) Methods for valuation of work-in-process

Under this method the units completed and transferred include completed units of opening work-in-process and subsequently introduced units. Proportionate cost to complete the opening work-in-process and that to process the completely processed units during the period are derived separately.

Under this method, the cost of opening work-in-process and cost of the current period are aggregated and the aggregate cost is divided by output in terms of completed units.

Inter Process Profit

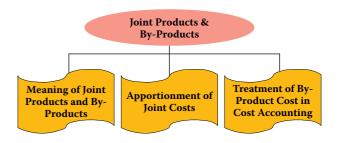
In some process industries the output of one process is transferred to the next process not at cost but at market value or cost plus a percentage of profit. The difference between cost and the transfer price is known as interprocess profits.

Operation Costing

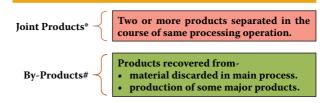
This product costing system is used when an entity produces more than one variant of final product using different materials but with similar conversion activities. Which means conversion activities are similar for all the product variants but materials differ significantly. Operation Costing method is also known as Hybrid product costing system as materials costs are accumulated by job order or batch wise but conversion costs i.e. labour and overheads costs are accumulated by department, and process costing methods are used to assign these costs to products.

JOINT PRODUCTS AND BY PRODUCTS

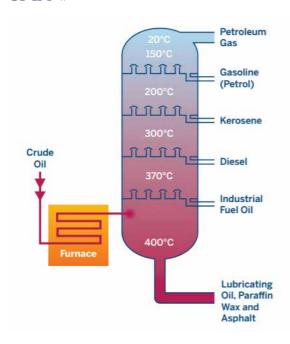
POINTS OF DISCUSSION



MEANING OF JOINT PRODUCTS AND BY-**PRODUCTS**

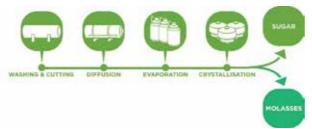


*OIL INDUSTRY PRODUCING JOINT PRODUCTS using crude petroleum like gasoline, fuel oil, lubricants, paraffin, asphalt, kerosene etc.



Petroleum Refining Processes¹

MOLASSES IS PRODUCED AS A BY-PRODUCT in the process of sugar manufacturing



Sugar Manufacturing Process²

Point at which products are separated from the main product is known as SPLIT-OFF POINT

DISTINCTION BETWEEN JOINT PRODUCTS AND BY-PRODUCTS

JOINT PRODUCTS

- · Equal importance.
- Produced simultaneously.

BY-PRODUCTS

- · Small economic value.
- Incidental to the main product.

²Image source: http://www.sustainablesugar.eu/molasses

CO-PRODUCTS

CO-PRODUCTS

Joint products and co-products are used synonymously, but a distinction is there.

Co-products are the two or more products which are contemporary but do not emerge necessarily from the same material in the same process.

For instance,

wheat and gram produced in two separate farms with separate processing of cultivation are co-products.

Timber boards made from different trees are co-products.

METHODS OF APPORTIONMENT OF JOINT **TO JOINT PRODUCTS**

Methods for apportioning joint cost

Net Realisable Physical Únits Value at Method split-off point

Using Technical **Estimates**

Market value at the point of separation

Market value after further processing

Average unit cost method

Contribution margin method

Other

methods

Physical Units Method:

Joint costs here are apportioned on the basis of some physical base, such as weight, numbers etc.

Net Realisable Value at Split-off Point Method:

Joint costs here are apportioned on the basis of **Net Realisable Value at Split-off Point.**

NET REALISABLE VALUE AT SPLIT-OFF POINT

sales value of joint products after processing

Estimated profit margins

Selling and distribution expenses

Post split- off costs

¹ Image source: https://www.cmegroup.com/education/courses/introduction-to-refinedproducts/a-look-into-the-refining-process.html

Using Technical Estimates:

This method is used WHEN-

Result obtained by above methods does not match with the resources consumed by joint products, or;

> Realisable value of the joint products are not readily available.

Other Methods:

(i) Market value at the point of separation

Useful method where further processing costs are incurred disproportionately.

To determine the apportionment of joint costs over joint products, a multiplying factor is determined as follows:

Multiplying factor: $\frac{\text{Joint Cost}}{\text{Total Sales Revenue}} \times 100$

Alternatively, joint cost may be apportioned in the ratio of sales values of different joint products.

(ii) Market value after further processing

Basis of apportionment of joint cost is the total sales value of finished products.

Use of this METHOD IS UNFAIR WHERE-

Further processing costs after the point of separation are disproportionate, or;

All the joint products are not subjected to further processing.

(iii) Average Unit Cost Method

Average unit cost = Total process cost (up to the point of separation) Total units of joint product produced

Physical unit method also follows the same steps of calculation as followed under Average unit cost method, ultimately giving the same outcome.

(iv) Contribution Margin Method

Variable Joint costs segregated into two parts **Fixed**

Variable costs

Apportioned on the basis of units produced (average method or physical quantities)

In case products are further processed after point of separation, then all variable cost incurred be added to the variable costs determined earlier.



Total variable cost is arrived which is deducted from their respective sales values to ascertain their contribution.



Fixed costs

Thereafter, fixed costs are apportioned over the joint products on the basis of the contribution ratios.

METHODS OF APPORTIONMENT OF JOINT COST TO BY-PRODUCTS

Methods for apportioning joint cost Standard Comparative Net Re-use Realisable cost in price basis Technical Value Estimates method

Net Realisable Value method:

No further processing required Further processing required

Realisation on the disposal of the by-product deducted from the total cost of production.

Additional expenses so incurred be deducted from the total value realised from the sale of the by-product.

Only the net realisations be deducted from the total cost of production to arrive at the cost of production of the main product.

Standard cost in Technical Estimates:

This method may be adopted where by-product is not saleable.

It may be valued at standard costs.

Standard cost may be determined by averaging costs recorded in the past and making technical estimates of the number of units of original raw material going into the main product and the number forming the by-product; or by adopting some other consistent basis.

The Chartered Accountant Student | November 2021

Comparative price:

Value of by-product is ascertained with reference to the price of -

Similar material, or;

Alternative material

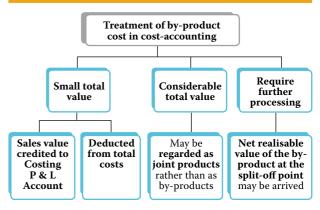
Re-use basis:

Sometimes, by-product may be of such a nature that it can be reprocessed in the same process as part of the input of the process.

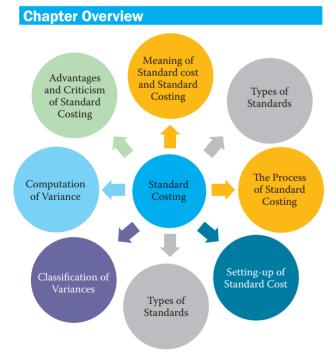
In that case, value put on by-product should be same as that of the materials introduced into the process.

However, if the by-product can be put into an earlier process only, the value should be the same as for the materials introduced into the process.

TREATMENT OF BY-PRODUCT COST **COST-ACCOUNTING**



Standard Costing



What is a Standard or Standard Cost?

Standard cost is defined in the CIMA Official Terminology as "the planned unit cost of the product, component or service produced in a period. The standard cost may be determined on a number of bases. The main use of standard costs is in performance measurement, control, stock valuation and in the establishment of selling prices."

Types of standards

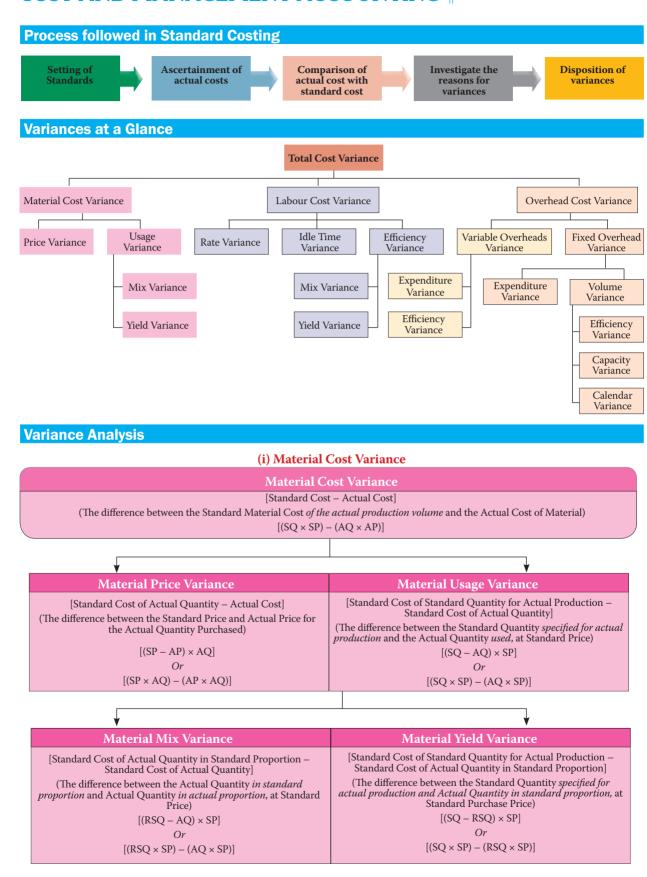
There are various types of standard which are illustrated below:

Ideal Standards: The level of performance attainable when prices for material and labour are most when favourable, the highest output is achieved with the best equipment and layout and when the maximum efficiency utilisation resources results in maximum output with minimum cost.

Normal Standards: These are standards that may be achieved under normal operating conditions.

Basic **Bogey Standards:** These standards are used only when they are likely remain constant or unaltered over a long period.

Current Standards: These standards reflect management's anticipation of what actual costs will be for the current period.



(ii) Labour Cost Variances

Labour Cost Variance

[Standard Cost – Actual Cost]

(The difference between the Standard Labour Cost and the Actual Labour Cost incurred for the production achieved) $[(SH \times SR) - (AH^* \times AR)]$

▼	Y	Y
Labour Rate Variance	Labour Idle Time Variance	Labour Efficiency Variance
dard Cost of Actual Time – Actual Cost] e difference between the Standard Rate hour and Actual Rate per hour for the Actual Hours paid)	[Standard Rate per Hour x Actual Idle Hours] (The difference between the Actual Hours <i>paid</i> and Actual Hours <i>worked</i> at Standard Rate)	[Standard Cost of Standard Time for Actual Production – Standard Cost of Actual Time] (The difference between the Standard Hours specified for actual production and Actual Hours worked at Standard Rate)
$[(SR - AR) \times AH^*]$ Or	$[(AH^* - AH\#) \times SR] Or$	$[(SH - AH#) \times SR]$ Or
$[(SR \times AH^*) - (AR \times AH^*)]$	$[(AH^* \times SR) - (AH\# \times SR)]$	$[(SH \times SR) - (AH# \times SR)]$

Labour Mix Variance Or Gang Variance Labour Yield Variance Or Sub-Efficiency Variance [Standard Cost of Actual Time Worked in Standard [Standard Cost of Standard Time for Actual Production Proportion – Standard Cost of Actual Time Worked] - Standard Cost of Actual Time Worked in Standard Proportion] (The difference between the Actual Hours worked in standard proportion and Actual Hours worked in actual (The difference between the Standard Hours specified proportion, at Standard Rate) for actual production and Actual Hours worked in standard proportion, at Standard Rate) $(SH - RSH) \times SR$ Or $[(RSH - AH#) \times SR]$ Or $[(RSH \times SR) - (AH# \times SR)]$ $(SH \times SR) - (RSH \times SR)$

(iii) Variable Overhead Variances

Variable Overhead Cost Variance

(Standard Variable Overheads for Production - Actual Variable Overheads)

★	▼
Variable Overhead Expenditure (Spending) Variance	Variable Overhead Efficiency Variance
(Standard Variable Overheads for Actual Hours#) Less (Actual Variable Overheads) $[(SR - AR) \times AH#]$ Or $[(SR \times AH#) - (AR \times AH#)]$	(Standard Variable Overheads for Production) Less (Standard Variable Overheads for Actual Hours#) $[(SH - AH#) \times SR]$ Or $[(SH \times SR) - (AH# \times SR)]$

(iv) Fixed Overhead Variances

Fixed Overhead Cost Variance

(Absorbed Fixed Overheads) Less (Actual Fixed Overheads)

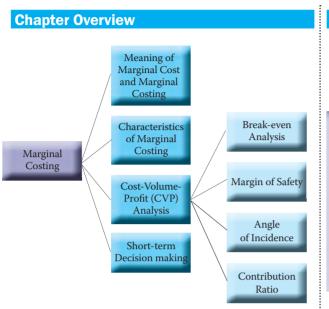
<u> </u>	<u> </u>
Fixed Overhead Expenditure Variance	Fixed Overhead Volume Variance
(Budgeted Fixed Overheads) Less (Actual Fixed Overheads) Or (BH × SR) – (AH × AR)	(Absorbed Fixed Overheads) Less (Budgeted Fixed Overheads) Or (SH × SR) – (BH × SR)

▼	_	
Fixed Overhead Capacity Variance	Fixed Overhead Calendar Variance	Fixed Overhead Efficiency Variance
SR (AH – BH)	Std. Fixed Overhead rate per day (Actual no.	SR (AH – SH)
Or	of Working days – Budgeted Working days)	Or
$(AH \times SR) - (BH \times SR)$		$(AH \times SR) - (SH \times SR)$

AH* - Actual Hours paid AH# - Actual Hours worked

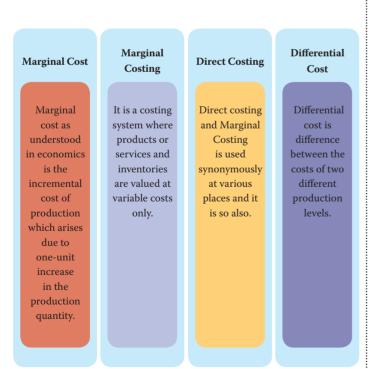
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Marginal Costing



Meaning of Terms

In order to understand the concept of marginal costing, let us first define various terminology associated with marginal costing.



Characteristics of Marginal Costing

Characteristics of Marginal Costing

All elements of cost are classified into fixed and variable components. Semi-variable costs are also analyzed into fixed and variable elements.

The marginal or variable costs (as direct material, direct labour and variable factory overheads) are treated as the cost of product

Under marginal costing, the value of finished goods and work–in–progress is also comprised only of marginal costs. Variable selling and distribution overheads are excluded for valuing these inventories.

Fixed costs are treated as period costs and are charged to profit and loss account for the period for which they are incurred

Prices are determined with reference to marginal costs and contribution margin

Profitability of departments and products is determined with reference to their contribution margin

Computation of Contribution and Profit under Marginal Costing

For the determination of cost of a product/ service under marginal costing, costs are classified under variable and fixed. All the variable costs are part of product and fixed costs are charged against contribution margin.

Cost and Profit Statement under Marginal Costing

	Amount	Amount
	(Rs)	(Rs)
Revenue		XXX
Product Cost:		
- Direct Materials	xxx	
- Direct employee (labour)	xxx	
- Direct expenses	XXX	
- Variable manufacturing overheads	xxx	
Product (Inventoriable) Costs	xxx	(xxx)
Product Contribution Margin		XXX
- Variable Administration overheads	XXX	
- Variable Selling & Distribution overheads	xxx	(xxx)
Contribution Margin		xxx
Period Cost:		
Fixed Manufacturing expenses	XXX	
Fixed non-manufacturing expenses	xxx	(xxx)
Profit/ (loss)		XXX

Advantages of Marginal Costing

There are many advantages of marginal costing, some of them are discussed below.



Cost-Volume-Profit (CVP) Analysis

It is a managerial tool showing the relationship between various ingredients of profit planning viz., cost, selling price and volume of activity.

Marginal Cost Equation

Marginal Cost Equation = $S - V = C = F \pm P$

Marginal Cost Statement

	(₹)
Sales (S)	xxxx
Less: Variable Cost (V)	xxxx
Contribution (C)	xxxx
Less: Fixed Cost (F)	xxxx
Profit/ Loss (P)	xxxx

Profit Volume Ratio or P/V ratio

This ratio shows the proportion of sales required to cover fixed cost and profit. P/V ratio is calculated as below:

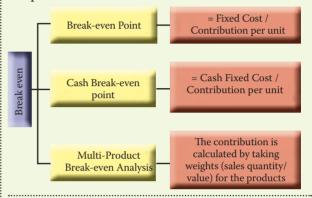
(b) When two years' data is given, P/V Ratio

$$= \frac{\text{Change in contribution/ Profit}}{\text{Change in sales}} \times 100$$

Break-Even Analysis

Break-even analysis is a generally used method to study the CVP analysis. This technique can be explained in two ways.

- (i) In narrow sense it is concerned with computing the break-even point.
- (ii) In broad sense this technique is used to determine the possible profit/loss at any given level of production or sales.



Angle of Incidence

This angle is formed by the intersection of sales line and total cost line at the break-even point. This angle shows the rate at which profit is earned once the break-even point is reached. The wider the angle the greater is the rate of earning profits. A large angle of incidence with a high margin of safety indicates extremely favourable position

Margin of Safety

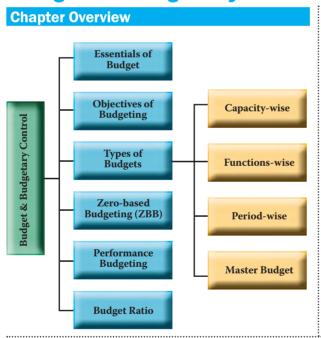
This is the difference between the expected level of sales and break even sales (no profit, no loss). The larger is the margin of safety higher is the profit and vice versa.

Variations of Basic Marginal Cost Equation and other formulae

viii.	$P/V Ratio = \frac{Contribution}{Sale} X 100$
ix.	$(BES + MS) \times P/V \text{ Ratio} = Contribution (Total sales = BES + MS)$
х.	$(BES \times P/V \text{ Ratio}) + (MS \times P/V \text{ Ratio}) = F + P$
	By deducting (BES \times P/V Ratio) from L.H.S. and F from R.H.S. in (x) above, we get:
xi.	$M.S. \times P/V$ Ratio = P
xii.	$P/V Ratio = \frac{Change in profit}{Change in sales} X 100$
xiii.	P/V Ratio = $\frac{\text{Change in contribution}}{\text{Change in sales}} \times 100$

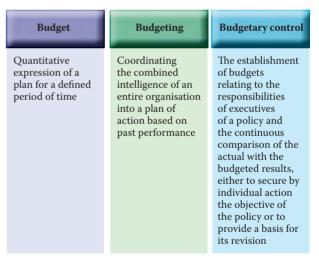
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xiv.
                      Contribution
      Profitability =
                       Key factor
                                                  Profit
      Margin of Safety = Total Sales - BES or
                                                P/V Ratio
      BES = Total Sales - MS
xvi.
yvii
                                Total sales - BES
      Margin of Safety Ratio =
                                    Total Sales
```

Budget & Budgetary Control



Definition and Terminology

Let us first define various important terminologies used in budget and budgetary control.



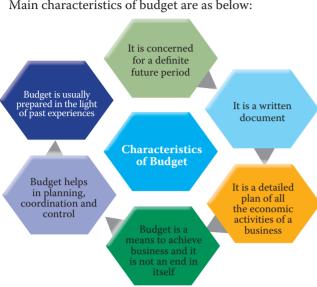
Essentials of Budget

Essential elements of budget are illustrated below:

Essential elements of a budget					
Organisational structure must be clearly defined	Setting of clear objectives and reasonable targets	Budgets are prepared for the future periods based on expected course of actions	Budgets are updated for the events that were not kept into the mind while establishing budgets	Budgets should be quantifiable and master budget should be broken down into various functional budgets. Budgets should be monitored periodically	Budgetary performance needs to be linked effectively to the reward system

Characteristics of Budget

Main characteristics of budget are as below:



Objectives of Budgeting

The objective of budgeting begins with planning and ends with controlling. Once the planning is done, they can be used for directing and controlling operations so that the stated targets in planning are achieved.

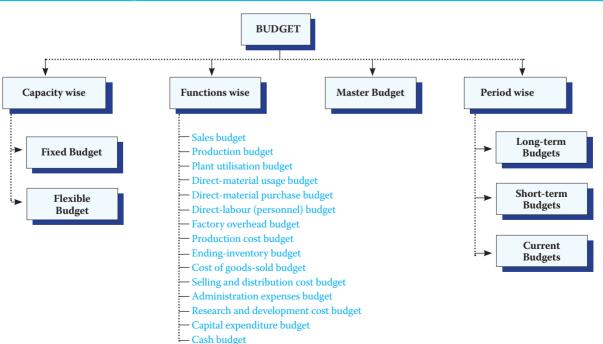


Advantages of Budgetary Control System

There are many advantages of budgetary control system, and some of the them are illustrated below:



Classification of Budget



Definition of different types of Budget

Functional Budgets	Budgets which relate to the individual functions in an organisation are known as Functional Budgets. For example, purchase budget; sales budget; production budget; plant-utilisation budget and cash budget.	
Master Budget	It is a consolidated summary of the various functional budgets. It serves as the basis upon which budgeted $P \& L A/c$ and forecasted Balance Sheet are built up.	
Long-term Budgets	The budgets which are prepared for periods longer than a year are called long-term budgets. Such budgets are helpful in business forecasting and forward planning. Capital expenditure budget and Research and Development budget are examples of long-term budgets.	
Short-term Budgets	Budgets which are prepared for periods less than a year are known as short-term budgets. Cash budget is an example of short-term budget. Such types of budgets are prepared in cases where a specific action has to be immediately taken to bring any variation under control, as in cash budgets.	
Basic Budgets	A budget which remains unaltered over a long period of time is called basic budget.	
Current Budgets	A budget which is established for use over a short period of time and is related to the current conditions is called current budget.	
Fixed Budget	According to CIMA official terminology, "a fixed budget, is a budget designed to remain unchanged irrespective of the level of activity actually attained".	
Flexible Budget	According to CIMA official terminology, "a flexible budget is defined as a budget which, by recognizing the difference between fixed, semi-variable and variable costs is designed to change in relation to the level of activity attained."	

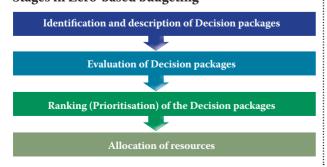
Differences between Fixed Budget and Flexible Budget

Sl. no.	Fixed Budget	Flexible Budget
1.	It does not change with actual volume of activity achieved. Thus it is known as rigid or inflexible budget	It can be re-casted on the basis of activity level to be achieved. Thus it is not rigid.
2.	It operates on one level of activity and under one set of conditions. It assumes that there will be no change in the prevailing conditions, which is unrealistic.	It consists of various budgets for different levels of activity.
3.	Here as all costs like - fixed, variable and semi-variable are related to only one level of activity, so variance analysis does not give useful information.	Here, analysis of variance provides useful information as each cost is analysed according to its behaviour.
4.	If the budgeted and actual activity levels differ significantly, then the aspects like cost ascertainment and price fixation do not give a correct picture.	Flexible budgeting at different levels of activity facilitates the ascertainment of cost, fixation of selling price and tendering of quotations.
5.	Comparison of actual performance with budgeted targets will be meaningless specially when there is a difference between the two activity levels.	It provides a meaningful basis of comparison of the actual performance with the budgeted targets.

Zero- Based Budgeting (ZBB)

It is defined as 'a method of budgeting which requires each cost element to be specifically justified, although the activities to which the budget relates are being undertaken for the first time, without approval, the budget allowance is zero'.

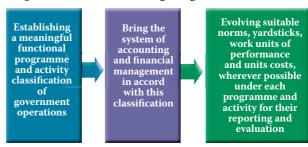
Stages in Zero-based budgeting



Performance Budgeting

A performance budget is one which presents the purposes and objectives for which funds are required, the costs of the programmes proposed for achieving those objectives, and quantitative data measuring the accomplishments and work performed under each programme.

Steps in Performance Budgeting



Budget Ratio

Budget ratios provide information about the performance level, i.e., the extent of deviation of actual performance from the budgeted performance and whether the actual performance is favourable or unfavourable.

The following ratios are usually used by the management to measure development from budget **Standard Capacity Employed Ratio Efficiency Ratio**

This ratio may be defined as standard hours equivalent of work produced expressed as a percentage of the actual hours spent in producing the work.

Level of Activity Ratio

This may be defined as the number of standard hours equivalent to work produced expressed as a percentage of the budget of standard hours.

Calendar Ratio

This ratio may be defined as the relationship between the number of working days in a period and the number of working days as in the relative budget period.

This ratio indicates the extent to which facilities were actually utilized during the budget period.

Capacity Usage Ratio

This is the relationship between the budgeted number of working hours and the maximum possible number of working hours in a budget period.



Budget Ratios:			
(i) Efficiency Ratio =	Standard Hours Actual Hours	(iv)	Standard Capacity Usage Ratio Budgeted Hours Max. possible hours in the budgeted period *100
(ii) Activity Ratio =	Standard Hours Budgeted Hours	(v)	$\frac{\text{Actual Capacity}}{\text{Usage Ratio}} = \frac{\text{Actual Hours worked}}{\text{Max. possible working hours in a period}} \times 100$
(iii) Calendar Ratio =	Available working days Budgeted working days ×100	(vi)	Actual Usage of Budgeted Capacity Ratio = Actual working Hours Budgeted Hours **100