

**Mock Test Paper - Series I: April, 2024**

**Date of Paper: 30<sup>th</sup> April, 2024**

**Time of Paper: 2 P.M. to 5 P.M.**

**FOUNDATION COURSE  
PAPER 2: BUSINESS LAWS  
ANSWERS**

1. (a) According to Section 27 of Indian Contract Act, 1872, an agreement by which any person is restrained from exercising a lawful profession, trade or business of any kind, is to that extent void. But this rule is subject to the following exceptions, namely, where a person sells the goodwill of a business and agrees with the buyer to refrain from carrying on a similar business, within specified local limits, so long as the buyer or his successor in interest carries on a like business therein, such an agreement is valid. The local limits within which the seller of the goodwill agrees not to carry on similar business must be reasonable.

In the instant case, Kashish sold his running business of artificial jewellery to Naman and promises, not to carry on the business of artificial jewellery and real diamond jewellery in that area and for a period of next one year but just after two months, Kashish opened a show room of real diamond jewellery. Naman sued Kashish for closing the business of real diamond business as it was against the agreement.

As exceptions to section 27 is applicable to similar business only, agreement between Naman and Kashish will not be applicable on business of real diamond jewellery. Hence, Kashish can continue his business of real diamond jewellery.

- (b) According to Section 2(87) of Companies Act, 2013 “subsidiary company” in relation to any other company (that is to say the holding company), means a company in which the holding company—
- (i) controls the composition of the Board of Directors; or
  - (ii) exercises or controls more than one-half of the total voting power either at its own or together with one or more of its subsidiary companies:

For the purposes of this section —

- (I) the composition of a company’s Board of Directors shall be deemed to be controlled by another company if that other company by exercise of some power exercisable by it at its discretion can appoint or remove all or a majority of the directors;
- (II) the expression “company” includes any body corporate;

It is to be noted that Preference share capital will also be considered if preference shareholders have same voting rights as equity shareholders.

In the instant case, Darshan Photographs Private Limited is having paid-up capital of ₹ 1 Crores in the form of 50,000 Equity Shares of ₹ 100 each and 50,000 Preference Shares of ₹ 100 each. Shadow Evening Private Limited is holding 25,000 Equity Shares in Darshan Photographs Private Limited.

- (a) On the basis of provisions of Section 2(87) and facts of the given problem, Shadow Evening Private Limited is holding one – half of total equity paid up share capital of Darshan Photographs Private Limited. Therefore, Darshan Photographs Private Limited cannot be considered as subsidiary company of Shadow Evening Private Limited as for being subsidiary company other company should control more than one – half of the total voting power.
- (b) Answer would remain same even if Shadow Evening Private Limited is also holding 5,000 preference shares as they do not have voting rights.
- (c) **Definition of Partnership:** 'Partnership' is the relation between persons who have agreed to share the profits of a business carried on by all or any of them acting for all. (Section 4 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932)

The definition of the partnership contains the following five elements which must co-exist before a partnership can come into existence:

1. Association of two or more persons
2. Agreement
3. Business
4. Agreement to Share Profits
5. Business Carried on by all or any of them acting for all

#### **ELEMENTS OF PARTNERSHIP**

The definition of the partnership contains the following five elements which must co-exist before a partnership can come into existence:

1. **Association of two or more persons:** Partnership is an association of 2 or more persons. Again, only persons recognized by law can enter into an agreement of partnership. Therefore, a firm, since it is not a person recognized in the eyes of law cannot be a partner. Again, a minor cannot be a partner in a firm, but with the consent of all the partners, may be admitted to the benefits of partnership.
2. **Agreement:** It may be observed that partnership must be the result of an agreement between two or more persons. There must be an agreement entered into by all the persons concerned. This element relates to voluntary contractual nature of partnership. Thus, the nature of the partnership is voluntary and contractual. An agreement from which relationship of Partnership arises may be express. It may also be implied from the act done by partners and

from a consistent course of conduct being followed, showing mutual understanding between them. It may be oral or in writing.

3. **Business:** Firstly, there must exist a business. For the purpose, the term 'business' includes every trade, occupation and profession. The existence of business is essential. Secondly, the motive of the business is the "acquisition of gains" which leads to the formation of partnership. Therefore, there can be no partnership where there is no intention to carry on the business and to share the profit thereof.
  4. **Agreement to share profits:** The sharing of profits is an essential feature of partnership. There can be no partnership where only one of the partners is entitled to the whole of the profits of the business. Partners must agree to share the profits in any manner they choose. But an agreement to share losses is not an essential element. It is open to one or more partners to agree to share all the losses. However, in the event of losses, unless agreed otherwise, these must be borne in the profit-sharing ratio.
  5. **Business carried on by all or any of them acting for all:** The business must be carried on by all the partners or by anyone or more of the partners acting for all. This is the cardinal principle of the partnership Law. In other words, there should be a binding contract of mutual agency between the partners. An act of one partner in the course of the business of the firm is in fact an act of all partners. Each partner carrying on the business is the principal as well as the agent for all the other partners. He is an agent in so far as he can bind the other partners by his acts and he is a principal to the extent that he is bound by the act of other partners. It may be noted that the true test of partnership is mutual agency rather than sharing of profits. If the element of mutual agency is absent, then there will be no partnership.
2. (a) By virtue of Section 9 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, the price in the contract of sale may be fixed by the contract, or agreed to be fixed in a manner provided by the contract, e.g., by a valuer, or determined by the course of dealings between the parties.

Further, section 10 provides for the determination of price by a third party in the following manner:

- (a) Where there is an agreement to sell goods on the terms that price has to be fixed by the third party and he either does not or cannot make such valuation, the agreement will be void.
- (b) In case the third party is prevented by the default of either party from fixing the price, the party at fault will be liable to the damages to the other party who is not at fault.
- (c) However, a buyer who has received and appropriated the goods must pay a reasonable price for them in any eventuality.

In the instant case, Kapil contracted Rahul to purchase 1000 litres of mustard oil at the price fixed by Akhilesh. After, Rahul delivered 600 litres Akhilesh denied fixing the price of mustard oil. Rahul demanded back the oil already delivered and cancel the delivery of 400 litres. Kapil sued Rahul for non-delivery of remaining 400 litres mustard oil.

On the basis of above provisions and facts, Kapil is liable to pay a reasonable price of 600 litres while for remaining 400 litres, contract may be avoided.

**(b) Doctrine of ultra vires:**

The meaning of the term ultra vires is simply “beyond (their) powers”. The legal phrase “ultra vires” is applicable only to acts done in excess of the legal powers of the doers. This presupposes that the powers in their nature are limited. To an ordinary citizen, the law permits whatever does the law not expressly forbid. It is a fundamental rule of Company Law that the objects of a company as stated in its memorandum can be departed from only to the extent permitted by the Act, thus far and no further [*Ashbury Railway Company Ltd. vs. Riche*].

In consequence, any act done or a contract made by the company which travels beyond the powers not only of the directors but also of the company is wholly void and inoperative in law and is therefore not binding on the company. On this account, a company can be restrained from employing its fund for purposes other than those sanctioned by the memorandum. Likewise, it can be restrained from carrying on a trade different from the one it is authorised to carry on.

**Consequences of ‘ultra vires’ acts of the company:**

The impact of the doctrine of ultra vires is that a company can neither be sued on an ultra vires transaction, nor can it sue on it. Since the memorandum is a “public document”, it is open to public inspection. Therefore, when one deals with a company one is deemed to know about the powers of the company. If in spite of this one enters into a transaction which is ultra vires the company, he/she cannot enforce it against the company.

An act which is ultra vires the company being void, cannot be ratified by the shareholders of the company.

However, some ultra vires act can be regularised by ratifying them subsequently. For instance, if the act is ultra vires the power of the directors, the shareholders can ratify it; if it is ultra vires the articles of the company, the company can alter the articles; if the act is within the power of the company but is done irregularly, shareholders can validate such acts.

- (c) **LLP is an alternative corporate business form that gives the benefits of limited liability of a company and the flexibility of a partnership**

**Limited Liability:** Every partner of a LLP is, for the purpose of the business of LLP, the agent of the LLP, but not of other partners. The liability of the partners will be limited to their agreed contribution in the LLP, while the LLP itself will be liable for the full extent of its assets.

**Flexibility of a partnership:** The LLP allows its members the flexibility of organizing their internal structure as a partnership based on a mutually arrived agreement. The LLP form enables entrepreneurs, professionals and enterprises providing services of any kind or engaged in scientific and technical disciplines, to form commercially efficient vehicles suited to their requirements. Owing to flexibility in its structure and operation, the LLP is a suitable vehicle for small enterprises and for investment by venture capital.

3. (a) According to Section 13(e) of Indian Partnership Act, 1932, every partner has the right to be indemnified by the firm in respect of payments made and liabilities incurred by him in the ordinary and proper conduct of the business of the firm as well as in the performance of an act in an emergency for protecting the firm from any loss, if the payments, liability and act are such as a prudent man would make, incur or perform in his own case, under similar circumstances.

In the instant case, M/s Aee Bee & Company is doing business of trading of plastic bottles. A and B, partners of the firm, authorised A to sell the stock of plastic bottles on the condition to sale at the minimum price. In case A has to sell at a price less than minimum price, he should first take the permission of B. Due to some emergency, A sold the stock at lower price to save the firm from loss.

On the basis of above provisions and facts of the problem given, selling by A at a lower price was to save the firm from loss. As the act of A was in favour of firm, he was not liable to bear the loss.

- (b) (i) As per section 2(85) of the Companies Act, 2013, Small Company means a company, other than a public company:
- (i) paid-up share capital of which does not exceed four crore rupees, and
  - (ii) turnover of which as per profit and loss account for the immediately preceding financial year does not exceed forty crore rupees:

Provided that nothing in this clause shall apply to—

- (A) a holding company or a subsidiary company;
- (B) a company registered under section 8; or
- (C) a company or body corporate governed by any special Act.

In the instant case, as per the last profit and loss account for the year ending 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2023 of Glassware Private Limited, its turnover was to the extent of ₹ 1.80 crore, and paid-up share capital was ₹ 80 lakh. Though Glassware Private Limited, as per the turnover and paid-up share capital norms, qualifies for the status of a 'small company' but it cannot be categorized as a 'small company' because it is the subsidiary of another company (Tycoon Private Limited).

Hence, the contention of the Company Secretary is correct.

- (ii) **(A) Perpetual Succession** – A company on incorporation becomes a separate legal entity. It is an artificial legal person and have perpetual succession which means even if all the members of a company die, the company still continues to exist. It has permanent existence.

The existence of a company is independent of the lives of its members. It has a perpetual succession. In this problem, the company will continue as a legal entity. The company's existence is in no way affected by the death of all its members.

- (B)** The statement given is incorrect. A company is an artificial person as it is created by a process other than natural birth. It is legal or judicial as it is created by law. It is a person since it is clothed with all the rights of an individual. Further, the company being a separate legal entity can own property, have banking account, raise loans, incur liabilities and enter into contracts. Even members can contract with company, acquire right against it or incur liability to it. It can sue and be sued in its own name. It can do everything which any natural person can do except be sent to jail, take an oath, marry or practice a learned profession. Hence, it is a legal person in its own sense.

- (c)** An anticipatory breach of contract is a breach of contract occurring before the time fixed for performance has arrived. When the promisor refuses altogether to perform his promise and signifies his unwillingness even before the time for performance has arrived, it is called Anticipatory Breach. The law in this regard has very well summed up in ***Frost v. Knight and Hochster v. DelaTour.***

**Section 39** of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 deals with anticipatory breach of contract and provides as follows: "When a party to a contract has refused to perform or disable himself from performing, his promise in its entirety, the promisee may put an end to the contract, unless he has signified, but words or conduct, his acquiescence in its continuance."

**Effect of anticipatory breach:** The promisee is excused from performance or from further performance. Further he gets an option:

- (1) To either treat the contract as “rescinded and sue the other party for damages from breach of contract immediately without waiting until the due date of performance; or
- (2) He may elect not to rescind but to treat the contract as still operative, and wait for the time of performance and then hold the other party responsible for the consequences of non-performance. But in this case, he will keep the contract alive for the benefit of the other party as well as his own, and the guilty party, if he so decides on re-consideration, may still perform his part of the contract and can also take advantage of any supervening impossibility which may have the effect of discharging the contract.

4. (a) (i) “Performance of Contract” means fulfilment of obligations to the contract. According to Section 37 of Indian Contract Act, 1872, the parties to a contract must either perform, or offer to perform, their respective promises unless such performance is dispensed with or excused under the provisions of the Contract Act or of any other law. Further, the performance should be for whole obligations. Part delivery cannot be considered as valid performance.

In the instant case, Nitesh Gupta contracted with M/s Baba Brick House to supply of 10,000 bricks on 12<sup>th</sup> August 2023. M/s Baba Brick House had only two Lorries of 5,000 brick capacity. But on the agreed date one lorry was not in working condition so only 5,000 bricks were supplied on 12<sup>th</sup> August 2023 and promised to supply rest 5,000 bricks on next day.

After taking into account the above provisions and facts, Plea of M/s Baba Brick House cannot be considered. Performance should be for whole obligation. Hence, part performance by M/s Baba Brick House cannot be taken as valid performance. Nitesh Gupta is right in avoiding the contract.

- (ii) **Agent's authority in an emergency (Section 189 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872):** An agent has authority, in an emergency, to do all such acts for the purpose of protecting his principal from loss as would be done by a person of ordinary prudence, in his own case, under similar circumstances.

In the instant case, Rahul, the agent, was handling perishable goods like ‘tomatoes’ and can decide the time, date and place of sale, not necessarily as per instructions of the Aswin, the principal, with the intention of protecting Aswin from losses.

Here, Rahul acts in an emergency as a man of ordinary prudence, so Aswin will not succeed against him for recovering the loss.

- (b) **Meaning of Negotiable Instruments:** Negotiable Instruments is an instrument (the word instrument means a document) which is freely transferable (by customs of trade) from one person to another by mere delivery or by indorsement and delivery. The property in such an instrument passes to a bonafide transferee for value.

The Act does not define the term 'Negotiable Instruments'. However, Section 13 of the Act provides for only three kinds of negotiable instruments namely bills of exchange, promissory notes and cheques, payable either to order or bearer.

**Essential Characteristics of Negotiable Instruments**

1. It is necessarily in writing.
2. It should be signed.
3. It is freely transferable from one person to another.
4. Holder's title is free from defects.
5. It can be transferred any number of times till its satisfaction.
6. Every negotiable instrument must contain an unconditional promise or order to pay money. The promise or order to pay must consist of money only.
7. The sum payable, the time of payment, the payee, must be certain.
8. The instrument should be delivered. Mere drawing of instrument does not create liability.

**(c) The laws in the Indian legal system could be broadly classified as follows:**

**Criminal Law:** Criminal law is concerned with laws pertaining to violations of the rule of law or public wrongs and punishment of the same. Criminal Law is governed under the Indian Penal Code, 1860, and the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973 (Crpc). The Indian Penal Code, 1860, defines the crime, its nature, and punishments whereas the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973, defines exhaustive procedure for executing the punishments of the crimes. Murder, rape, theft, fraud, cheating and assault are some examples of criminal offences under the law.

**Civil Law:** Matters of disputes between individuals or organisations are dealt with under Civil Law. Civil courts enforce the violation of certain rights and obligations through the institution of a civil suit. Civil law primarily focuses on dispute resolution rather than punishment. The act of process and the administration of civil law are governed by the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 (CPC). Civil law can be further classified into Law of Contract, Family Law, Property Law, and Law of Tort. Some examples of civil offences are breach of contract, non-delivery of goods, non-payment of dues to lender or seller defamation, breach of contract, and disputes between landlord and tenant.

**Common Law:** A judicial precedent or a case law is common law. A judgment delivered by the Supreme Court will be binding upon the courts within the territory of India under Article 141 of the Indian Constitution. The *doctrine of Stare Decisis* is the principle supporting common law. It is a Latin phrase that means "to stand by that which is decided." The *doctrine of Stare Decisis* reinforces the obligation of courts to follow the same principle or judgement established by previous decisions while



ruling a case where the facts are similar or “on all four legs” with the earlier decision.

**Principles of Natural Justice:** Natural justice, often known as Jus Natural deals with certain fundamental principles of justice going beyond written law. *Nemo judex in causa sua* (Literally meaning “No one should be made a judge in his own cause, and it’s a Rule against Prejudice), *audi alteram partem* (Literally meaning “hear the other party or give the other party a fair hearing), and reasoned decision are the rules of Natural Justice. A judgement can override or alter a common law, but it cannot override or change the statute.

5. (a) (i) Lien is the right of a person to retain possession of the goods belonging to another until claim of the person in possession is satisfied. The unpaid seller has also right of lien over the goods for the price of the goods sold.

Section 47(1) of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930 provides that the unpaid seller who is in the possession of the goods is entitled to exercise right of lien in the following cases:-

1. Where the goods have been sold without any stipulation as to credit
2. Where the goods have been sold on credit but the term of credit has expired
3. Where the buyer has become insolvent even though the period of credit has not yet expired.

In the given case, A has agreed to sell certain goods to B on a credit of 10 days. The period of 10 days has expired. B has neither paid the price of goods nor taken the possession of the goods. That means the goods are still physically in the possession of A, the seller. In the meantime, B, the buyer has become insolvent.

In this case, A is entitled to exercise the right of lien on the goods because the buyer has become insolvent and the term of credit has expired without any payment of price by the buyer.

- (ii) **Right of stoppage in transit (Section 50 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930):** Subject to the provisions of this Act, when the buyer of goods becomes insolvent, the unpaid seller who has parted with the possession of the goods has the right of stopping them in transit, that is to say, he may resume possession of the goods as long as they are in the course of transit, and may retain them until paid or tendered price of the goods.

When the unpaid seller has parted with the goods to a carrier and the buyer has become insolvent, he can exercise this right of asking the carrier to return the goods back, or not to deliver the goods to the buyer.

In the instant case, CD, the buyer becomes insolvent and 450 bags are in transit. AB, the seller, can stop the goods in transit by giving

a notice of it to CD. The official receiver, on CD's insolvency cannot claim the bags.

- (b) (i) **Revocation of continuing guarantee (Section 38 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932):** According to section 38, a continuing guarantee given to a firm or to third party in respect of the transaction of a firm is, in the absence of an agreement to the contrary, revoked as to future transactions from the date of any change in the constitution of the firm. Such change may occur by the death, or retirement of a partner, or by introduction of a new partner.
- (ii) **Goodwill:** The term "Goodwill" has not been defined under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932. Section 14 of the Act lays down that goodwill of a business is to be regarded as a property of the firm.
- Goodwill may be defined as the value of the reputation of a business house in respect of profits expected in future over and above the normal level of profits earned by undertaking belonging to the same class of business.
- (c) Under following circumstances, the contracts need not be performed with the consent of both the parties:
- (i) **Novation:** Where the parties to a contract substitute a new contract for the old it is called novation. A contract in existence may be substituted by a new contract either between the same parties or between different parties the consideration mutually being the discharge of old contract. Novation can take place only by mutual agreement between the parties. On novation, the old contract is discharged and consequently it need not be performed. (Section 62 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872)
- (ii) **Rescission:** A contract is also discharged by rescission. When the parties to a contract agree to rescind it, the contract need not be performed. (Section 62)
- (iii) **Alteration:** Where the parties to a contract agree to alter it, the original contract is rescinded, with the result that it need not be performed. In other words, a contract is also discharged by alteration. (Section 62)
- (iv) **Remission:** Every promisee may dispense with or remit, wholly or in part, the performance of the promise made to him, or may extend the time for such performance or may accept instead of it any satisfaction which he thinks fit. In other words, a contract is discharged by remission. (Section 63)
- (v) **Rescinds voidable contract:** When a person at whose option a contract is voidable rescinds it, the other party thereto need not perform any promise therein contained in which he is the promisor.
- (vi) **Neglect of promisee:** If any promisee neglects or refuses to afford the promisor reasonable facilities for the performance of his

promise, the promisor is excused by such neglect or refusal as to any non-performance caused thereby. (Section 67)

6. (a) By virtue of provisions of Section 138 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881, where cheque was issued by a person to discharge a legally enforceable debt was dishonoured by bank due to insufficiency of funds, such person shall be deemed to have committed an offence and shall, without prejudice to any other provision of this Act, be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to two years or with fine which may extend to twice the amount of the cheque, or with both.

However,

- (a) the cheque has been presented to the bank within three months or validity period of the cheque, whichever is earlier;
- (b) the holder makes a demand for the payment of the said amount of money by giving a notice in writing, to the drawer of the cheque within 30 days of the receipt of information from the bank regarding the return of the cheque as unpaid; and
- (c) the drawer of such cheque fails to make the payment of the said amount of money within fifteen days of the receipt of the said notice.

In the instant case, Priyansh issued a cheque to Sumit for payment of the price of goods purchased from him. When Sumit presented the cheque in bank, it was returned unpaid due to insufficiency of funds in the account of Priyansh. Sumit sued against Priyansh under section 138 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881.

For filing the suit under section 138, Sumit should have to make a demand of payment by giving a notice in writing to Priyansh upto 18<sup>th</sup> July, 2023. In case, Priyansh failed in making the payment within fifteen days of the receipt of the said notice, Sumit could sue under section 138.

- (b) **Essential elements of a contract of bailment:** Section 148 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 defines the term 'Bailment'. A 'bailment' is the delivery of goods by one person to another for some purpose upon a contract that they shall, when the purpose is accomplished, be returned or otherwise disposed of according to the directions of the person delivering them. The essential elements of the contract of the bailment are:

- (i) Delivery of goods—The essence of bailment is delivery of goods by one person to another.
- (ii) Bailment is a contract—In bailment, the delivery of goods is upon a contract that when the purpose is accomplished, the goods shall be returned to the bailor.
- (iii) Return of goods in specific—The goods are delivered for some purpose and it is agreed that the specific goods shall be returned.

- (iv) Ownership of goods—In a bailment, it is only the possession of goods which is transferred, and the bailor continues to be the owner of the goods.
  - (v) Property must be movable—Bailment is only for movable goods and never for immovable goods or money.
- (c) **Sale of unascertained goods and Appropriation (Section 23 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930):** Appropriation of goods involves selection of goods with the intention of using them in performance of the contract and with the mutual consent of the seller and the buyer.

**The essentials are:**

- (a) There is a contract for the sale of unascertained or future goods.
- (b) The goods should conform to the description and quality stated in the contract.
- (c) The goods must be in a deliverable state.
- (d) The goods must be unconditionally appropriated to the contract either by delivery to the buyer or his agent or the carrier.
- (e) The appropriation must be made by:
  - (i) the seller with the assent of the buyer; or
  - (ii) the buyer with the assent of the seller.
- (f) The assent may be express or implied.
- (g) The assent may be given either before or after appropriation.