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## **CA – Foundation**

Principles and Practice of Accounting

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Paga Mb. Data 514119 ACCOUNTING YOUTCY. SLM or stralght line method. WDV : IF every year efficiency going on decrease then use WDV method. Accounting = Accounting 1 Methods of applying such principles. Principle Policy 1.1 = Depriciation + SLM/WDV. SLM WDY. A 10.00,000 10.00.000 R C-) Dep. 10% - 1.00.000 C-) Dep. 10% 1.00.000 9.00,000 9.00.000 C-) Dep 10%. 90,000 () Dep 10% 1.00.000 8,10,000 8,00,000 (-) Dep. 10% 81.000 (-) Dep 10% 1,00,00D 7,00,000 7,23:000. IF change in accounting policy from SLM to WDV. Change in depriciation with prospective effect.

· Prospective Effect: Making changes in amount for future period Retrospective Effect: Making changes in amount from the beginning. anna <u>Cairda</u> air an ACCOUNTING ESTIMATE Bad debts 12,000 (+) New bad-debts 5,000 (2) New provision -) old provision for 10.000. doubtful debts \_\_\_\_\_ 7.000. Required In . ) All Provisions e) life of Asset e) Scrap value of asset etc. . IF there is change in accounting estimates then Prospective Effect shall be given. e.g. Mr. X purchased machinery for I 10.00.000 estimated useful life is 10 years at the time of purchase on 1st April 2014.

Page M 0417 In the 7th year it came to know inspection asset that this asset will be working only for total 8 years. Calculate depriciation for 8th year. (SUM Method). 7th NAME AVIL AD - VIL Cost of Asset \_ 10.00;000. Dep"= 10.00.000 00 1-4-2014 10.915. (-)Depriciation 10.00.000 10. 455 (-) Dep. of 6 years 10,00,000 1:00.000 X6 -1.6.00.000 4.00,000. 1-4-9020 change in accounting Revised Depn. estimates 1.110 4,00.000 eyrs () Dep<sup>n</sup> 7<sup>th</sup> year = 2.00.000 = 2.00.000. 2.00.000 (-) Dep" 8th year \_ 2,00.000 NIL

\* Substance Overform: Consider reality over its legal form. DIn case of Hire Purchase, Initially it is Rental Eq. agreement and it will be treated as sale once all the installments are paid. But as per accounting it is treated as sale because ultimate intention of this agreement is to sale. - A - Whitest - William 2) IF advance taken for sale of bond (any fixed assets) on 15th March, 2019 but legal formalities will be completed on 20th April, 2019. In this case this is not sale as per law on 31st March but as per accounting this shall be treated as sale and land should not be shown on Asset side. EQUATION '- - -ACCOUNTING PadaceA Tudiday Balance Sheet liabilities Assets Capital 1-11.51 Inil

Parps NPS Data = Application of Source of Fund. Fund Internal External Asset Equity Equity Liabilities Capital 4 alla apital + liabilitier Assets = Capital = Assets - liabilities. (+) Incomes (-) Expenses Dual Aspect : - Monara RIATTALIAN liability 1 Assets 1 Direct Relation Liability & Assets ... and hidron Assets 1 Assets V Indirect Relation Liability 1 Liability 1 Leans

Contigent: Depends on happening or non-happening of future events. CONTIGENT IF result will be IF result will be outflow of benefit inflow of benefit. Contigent Liabilities Assets. - Disclose it in - No disclosure in Notes to Alc Notes to ALC ... A CHILDREN CHICKLER R. - Can be disclosed in - E.g: D. Bills Discounted Board of Directors 2) Suit (case) filed by Reports. Outsiders on - E.g .: -1 ...... organisation. as hand buchard D Suit filed by organisation on Tel a Lat Mil outsiders 1.00 115 town the standard

Provisions shall be recognised if all conditions are satisfied :-D Present Obligation 2) Expected outflow of Benefit a) Reliable estimation is available. . IF one or two conditions are not fulfilled then it is contigent liability. Eq. :- Provisions for Taxation. ACCOUNTING STANDARDS Acounting standards - Rules & Regulations issued or by ICAT AND HIS 01 Direchers o Self Generated Tssued by accounting Goodwill standard Board (ASB). [set up by ICAI] Never Recorded Impairment :- Asset Value होता. कम

18 5 18 \* Accounting Standards Prescribes rules for: D <u>Recognition</u> - पैचल कोल, अंवाजा लगाना की Transaction कीलसा है का अंदाजा लगाना 2) Measurment :- Amt. रि खाना @ Presentation / Disclosure !-· Advantages of Accounting Standards: D<u>Reduction in Variation:</u> e.g: A5-2 for Inventory allows FIFO method & Weighted Average Method. (LIFO and simple aug. method not allowed) 2) Improves Comparison: 3) AS demands additional information even which is not required by law. · Limitations of Accounting Standards: ) In case of disputes between law and AS then law will be applicable.

THE AL ) Variations are reduced but not completely eliminated. (3) No flexibility and involves rigidity. Haille Holdle ton a daman pring of 29 AS introduced from AS: 8 has been deleted as AS: 26 was available for rules of intagible asets.  $AS: 6 \rightarrow Depreciation \rightarrow deleted and merged$ with AS: 10 -> property, Plant & Equipment. Reduction in Variable auguation in hadism Sherough Statinhe & tra hadlara Annie han date and Tanpan (ampant is demande additional intermo wal und homission door about inde printing of anti-timi 1 Handad Balunia aldreadour and the

Page Re Ders 19 1 6 1 18 ACCOUNTING as MEASUREMENT DISCIPLINE: and analyrid : teo) inde Money Measurement :-Counting and and bringer -> All items which can be measured in terms of money shall be recorded. -> Items which can not be converted in berms of money shall be ignored. WDV/ Buck Link alloy raintin Measurement Scale:-Unit in which value is measured. example - Kilogram, litre, Meter. etc. · Suitability of Scale other scales are not suitable for comparison, only money is suitable for comparison. Limitations of money as Measurement scale:-D Money is volatile in nature 2) Money has no universal applicability F→India, \$ -> USA

a chief in Phage No. · Measurement Principles / Basis : A Historical Cost ! Purchase Price of Asset. Washington Lines Historical / Purchase Cost ₹50,000 m min mali 11 and links usmand (-) 25% Dep" - Tland ubich mount he converter 87.500 nL ad Unda Madum WDV/ Book Value/ Corrying Value. Menurement 20,000 Selling Price Realisable! Value 85.000 -> Current Cost: Midning . c.ther scales are and compacison, colu managu la suitable te dasiman Inamany 11 Manan to southertioni relation of alidable in nation silidestand instantion on and installing apti - t albeit

Latt Engr Mo. Bate 29 1 3 119 Accounting Process. 1) Identification @ Recording @ Summerising • Transaction @ Classification @ Analysing • Event . 9/03 @Interpretation < (2) Measurement 3 Communication or subsidiry house militarial rates initiation Identification: Imneaction : Exchange of penefit with outsiders. \* Event: Ultimate result of transaction. Example: Purchase -> 2.00.000 - Transaction (-) Goods sold -> 1.50.000 - Transaction 3 43436 50,000. - Event. Event is always shown on balance sheet. Measurement: In accounting we record the items which can be converted interms of money. \* IF it is not possible to convert then ignore it. 12

Paga Nb. Data \* Limitations of money as measurement scale: D Money has no universal applicability. e.g. In India it is I & America \$. 2) Money is volatile in nature + Comparison is possible only if money is used as measurement scale. Therefore, money is accepted as measurement scale · Recording + In journal or subsidiary books. \* In chronological order. Chacording to time date unise · Classification: \* Apolytical order is followed. \* Headinguise. Innor Alexander) . Summerising! p Trial balance 2) Tracting & P&L Alc/ Income & Exp. financial 3) Balance Sheet. / Asset & Liability. Statement 1) Cash flow Statement 5) NOtes of Alc. and a standard and an and a standard as Analysing Detail Study , Calculation of ratio. t a fer 1 1 1 1 1 7 7

Interpretation: Why? We will try to find out reason behind result of organisation Communication: Internal Users: top in houry of BOD, Monagers etc + External Users! Employee, govt., customers etc General Accepted Accounting Principles (GRAP's Conservatism Going Concern Periodicity. Materiality. Plenents of Accountion Materiality Ifem is treated as material if it has effects on decision making of user of accounting in formation. Example: Punching Machine, Stepler is asset by nature, but it is treated as expenses. because this items are not material. \* (Matching Principle)

Paga No. 2813/19. · Conservatism: Expect and record all future losses but don't expect and record future gains. E.F.Fects: ) Assets are shown at Actual Amount. a) Provisions are created. 3) Stock is valued at cost price or market price whichever is less. Going Concern: Assumes that the life of business is long lasting. Periodicity: To calculate the profit or loss after a period of time (everytime) the second of the second of the second Elements of Accounting. 1 sal il matri Income Expenses Liability Assets. 1. Marchige Marker 485 181 · Assets: d Shate Assets are the things which gives benefit in future. the shall de alter

Current Year | Next Year | Future. Benefit Received Benefit within Benefit receivable in next 1 year more than 1 year ( Pinn Expenses Current Asset Fixed Asset. logallog at ft · <u>Liability</u>: Benefit to be given in future Income Amount received in return of obligation completion of obligation (work) (Benefit given) · Expenses: Things which gives immediate benefit (Benefit Received) 2 As - & Toning "Accumulan Sharing FLAT - Today change bartered lacousta Trade off = Balancing Capital : Amount invested by owner 16

Page No. 1/4/2019 Deta Reserves Provisions. created dut of profits. Provision is charged (means it is created only against profit. if there is profit). Current Asset + 114 It is optional It is compulsory. Lagric ad at discuss in a il de . Generally there is no Created with specific specific purpose purpose completion of editerities and GAAP's -> General Accepted Accounting Principles AS -> Accounting Standards. IND AS -> Indian Accounting Standards. ICAI -> Indian Charterred VAccountant's Institute. GAAPS AS IND AS Indian accounting It is base for Standards. 17

Fright Mill father of Accounting: Luca Pacioli. (founder of double entry system) of Accounts Types Impersonal - Account. Personal Account Real Account Nominal Account. Incose of Account: Incomplete transaction. Personal - Dr - the giver receiver. - Cr. the receiver given Impersonal Account : Complete Transaction. Dr. what comes in (Which has existence) . Cr. what goes out. eq. Goodwill Account : Dr. all expenses and Nominal Account : I (which has existence for limited period of time). 106501 Cr. all incomes of gains e.g. Salary

Party Mary 'If transaction is incomplete or previous incomplete transaction is completed then there is personal account. Methods of Accounting Accrual Cash, Basis Actual Basis -Record expenses when - Record expenses when it is Incurred. it is paid. Record income when - Record Income when it is Received. it is Earned. Accrual basis :- Merchaptile system. = Record all current year expenses whether they are paid or not. March March - Also known as merchantile system - Income taxact and companies act recommends to follow accrual hasis.

Fage No. Deto 3 1 4 119 Matching Principle:-Record all incomes and expenses for only current year and don't record expenses & incomes of next or previous year. Examples Profit 1 1055 Income for Expenses for for 2019-20 2019-20 2019-20 Accountancy. Accounting Book Keeping. (Practical) (Learning Approach) Accountancy !! Contains rules, principles which explains how to do accountancy. Accounting: IE is the actual process. Book-Keeping: Journal & Ledger. 20

Data 314119 Prepaud Outstanding Acrue Advance Expenser Income Expenses. Income Accrual Accrual Matching Matching. DAdd in current @ Add incurrent @ Deduct from @ Deduct from yr. Income current yr. current yr. exp. income yr. expenses @ Liability side @ Asset side @ Asset side @ Liability side NOR BUSIN type of Accounts Real Nominal Personal Goodwill Explices Incomelgain - Natural - Personalak Patent (copyright Name & Surname land & building - Received - Artificial PersonAL -paid. Furniture -P&5. Companies, banks, vehicle schools, govt., hospit. - octroi - theft Computer als, firms Gold Investment-Electricity - Representative - Cash. -Salary personal Alc. Capital Alc, drawing Als Ols exp. Alc, accrued income Alc. 21

Det 3118 NON PROFIT ORGANISATION. Non-Profit Org. ) Profit Organisation - Income & Expenditure H. Profit & Loss Alc. (It is also based on period, lan an and P matching and accrual [ concept] Profit: Known as Surplus for NPO - LOSS ! Known as 'deficit' for NPO. Balance Sheet 2) Balance Sheet (Same Principle) Additionally Cash Book Receipt and Payment Alc-Difference between Income and Expenditure Alcon Receipt and Payment Alc. T&E ALC R&P ALC. - Acrual principle - Accrual की रेसी की हैंसी strictly followed Accrual not followed

Receipt and Payment Income & Expenditure -Only revenue expenditure - Receipt and Payment are recorded. (Copital exp. recorded irrespective of are shown as asset) whether it is capital or revenue item. Example: ) Salary Paid -> Dr. of IBE the Armed Manual Institut Both a Building → Balance sheet purchased (not in IGE) side Conly dep. on building is debited to I & E) 3) Sports moterial consumed -Payment for sports is recorded here on material is recorded here (irrespective of use) Dr. of I & E - It records income & Exp. - It records all receipt and of current oyear only. payment including Advance income and prepaid exp. -. Advance income and but outstanding exp. & prepaid exp. are acrued incomes are deducted deducted/ excluded excluded because there is no Receipt or Payment. सोन्गे :- Receipt रा Payment मीनो - Expenditure or हो शरा है शा तही Income इस साल का है शा लही 23

Pego Ma Dete 31, 8, 19 Common Adjustments: . ) <u>Subscription</u> (Income for NPO) Subscription Received XXX (Given in R&P ALC) - Subscription outstanding last year. Follow - Advance subscription XXX Reverse in current year for Receipt (belong to next year) +) 0/5 subscription XXX Subscription of current year (+'='-'&'-'='+) (+) Advance subscription XXX received in last year Subscription income chamon XXX of current year This format is applicable for expenses also, Fees or Admission fees:-Entrance 2) If nothing is specified then treated as revenue income (credit I & E Alc) a) Life Membership fees: Added in capital fund.

-----1919 W Donation Received: for specific Purpose for Gieneral purpose. for Example: It is recud Donation of IF Question for, building small amt or is silent to meet Show on tiability side revenue exp. Copital receipt irrespective of fund. (r. I & E Alc Added in capital fund. How HI COLUMNELS PUR 5) Legacies: Added to Capital fund 6) Special Fund: Show it on liability & income received by investing such asset also credited to special fund. Sale of Asset: D Profit on 1055 on sale transferred to Private Linkin Sugar 8) Sale of News paper. Cr. Income & Expenditure Alc A bate distilland and mother and COPIC DIANA 25

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0		and the second sec						
	9)	Material Consumed.	Paid to	creditors for				
·		(Dr. 10 I & E Alc)	sports	material.				
~		Opening Stock xxx	Credit	ors Alc				
		(+) Purchase XXX						
100	11mar	cash + credit	To Bunk / XX	x By Bal. bld xxx				
		(IF credit purchase	cash (BP)*	By purchase xxx				
		is missing then prep-	To Balance XX	KWN. given				
2.412	1581	find out BE	dd. (closing)	belowif				
		-> (losing stock (xxx)	had here	Intaiven				
	ni	Material consumed xxx	XXX	directly) xx				
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		The second second	How to cal	ulate Purchase				
		Contractor a there is	FIEL W COM	line rorende				
		have been been be	Matorial (N	seimed your				
		a) Closing Shady						
		CE CLUSING STOCK XXX						
	-	(XXX)						
		in the set of the set	IOEU Pura	nave <u>xxx</u>				
	1.1.1.1	s provide as a submit au	() (ash pur	chuse (xxx)				
			Credit P	urchase <u>xxx</u>				
		2 Contraction (1997)	<u>.43986</u>	t p sind the				
119119	10)	al hamatagnu aline a	r fit co têm	iii				
	(0)	It opening capital fund is not given / missing then-						
		Prepare opening Balance Sheet to find out opening						
		balance capital as Balancing figure.						
		10 million i de areas i to an						
		Depriciation may be given directly in amount or						
		porcentage. Otherwise we can all the it all						
		Pollous (Gome a malarial and alculate it as						
			nu consumer					
				26				

31 319 Opening XXX (+) Purchase / Addition XXX to assets (-) Sale (if any) c) Closing Balance xxx and i supply no tank Depriciation XXX hermon mon east errors Than ti in thing a minute 127 111 (fined in problems Cant ing him of their taking etra haviagen ann acaminna 10 mill 1 19 K 20 larg idnima and sing taxit was a stim to fans in berndisteils Hadiline) and plan with Same internet in harming an in th 4 main harding status and the and the state of the st 1911 MOGE -27

### **Financial statements of Not for Profit Organizations**

#### **Question No. 1**

#### RTP May 2018 & Mock Test April 2019 (20 MARKS)

Smith Library Society showed the following position on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2017: Balance Sheet as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2017

Liabilities	₹	Assets	₹
Capital fund	7,93,000	Electrical fittings	1,50,000
Expenses payable	7,000	Furniture	50,000
	Books		4,00,000
		Investment in securities	1,50,000
		Cash at bank	25,000
		Cash in hand	<u>25,000</u>
	8,00,000		8,00,000

The receipts and payment account for the year ended on 31st March, 2018 is given below:

	₹		₹
To Balance b/d		By Electric charges	7,200
Cash at bank 25,000		By Postage and stationary	5,000
Cash in hand <u>25,000</u>	50,000	By Telephone charges	5,000
To Entrance fee	30,000	By Books purchased	60,000
To Membership subscription	2,00,000	By Outstanding expenses paid	7,000
To Sale proceeds of old papers	1,500	By Rent	88,000
To Hire of lecture hall	20,000	By Investment in securities	40,000
To Interest on securities.	8,000	By Salaries	66,000
		By Balance c/d	
		Cash at bank	20,000
		Cash in hand	<u>11,300</u>
	3,09,500		3,09,500

You are required to prepare income and expenditure account for the year ended 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 and a balance sheet as at 31<sup>s</sup>, March, 2018 after making the following adjustments:

Membership subscription included ₹ 10,000 received in advance. Provide for outstanding rent ₹ 4,000 and salaries ₹ 3,000.

Books to be depreciated @ 10% including additions. Electrical fittings and furniture are also to be depreciated at the same rate.

75% of the entrance fees is to be capitalized.

Interest on securities is to be calculated @ 5% p.a. including purchases made on 1.10.2017 for ₹ 40,000.

#### Answer

#### Smith Library Society Income and Expenditure Account for the year ended 31st March, 2018

Dr.					Cr.
Expenditure	₹	₹	Income		₹
To Electric charges To Postage and stationary		7,200 5,000	By Entrance fee (25% of ₹ 30,000)		7,500
To Telephone charges To Rent Add: Outstanding	88,000 <u>4,000</u>	5,000 92,000	By Membership subscription Less: Received in advance	2,00,000 <u>10,000</u>	1,90,000
To Salaries Add: Outstanding To Depreciation (W.N.1)	66,000 <u>3,000</u>	69,000	By Sale proceeds of old papers By Hire of lecture hall		1,500 20,000
Electrical fittings Furniture	15,000 5,000		By Interest on securities (W.N.2)	8,000	
Books	<u>46,000</u>	66,000	Add: Receivable By Deficit- excess of expenditure over income	<u>500</u>	8,500 16,700
		2,44,200			<u>2,44,200</u>

#### Balance Sheet of Smith Library Society as on 31st March, 2018

Liabilities	₹	₹	Asset	₹	₹
Capital fund	7,93,000		Electrical fittings	1,50,000	
Add: Entrance fees	22,500		Less: Depreciation	<u>(15,000)</u>	1,35,000
	8,15,500		Furniture	50,000	
Less: Excess of expenditure over income	<u>(16,700)</u>	7,98,800	Less: Depreciation	<u>(5,000)</u>	45,000
Outstanding expenses:			Books	4,60,000	
Rent	4,000		Less Depreciation	<u>(46,000)</u>	4,14,000
Salaries	<u>3,000</u>	7,000	Investment:		
Membership subscription in advance		10,000	Securities	1,90,000	
			Accrued interest	500	1,90,500
			Cash at bank		20,000
			Cash in hand		11,300
					0 1 5 000
		<u>0,15,800</u>			<u>8,15,800</u>

**RTP Nov. 2018** 

Working Notes:

#### 1. Depreciation

	₹
Electrical fittings 10% of ₹ 1,50,000	15,000
Furniture 10% of ₹ 50,000	5,000
Books 10% of ₹ 4,60,000	46,000

#### 2. Interest on Securities

	₹	₹
Interest @ 5% p.a. on ₹ 1,50,000 for full year	7,500	
Interest @ 5% p.a. on ₹ 40,000 for half year	<u>1,000</u>	8,500
Less: Received		( <u>8,000)</u>
Receivable		500

#### Question No. 2

The following information of M/s. TT Club are related for the year ended 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018:

(1)

Balances	As on 01-04-2017 (₹)	As on 31-3-2018 <b>(₹)</b>
Stock of Sports Material	75,000	1,12,500
Amount due for Sports Material	67,500	97,500
Subscription due	11,250	16,500
Subscription received in advance	9,000	5,250

(2) Subscription received during the year ₹ 3,75,000

(3) Payments for Sports Material during the year ₹ 2,25,000

You are required to:

(A) Calculate the amount of Subscription and Sports Material that will appear in Income & Expenditure Account for the year ended 31.03.2018 and

(B) Also show how these items would appear in the Balance Sheet as on 31.03.2018.

#### Answer

#### Subscription for the year ended 31.3.2018

		₹
Subscription received during the year		3,75,000
Less: Subscription receivable on 1.4.2017	11,250	
Less: Subscription received in advance on 31.3.2018	<u>5,250</u>	<u>(16,500)</u>
		3,58,500
Add: Subscription receivable on 31.3.2018	16,500	
Add: Subscription received in advance on 1.4.2017	<u>9,000</u>	<u>25,500</u>
Amount of Subscription appearing in Income & Expenditure Account		<u>3,84,000</u>

#### Sports material consumed during the year end 31.3.2018

	₹
Payment for Sports material	2,25,000
Less: Amounts due for sports material on 1.4.2017	<u>(67,500)</u>
	1,57,500
Add: Amounts due for sports material on 31.3.2018	<u>97,500</u>
Purchase of sports material	<u>2,55,000</u>
Sports material consumed:	
Stock of sports material on 1.4.2017	75,000
Add: Purchase of sports material during the year	<u>2,55,000</u>
	3,30,000
Less: Stock of sports material on 31.3.2018	<u>(1,12,500)</u>
Amount of Sports Material appearing in Income &	
Expenditure Account	2,17,500

#### Balance Sheet of M/s TT Club For the year ended 31st March, 2018 (An extract)

Liabilities	₹	Assets	₹
Unearned Subscription	5,250	Subscription receivable	16,500
Amount due for sports material	97,500	Stock of sports material	1,12,500

#### **Question No. 3**

#### **RTP May 2019**

The Receipts and Payments account of Trustwell Club prepared on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 is as follows:

#### **Receipts and Payments Account**

Receipts		Amount ₹	Payments	Amount ₹
To Balance b/d		450	By Expenses (including	6,300
			For sports material $\langle 2,700 \rangle$	
To Annual Income from Payment	4,590			
Subscription				
Add: Outstanding of last year	<u>180</u>		By Loss on Sale of	180
received this year			Furniture (cost price ₹ 450)	
	4,770		By Balance c/d	90,450
Less: Prepaid of last year	<u>90</u>	4,680		
To Other fees		1,800		
To Donation for Building		<u>90,000</u>		
		<u>96,930</u>		<u>96,930</u>

Additional information:

 Trustwell club had balances as on 1.4.2017 : -Furniture ₹ 1,800; Investment at 5% ₹ 27,000; Sports material ₹ 6,660;

2. Balance as on 31.3.2018 : Subscription Receivable ₹ 270; Subscription received in advance ₹ 90; Stock of sports material ₹ 1,800.
Do you agree with above Receipts and Payments account? If not, prepare correct Receipts and Payments account and Income and Expenditure account for the year ended 31st March, 2018 and Balance Sheet on that date.

#### Answer

#### Corrected Receipts and Payments Account of Trustwell Club for the year ended 31st March, 2018

Receipts	₹	Amount ₹	Payments	Amount ₹
To Balance b/d To Subscription Appual Income	4 590	450	By Expenses (₹ 6,300 - ₹2,700) By Sports Material	3,600 2,700
Less: Receivable as on 31.3.2018 Add: Advance received for the year 2018- 2019	270 90		By Balance c/d (Cash in Hand and at Bank)	90,720
Add: Receivable as on 31.3.2017	180	4 5 0 0		
Other Fees To Donation for Building	90	4,500 1,800 90,000		
To Sale of Furniture		<u>270</u> 97,020		97,020

#### Income and Expenditure Account of Trustwell club for the year ended 31st March, 2018

Expenditure		Amount	Income	Amount
		₹		₹
To Sundry Expenses		3,600	By Subscription	4,590
To Sports Material			By Other fees	1,800
Balance as on 1.4.2017	6,660		By Interest on investment	1,350
Add: Purchases	2,700		(5% on ₹ 27,000)	
Less: Balance as on 31.3.2018	<u>1,800</u>	7,560	By Deficit: Excess of Expenditure	
To Loss on sale of Furniture		180	over Income	3,600
		11,340		11,340

#### Balance Sheet of Trustwell club as on 31st March, 2018

Liabilities		Amount (₹)	Assets		Amount (₹)
Capital Fund Less: Excess of	36,000		Furniture Less: Sold	1,800 <u>450</u>	1,350
Expenditure over Income	<u>3,600</u>	32,400	5% Investment		27,000
Building Fund		90,000	Interest Accrued on Investment		1,350
Subscription Received in Advance		90	Sports Material Subscription Receivable		1,800 270
		 1,22,490	Cash in Hand and at Bank		<u>90,720</u> <b>1,22,490</b>

#### Working Note: Balance Sheet of Trustwell Club as on 1st April, 2017

Liabilities	Amount	Assets	Amount
	₹		₹
Subscription		Furniture	1,800
Received in Advance	90	Investment	27,000
Capital Fund	36,000	Sports Material	6,660
(Balancing Figure)		Subscription Receivable	180
		Cash in Hand and at Bank	450
	36,090		36,090
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Data 23, 8, 19 · Outstanding Expenses 1: Add in respective exp. Expenses Alc - Dr. 2: Show on liability side To ols exp. Alc (liability) Accrued Income / Outstanding Income: 1: Add in Income . Acrued Income Alc - Dr 2: Show on asset side To Income Alcas tournall walt -· Depreciation (P&L ALC) 1: Dr. in P&L Alc. Depreciation Alc -Dr. 2: Deduct from asset To Asset Alc Bad-debts & Provision for doubtful debts. (Conservatism) ( will read with the Provision Created The in and P. & L. ALC Bad debts XXX P&I ALC - Dr 4) New/ further To provision for doubtful debts Alc had bad debts whit xxx (+) New RDD XXX Bad-debts or further bad and old RDD debts provision for doubtful debts ALC \_\_ Dr. to P&LALC XXX To Debtors ALC 38

Peus Ma Deta Balance Sheet IF answer is negative then cr. this amount Debtors XXX to P&L, Alc. - New bad debts XXX O NEW RDD XXX Debtors 11.000.01 Debtors XXX IA STIMA - New Bad debts XXX SA COMMIN - New Discount XXX YXX Provision for and the start XXX Bad - debts 19 239 11 adlations XXX () Provision for discount XXX XXX Abnormal loss loss due to fire (Goods): (Assume loss- 10L) Loss by fire Alc - Dr 10.00000 -To purchase Alc 10.00.000 Insurance Company Accepted claim of \$ 8.00,000 Insurance Company Alc - Dr. 8.00.000 -P&I. ALC Dr. 2.00.000 -To loss by fire ALC - 10.00.000

P 10 14 14 1 ANTIN-- Income Tax Paid: Missing Sole Proprietors Company 1 firm Tax paid is treated Tax paid is treated as as drawing Business expenses. Drawing Alc - Dr PEL AC Income Tax Alc - Dr. To Bank Alc To Bank Alc. 1.11 1.12 Manual ----mille mailer from Proteince Engel Addres Sheet (Same Pline) 1 contractions have and the data set and Theirs autorestated and any with manustade managed 10 topping to the Silver Lines 1111111 1 1 1 1 1

# **Final accounts**

#### Question No. 1 (Final Account & Rectification of Errors )

#### RTP May 2018, RTP Nov. 2019

	₹		₹
Plant and Machinery	19,550	Bad debts recovered	450
Furniture and Fittings	10,250	Salaries	22,550
Bank Overdraft	80,000	Salaries payable	2,450
Capital Account	65,000	Prepaid rent	300
Drawings	8,000	Rent	4,300
Purchases	1,60,000	Carriage inward	1,125
Opening Stock	32,250	Carriage outward	1,350
Wages	12,165	Sales	2,15,300
Provision for doubtful debts	3,200	Advertisement Expenses	3,350
Provision for Discount on		Printing and Stationery	1,250
debtors	1,375	Cash in hand	1,450
Sundry Debtors	1,20,000	Cash at bank	3,125
Sundry Creditors	47,500	Office Expenses	10,160
Bad debts	1,100	Interest paid on loan	3,000

The following are the balances as at 31st March, 2017 extracted from the books of Mr. XYZ.

Additional Information:

- 1. Purchases include sales return of ₹2,575 and sales include purchases return of ₹1,725.
- 2. Goods withdrawn by Mr. XYZ for own consumption ₹3,500 included in purchases.
- 3. Wages paid in the month of April for installation of plant and machinery amounting to ₹450 were included in wages account.
- 4. Free samples distributed for publicity costing ₹825.
- 5. Create a provision for doubtful debts @ 5% and provision for discount on debtors @ 2.5%.
- 6. Depreciation is to be provided on plant and machinery @ 15% p.a. and on furniture and fittings @ 10% p.a.
- 7. Bank overdraft is secured against hypothecation of stock. Bank overdraft outstanding as on 31.3.2017 has been considered as 80% of real value of stock (deducting 20% as margin) and after adjusting the marginal value 80% of the same has been allowed to draw as an overdraft.

Prepare a Trading and Profit and Loss Account for the year ended 31st March, 2017, and a Balance Sheet as on that date. Also show the rectification entries.

### Answer

#### **Rectification Entries**

	Particulars	Dr. Amount ₹	Cr. Amount ₹
(i)	Returns inward accountDr. Sales accountDr. To Purchases account To Returns outward account (Being sales return and purchases return wrongly included in purchases and sales respectively, now rectified)	2,575 1,725	2,575 1,725
(ii)	Drawings accountDr. To Purchases account (Being goods withdrawn for own consumption included in purchases, now rectified)	3,500	3,500
(iii)	Plant and machinery accountDr. To Wages account (Being wages paid for installation of plant and machinery wrongly debited to wages, now rectified)	450	450
(iv)	Advertisement expenses accountDr. To Purchases account (Being free samples distributed for publicity out of purchases, now rectified)	825	825

## Trading and Profit and Loss Account of Mr. XYZ for the year ended 31st March, 2017

Dr.	Amount	Amount	Cr.	Amount	Amount
	₹	₹		₹	₹
To Opening stock		32,250	By Sales	2,13,575	
To Purchases	1,53,100		Less: Sales return	<u>2,575</u>	2,11,000
Less: Purchases return	1,725	1,51,375	By Closing stock		
To Carriage inward		1,125	= 80,000 x 100/80 x 100/80		1,25,000
To Wages		11,715			
To Gross profit c/d		1,39,535			
		3,36,000			3,36,000
To Salaries		22,550	By Gross profit b/d		1,39,535
To Rent		4,300	By Bad Debts recovered		450
To Advertisement expenses		4,175			
To Printing and stationery		1,250			
To Bad debts		1,100			
To Carriage outward		1,350			
To Provision for doubtful					

debts 5% of ₹1,20,000	6,000			
Less: Existing provision	<u>3,200</u>	2,800		
To Provision for discount on debtors 2.5% of ₹1,14,000	2,850			
Less: Existing provision	<u>1,375</u>	1,475		
To Depreciation:				
Plant and machinery	3,000			
Furniture and fittings	<u>1,025</u>	4,025		
To Office expenses		10,160		
To Interest on loan		3,000		
To Net profit (Transferred to		<u>83,800</u>		
capital account)				
		<u>1,39,985</u>		1,39,98

#### Balance Sheet of Mr. XYZ as on 31st March, 2017

	Amount	Amount		Amount	Amount
Liabilities	₹	₹	Assets	₹	₹
Capital account Add: Net profit Less: Drawings Bank overdraft Sundry creditors Payable salaries	65,000 <u>83,800</u> 1,48,800 <u>11,500</u>	1,37,300 80,000 47,500 2,450	Plant and machinery Less: Depreciation Furniture and fittings Less: Depreciation Closing stock Sundry debtors Less: Provision for doubtful debts Provision for bad debts Prepaid rent Cash in hand	20,000 <u>3,000</u> 10,250 <u>1,025</u> 1,20,000 <u>6,000</u> <u>2,850</u>	17,000 9,225 1,25,000 1,11,150 300 1,450 2,125
			Cash at Dank		<u>3,125</u>
		2,67,250			2,67,250

## Question No. 2

**RTP Nov. 2018** 

The following is the trial balance of Hari as at 31st December, 2017:

	Dr.	Cr.
	₹	₹
Hari's capital account	-	76,690
Stock 1 <sup>st</sup> January, 2017	46,800	-
Sales	-	3,89,600
Returns inward	8,600	-
Purchases	3,21,700	-
Returns outward	-	5,800
Carriage inwards	19,600	-
Rent & taxes	4,700	-
Salaries & wages	9,300	-
Sundry debtors	24,000	-

## By CMA, CS Rohan Nimbalkar

#### TeachMe Academy 🕓 (88887 88889)

Sundry creditors	-	14,800
Bank loan @ 14% p.a.	-	20,000
Bank interest	1,100	-
Printing and stationary expenses	14,400	-
Bank balance	8,000	-
Discount earned	-	4,440
Furniture & fittings	5,000	-
Discount allowed	1,800	-
General expenses	11,450	-
Insurance	1,300	-
Postage & telegram expenses	2,330	-
Cash balance	380	-
Travelling expenses	870	-
Drawings	<u>30,000</u>	
	<u>5,11,330</u>	<u>5,11,330</u>

The following adjustments are to be made:

(1) Included amongst the debtors is ₹3,000 due from Ram and included among the creditors ₹1,000 due to him.

(2) Provision for bad and doubtful debts be created at 5% and for discount @ 2% on sundry debtors.

- (3) Depreciation on furniture & fittings @ 10% shall be written off.
- (4) Personal purchases of Hari amounting to ₹600 had been recorded in the purchases day book.
- (5) Interest on bank loan shall be provided for the whole year.
- (6) A quarter of the amount of printing and stationary expenses is to be carried forward to the next year.
- (7) Credit purchase invoice amounting to ₹400 had been omitted from the books.

(8) Stock on 31.12.2017 was ₹78,600.

Prepare (i) Trading & profit and loss account for the year ended 31.12.2017 and (ii) Balance sheet as on 31<sup>st</sup> December, 2017.

## Answer

Trading and Profit and Loss Account of Mr. Hari for the year ended 31st December, 2017

	₹	₹		₹	₹
To Opening stock		46,800	By Sales	3,89,600	
To Purchases	3,21,700		Less: Returns	(8,600)	3,81,000
Add: Omitted invoice	<u>400</u>		By Closing stock		78,600
	3,22,100				
Less: Returns	<u>(5,800)</u>				
	3,16,300				
Less: Drawings	<u>(600)</u>	3,15,700			
To Carriage		19,600			
To Gross profit c/d		77,500			
		<u>4,59,600</u>			<u>4,59,600</u>
To Rent and taxes		4,700	By Gross profit b/d		77,500
To Salaries and wages		9,300	By Discount		4,440
To Bank interest	1,100				
Add: Due	<u>1,700</u>	2,800			
To Printing and Stationary	14,400				
Less: Prepaid (1/4)	<u>3,600</u>	10,800			
To Discount allowed		1,800			
To General expenses		11,450			
To Insurance		1,300			

To Postage & telegram expenses	2,330		
To Travelling expenses	870		
To Provision for bad debts	1,150		
[W.N.(ii)]			
To Provision for discount on	437		
debtors [W.N.(iii)]			
To Depreciation on furniture &	500		
fittings			
To Net profit	<u>34,503</u>		
	81,940		81,940

Liabilities	₹	₹	Assets	₹	₹
Capital	76,690		Furniture & fittings	5,000	
Add: Net profit	<u>34,503</u>		Less: Depreciation	500	4,500
	1,11,193		Sundry debtors (W.N.1)	23,000	
Less: Drawings:			Less: Provision for bad & doubtful		
			debts (W.N.2)	<u>1,150</u>	
Cash 30,000				21,850	
Goods <u>600</u>	30,600	80,593	Less: Provision for discount (W.N.2)	<u>437</u>	21,413
Bank loan		20,000	Stock		78,600
Bank interest due		1,700	Prepaid expenses:		
Sundry creditors (W.N.3)		14,200	Printing & stationary		3,600
			Bank balance		8,000
			Cash balance		380
		<u>1,16,493</u>			<u>1,16,493</u>

#### Balance Sheet of Hari as at 31st December, 2017

Working Notes:

## (1) Sundry debtors

Balance as per trial balance	24,000
Less: Due to Ram	<u>1,000</u>
	<u>23,000</u>

## (2) Provision for bad & doubtful debts:

@ 5% on ₹23,000	<u>1,150</u>
-----------------	--------------

Provision for discount:

2% on ₹21,850 (23,000 -1,150)	437

(3) Sundry creditors

Balance as per trial balance	14,800
Less: Set off in respect of Ram	<u>1,000</u>
	13,800
Add: Purchase invoice omitted	400
	<u>14,200</u>

Page No. Data 151519 BANK RECONCILIATION STATEMENT: Deposit 10,000 B A In the books of bank. Businessman - Bank Alc - Dr 10,000 . . Cash Alc - Dr 10,000 To cash Alc 10,000 To customer/ Alc 10,000. Withdrawal 5.000 Cash Alc - Dr 5.000 Customer/Alc - Dr 5.000 To Bank Alc 5.000. To cash ALC 5.000. Profile Cash Book Pass Book Dr. Cr Dr. 6 Bank Bank Bank Bank 11 Deposit Withdra-Withdraw Deposit. w

Rule 1: Dr. Balance as \_ Cr. Balance as \_ Bank Balance/ cash Book per pass book favourable Bal. a. Longia dan dari patian Rules: mind infinition and Cr. Balance as \_ Dr. Balance as \_ Overdraft / Unfavou per Cash Book per Pass Book rable/ Negative Bal. च नो जी आज साफ साफ कहता हूँ, इतनी सी तात है Dr. side of cash Book = Deposit (Bank Column). 1 Reasons of Difference in Cash Book & Pass Book. Mistakes/Errors Timing Difference Fraud IMING DIFFERENCE! • It is not a mistake . Transaction recorded in cash Book and in Pass Book at different dates

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Date 161 5 1 19 @ Cheque issued / drawn but not presented: Pass Book Cash Book First Later (when cheque presented) 1 Carling cr. Dr. (+)(-) Old (-) (+)champeration of botomaily dia 3 Interest charged by Bank OR Direct Payment by bank. Cash Book Paus Book abien 20 Later (when p. is updated) First Dr-side Cr. Side (-)(+) Od (+)(-) 49

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Fage Mr. @ after 2 months -Collection 111 Dishonoured Bank O sell-credit @ Discounting Buyer 9900 Seller Q. B.O.E. 3 months 6 8 Deduct 3 Signed BOE 10:000 from A'S ALC 15119 + Started with Bal. & Answer is positive = Balance + Started with Bal. & Answer is negative = Overdraft + Started with Old & Answer is positive = Overdroft + Started with old & Answer is negative = Balance. -: 210 Ladiasan - - 14 41. A.1 1 0 1 1 1 1 4 101 111 Sugar A. SAMM 51

**Problem No. 1** : From the following entries in the Bank column of the Cash book of Saimurali and the corresponding pass book, prepare the bank reconciliation statement as on 30th September, 1983.

Sept.	₹	Sept.	₹
1 To Ramprasad	1,500	1 By Balance b/d	2,500
12 To Vasantha Krishna	1,700	8 By Ramchandra	2,000
18 To Devidas	2,500	10 By Sainath	1,000
20 To KrishnaMurari	1,500	15 By Drawings	500
29 To Kailas Nath & Co.	1,000	20 By Salary	1,500
30 To Balance c/d	1,100	28 By Ghanshyam	1,800
	9,300		9,300

#### Saimurali In Account With Sivam Bank

Sept.	₹	Sept.	₹
1 To Balance b/d	2,500	2 By Ramprasad	1,500
9 To Ramchandra	2,000	14 By Vasantha Krishna	1,700
11 To Sainath	1,000	19 By Devidas	2,500
15 To Drawings	500	25 By Sale of Security	1,500
20 To Salary	1,500	28 By Bills collected	300
25 To subscription to club	100	30 By Balance c/d	300
26 To LIC premium	50		
30 To Interest on o/d	150		
	7,800		7,800
Oct.			
1. To Balance b/d	300		

#### **Question No. 2**

**Problem No.2**: The following is the summary of a cash book as presented to you for the month of December, 1977 :

Receipts	1,469	Balance brought forward	761
Balance, carried forward	554	Payments	1,262
	2,023		2,023

All receipts are banked and payments are made by cheque. On investigation you discover :

1. Bank charges of ₹ 136 entered in the bank statement had not been entered in cash book.

2. Cheques drawn amounting to  $\gtrless$  267 had not been presented to the bank for payment.

- 3. Cheques received totalling ₹ 762 had been entered in the cash book and paid into the bank, but had not been credited by the bank until January, 1978.
- 4. A cheque for  $\gtrless$  22 had been entered as a receipt in the cash book instead of as a payment.
- 5. A cheque for ₹ 25 had been debited by the bank erroneously.
- 6. A cheque received for ₹ 80 had been returned by the bank and marked "No funds available". No adjustment had been made in the cash book.
- 7. All dividends receivable are credited directly to the bank account. During December amounts totalling ₹ 62 were credited by the bank and no entries made in the cash book.
- 8. A cheque drawn for  $\gtrless$  6 had been incorrectly entered in the cash book as  $\gtrless$  66.
- 9. The balance brought forward should have been 3711.
- 10. The bank statement as on 31st December 1977, showed an overdraft of ₹ 1,162.

#### You are required to:

- a) Show the adjustments required in the cash book, and
- b) prepare a bank reconciliation statements as on 31st December, 1977.

State with reasons whether the following statements are 'True' or 'False'.

- (1) Overhaul expenses of second-hand machinery purchased are Revenue Expenditure.
- (2) Money spent to reduce working expenses is Revenue Expenditure.
- (3) Legal fees to acquire property is Capital Expenditure.
- (4) Amount spent as lawyer's fee to defend a suit claiming that the firm's factory site belonged to the plaintiff's land is Capital Expenditure.
- (5) Amount spent for replacement of worn out part of machine is Capital Expenditure.
- (6) Expense incurred on the repairs and white washing for the first time on purchase of an old building are Revenue Expenses.
- (7) Expenses in connection with obtaining a license for running the cinema is Capital Expenditure.
- (8) Amount spent for the construction of temporary huts, which were necessary for construction of the Cinema House and were demolished when the cinema house was ready, is Capital Expenditure.

#### **Question No. 2**

State with reasons whether the following are Capital or Revenue Expenditure:

- (1) Expenses incurred in connection with obtaining a license for starting the factory for ₹ 10,000.
- (2) ₹ 1,000 paid for removal of Inventory to a new site.
- (3) Rings and Pistons of an engine were changed at a cost of ₹ 5,000 to get fuel efficiency.
- (4) Money paid to Mahanagar Telephone Nigam Ltd. (MTNL) ₹ 8,000 for installing telephone in the office.
- (5) A factory shed was constructed at a cost of ₹ 1,00,000. A sum of ₹ 5,000 had been incurred in the construction of temporary huts for storing building material.

#### **Question No. 3**

Good Pictures Ltd., constructs a cinema house and incurs the following expenditure during the first year ending 31st March, 2016.

- Second-hand furniture worth ₹ 9,000 was purchased; repainting of the furniture costs ₹ 1,000.
  The furniture was installed by own workmen, wages for this being ₹ 200.
- Expenses in connection with obtaining a license for running the cinema worth ₹ 20,000.
  During the course of the year the cinema company was fined ₹ 1,000, for contravening rules.
  Renewal fee ₹ 2,000 for next year also paid.
- (iii) Fire insurance, ₹ 1,000 was paid on 1st October, 2015 for one year.
- (iv) Temporary huts were constructed costing ₹ 1,200. They were necessary for the construction of the cinema.

They were demolished when the cinema was ready.

Point out how you would classify the above items.

#### **Question No. 4**

State with reasons, how you would classify the following items of expenditure:

- 1. Overhauling expenses of ₹ 25,000 for the engine of a motor car to get better fuel efficiency.
- 2. Inauguration expenses of ₹ 25 lacs incurred on the opening of a new manufacturing unit in an existing business.
- 3. Compensation of ₹ 2.5 crores paid to workers, who opted for voluntary retirement.

Classify the following expenditures and receipts as capital or revenue:

- (i) ₹ 10,000 spent as travelling expenses of the directors on trips abroad for purchase of capital assets.
- (ii) Amount received from Trade receivables during the year.
- (iii) Amount spent on demolition of building to construct a bigger building on the same site.
- (iv) Insurance claim received on account of a machinery damaged by fire.

#### **Question No. 6**

Are the following expenditures capital in nature?

- (i) M/s ABC & Co. run a restaurant. They renovate some of the old cabins. Because of this renovation some space was made free and number of cabins was increased from 10 to 13. The total expenditure was ₹ 20,000.
- (ii) M/s New Delhi Financing Co. sold certain goods on installment payment basis. Five customers did not pay installments. To recover such outstanding installments, the firm spent ₹ 10,000 on account of legal expenses.
- M/s Ballav & Co. of Delhi purchased a machinery from M/s Shah & Co. of Ahmedabad. M/s Ballav&
  Co. spent ₹ 40,000 for transportation of such machinery. The year ending is 31st Dec, 2015.

Page Mr. Earn 8 1 4 119 TRANSACTIONS, ) Mr. Y started business with cash 7.10,00,000. 2) Purchased machinery for 75.00.000, 3) Purchased computer on credit for 7 30,000 from A and company. W Paid salary worth 76.000. MA deal. -> Entries: . ind with the Cash Alc -> Dr 10.00,000 0 To capital Alc. 10.00.000. 43 W marsh Machinery Alc -> Dr 5,00,000 2) To Cash Alc. 5,00,000 Computer Alc -> Dr 30,000 3) TO A & CO. ALC. 30,000. A Lampin A Salary Alc -> Dr 6.000 4 to cash Alc. 6,000 ALC. Cash Dr. Cr. To Capital Alc. 10.00000 By Machinery Alc. 5.00,000 By Salary 6.000 Bal. dd 4,94,000 QÙ 10,00.000 10:00,000 To Bal. bld. 4,94,000 56

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To Bal. bld.	30,000.	VIA HUSIAN	4
Dr.	& com	pany Alc.	
to Bal-bld.	30,000.	By computer	30.0
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- De	T T	x . the holiday T	
-lo (ash Alc	6.000.	By Bal. dd.	6.0
To Bal. bld.	6,000.		_
	121.11		

Trial Balance. Particulars. Dr. Bulance (r. Balance Cash 4,04,000 Capital Alc. 10.00,000 Machinery Alc. 5,00,000 Computer 30,000 A & Company 30,000. Salary 0 6.000 Total. 10,30,000 10.30,000. MAN LANSIT amentaria da arrente IF Dr. Amount = Cr. Amount then trial balance - No effect on suspense Alc. will agree/ tally. IF Dr. Amount + cr. Amount. then trial balance Difference will go to suspense Alc. won't tally on shorter side - चिग्रे कमी तीये आस्टी! Suspense Alc 8 Suspense आडे 58

Page Ma Deta 9 14 119 · Note: - Suspense account may have Dr. or Cr. - balance. If suspense account has Dr. Balance then it is to be shown on asset side and if superse account has <u>Cr. Balance</u> then it is to be shown on liability side 1.1 VPE5 F ERRORS. 111111 of principles Error Ciberical errors Errorof Error of Compensal A Second Second Accountant is not awa- ommission commission exports re about few accounting rules therefore he will give effect to wrong ALC. But trial balance will tally Beccause Dr. Amt = cr. Amt Example: Wages paid for installation of machinery tification: neryak I 1000 is debited to Looo, wages, Alc. Correct: Machinery Alc -> Dr 1000 To cash Alc. 1000 Wages Alc -> Dr 1000 wrong: 59 To Cash Alc. 1000

Dans 9 14 19 Expenditure Capital Expenditure. Revenue Expenditure - Recurring - Non recurring Regular Not regular Benefit will receive Benefit will receive next few years same year. Asset ready to use. Before AFter Capital Revenue. Eception : All expenses incurred befo-IF expenses incurred for expansion, increasing capacire use of asset. ty/performance/reducing opera-Added in value of ting cost then it is capital exp. asset. Added in P&L ALC Benefit received for Benefit received in currentyr. more than 1 yr O Purchase cost e.g. administrative & selling Deading, unloading expense, repairs, maintainance. @ Transportation, Insurance ( Side preparation R @ Installation charges / wages 60 @ Trial Run.

Data 10 , 4 , 19 Receipt. Capital Receipt Revenue Receipt. -Non Recurring Recurring. Generally it is received Generally it is received from activity which is on regular basis in regular not regular business activity. course of business. O Loan taken @ Gale of goods. @ Commission received @ Issue of shares / Debentures 3 Sale of asset. 3 Rent received. @ Compensation Received (a) Interest received. from Gout. for aquisition of Asset Treated as income of credited to Trading either treated Reduction & P&L account. as liability in asset Autor 1.1.1 ant Chinas 1 . 11 61

Clerical Errors (जल्यवाजी की जालतीया Error of Compensating commission Errors Ommission a) Partial Ommission: - Wrong Alc-V Effect of one - wrong Amount-x mistake is - wrong side - x compensated by one effect given - Wrong Totalling-x other mistake. pending - Wrong Balance-x No effect on Trial Balance. Trial balance won't tally Bal Totalling Trial Balance of Alc is ommitted. will Tally. b) Complete Ommission! Transaction not recorded / posted completely Trial Balance will Tally 62

Farme hie Clerical Errors (जल्दबाजी में जलतीया Error Error of Compensating Errors Ommission commission Trial Balance (T.B) Effect of one a) Partial Ommission: - Wrong - Wrong Amount-x mistake is compensated by - wrong side -x One effect given - Wrong Totalling-x other mistake. and another is - Wrong Balance pending No effect on Trial Balance. Trial balance won't tally Bal Totalling of Alc is ommitted Trial Balance Tally uill b) Complete Ommission! Transaction not recorded / posted completely Trial Balance uill Talle 63

Paga Mo. RRORS \* Having No effect Having effect on on Trial Balance Trial Balance and and Euspense Alc. Suspense Alc. DError of principles. a) Partial Omission: 2) Complete ommission DDr. or Cr. not posted Transaction not recorded or not posted completely 2) One Alc is not totalled. 3) Wrong Alc, Wrong ant. 3) One Alc is not balanced. on both sides (In error of omission) b) Error of Comission 4) Compensating errors. i) wrong side 2) Wrong Amount 3) Wrong totalling 4) Wrong balancing . latel. Real Alc Nominal Alc Personal Alc. closed Balanced Balanced

Page He. Data 111 4119. Transactions: ) Amount 7 10.000 paid to Mr.A is credited to Mr. B. Amount paid to Mr.X. I 500 is credited to Mr.Y 3) Amount paid to Mr. P is debited to Mr. Q 7 300. D. Furniture: purchased by furniture. Dealer is debited to furniture ALC = 15,000 5) Rent paid 7 5,000 is not recorded. 6) ubges paid 7 1000 is not debited to wages Alc. Correct Entry wrong Actual Rectification Entry. entry D Mr. A AL -> Dr 10,000 Suspense AL -> Dr. 2000 Mr. A'S AL -> Dr 10,000 To Cash ALC 10000 To cash ALC 10,000 Mr. B'S ALC -> Dr 10,000 To B'S ALC 20.000. To Supense ALC. 20,000 2) Mr.X Alc -Dr 500 Suspense Alc -Dr 5500 Mr.X'S AK -Dr 500 To cash Alc. 500. To Cash Alc 500. Mr. Y'S Alc -> Dr 5000 TO Y'S ALC 5000 TO Superse ALC 5,500. BMr.PALC → Dr 3.000 Mr.Q'SALC → Dr 300. Mr.P'SALC → Dr 3.000. TO Cash ALC 3,000 Suspense ALC -> Dr 2,700 TO 0'S ALC 300 To Cash Alc 3,000. To Suspense Alc 2,700 W Purchase Alc→ Dr 15000 Furniture Alc-Dr 15,000 Purchase Alc-Dr 15,000 To cash Alc. 15,000 To Cash Alc 15,000 To Furniture Alc 15,000 65

Page He Deta Correct Entry. Rectification Entry. 5) Wrong/Actual Entry 3 Rent Alc - Dr 5000 Rent Alc -> Dr 500 No Entry To cash Alc 5000 To Cash ALC 5000 6) Wages Alc-Dr 1000 Supense Alc-Dr Wages Alc-Dr 1000 To Suspense Alc 1000 To cash ALC 1000 1000 To Cash Alc 1000. 1. 5. - . 4.3. . . . . 1.3 5. 16 31 - 1 T.C. 2.8-1 137 1 .7. - 10 1.15 1 . 1 1 66

## **Rectification of errors**

#### **Question No. 1**

## RTP May 2018, RTP Nov. 2019

The following errors were committed by the Accountant of Geete Dye-Chem.

- 1. Credit sale of ₹ 400 to Trivedi & Co. was posted to the credit of their account.
- 2. Purchase of ₹ 420 from Mantri & Co. passed through Sales Day Book as ₹ 240 .

How would you rectify the errors assuming that :

- a) They were detected before preparation of Trial Balance.
- b) They were detected after preparation of Trial Balance but before preparing Final Accounts, the difference was taken to Suspense A/c.
- c) They were detected after preparing Final Accounts.

## Answer

(i) This is one sided error. Trivedi & Co. account is credited instead of debit. Amount posted to the wrong side and therefore while rectifying the account, double the amount (₹ 800) will be taken.

Before TrialBalance	After Trial Balance	After Final Accounts
No Entry	Trivedi & Co. A/c Dr. 800	Trivedi & Co. A/c Dr. 800
Debit Trivedi A/c with ₹ 800	To Suspense A/c 800	To Suspense A/c 800

(ii) Purchase of ₹ 420 is wrongly recorded through sales day book as ₹ 240.

Correct Entry		Entry Made Wrongly		
Purchase A/cDr.	420	Mantri & CoDr.	240	
To Mantri & Co.	420	To Sales	240	

Before Trial Balance	After Trial Ba	lance	After Final Accounts	
Sales A/cDr. 240	Sales A/c	Dr. 240	Profit & Loss Adj. A/c	Dr. 660
Purchase A/cDr. 420	Purchase A/c.	Dr. 420	To Mantri & Co.	660
To Mantri & Co. 66	0 To Mantri &	co. 660		

**RTP May 2019** 

M/s Suman & Co. find the following errors in their books of account before preparation of Trial Balance. You are required to pass necessary journal entries:

- I. A purchase of ₹ 5,600 from M/s Minu & Co. was recorded in the accounts of M/s Mintu & Co. as ₹ 6,500. Day Book entry has also been passed incorrectly.
- II. A sale of ₹ 9,800 to M/s Bantu Bros. was recorded in M/s Bindu & Co.'s account as ₹ 8,900. Day Book entry has also been incorrectly passed.
- III. Discount allowed ₹ 560 (as per Cash Book) has been posted to Commission Account. But the Cash Book total should be ₹ 650, because discount allowed of of ₹ 90 to M/s Bantu Bros. has been omitted.
- IV. A cheque of ₹ 9,700 drawn by M/s Bantu Bros. has been dishonoured, but wrongly debited to M/s Bhakt & Co.

Should the Trial Balance tally without rectification of errors?

#### Answer

Journal Proper of Suman & Co.

**Rectification Entries** 

	Particulars	Dr.	Cr.
		Amount	Amount
		₹	₹
(i)	M/s Mintu & Co. A/c	6,500	
	To M/s Minu & Co. A/c		5,600
	To Purchases A/c		900
	(Rectification of purchase entry for ₹ 5,600 datedas ₹ 6,500 in M/s Mintu & Co.'s Account in place of M/s Minu & Co. A/c).		
(ii)	M/s Bantu Bros. A/c	9,800	
	To Sales A/c		900
	To M/s Bindu & Co. A/c		8,900
	(Rectification of sale entry for ₹ 9,800 dated as ₹ 8,900 in M/s Bindu & Co.'s Account in place of M/s Bantu Bros. A/c).		
(iii)	Discount Allowed A/c	650	
	To Commission A/c		560
	To M/s Bantu Bros. A/c		90
	(Rectification of wrong posting of discount in commission account and omission of discount transaction dated).		
(iv)	M/s Bantu Bros. A/c	9,700	
	T o Bhakt & Co. A/c		9,700
	(Wrong posting for the dishonoured cheque dated is being rectified).		

Since all the errors are two-sided in nature, Trial Balance would have tallied even if the rectifications are not done.

Give journal entries (narrations not required) to rectify the following:

- 1. Purchase of Furniture on credit from Nigam for ₹ 3,000 posted to Subham account as ₹ 300.
- 2. A Sales Return of ₹ 5,000 to Jyothy was not entered in the financial accounts though it was duly taken in the stock book.
- 3. Investments were sold for ₹ 75,000 at a profit of ₹ 15,000 and passed through Sales account.
- 4. An amount of ₹ 10,000 withdrawn by the proprietor (Darshan) for his personal use has been debited to Trade Expenses account.

#### Answer

## Journal Entries

	Particulars	L.F.	Dr.	Cr.
			(₹)	(₹)
(i)	Subham A/c	Dr.	300	
	Furniture A/c	Dr.	2,700	
	To Nigam A/c			3,000
(ii)	Sales Returns A/c	Dr.	5,000	
	To Jyothy A/c			5,000
(iii)	Sales A/c	Dr.	75,000	
	To P & L A/c (Gain on sale of investments)			15,000
	To Investments A/c			60,000
(iv)	Drawings A/c	Dr.	10,000	
	To Trade Expenses A/c			10,000

#### **Question No. 4**

#### Nov. 2018 (10 Marks)

The following mistakes were located in the books of a concern after its books were closed and a Suspense Account was opened in order to get the Trial Balance agreed:

- I. Sales Day Book was overcast by ₹ 1,000.
- II. A sale of ₹ 5,000 to X was wrongly debited to the Account of Y.
- III. General expenses ₹ 180 was posted in the General Ledger as ₹ 810.
- IV. A Bill Receivable for ₹ 1,550 was passed through Bills Payable Book. The Bill was given by P.
- V. Legal Expenses ₹ 1,190 paid to Mrs. Neetu was debited to her personal account.
- VI. Cash received from Ram was debited to Shyam ₹ 1,500.
- VII. While carrying forward the total of one page of the Purchases Book to the next, the amount of ₹ 1,235 was written as ₹ 1,325.

Find out the nature and amount of the Suspense Account and Pass entries (including narration) for the rectification of the above errors in the subsequent year's books.
# Answer

(i)	P & L Adjustment A/c	Dr.	1,000	
	To Suspense A/c			1,000
	(Correction of error by which sales account was overcast last year)			
(ii)	X	Dr.	5,000	
	То Ү			5,000
	(Correction of error by which sale of ₹ 5,000 to X was wrongly debited to Y's account)			
(iii)	Suspense A/c	Dr.	630	
	To P & L Adjustment A/c			630
	(Correct of error by which general expenses of ₹ 180 was wrongly posted as ₹ 810)			
(iv)	Bills Receivable A/c Bills Payable A/c	Dr.	1,550	
	То Р	Dr.	1,550	
	(Correction of error by which bill receivable of ₹ 1,550 was			3,100
	wrongly passed through BP book)			
(v)	P&L AdjustmentA/c	Dr.	1,190	
	To Mrs.Neetu			1,190
	(Correction of error by which legal expenses paid to Mrs. Neetu was wrongly debited to her personal account)			
(vi)	Suspense A/c	Dr.	3,000	
	To Ram			1,500
	To Shyam			1,500
	(Removal of wrong debit to Shyam and giving credit to Ram from			
	whom cash was received)			
(vii)	Suspense A/c	Dr.	90	
	To P&L Adjustment A/c			90
	(Correction of error by which Purchase A/c was excess debited by ₹90/-, ie: ₹1,325 – ₹1,235)			

# Suspense A/c

	₹		₹
To P & L Adjustment A/c	630	By P & L Adjustment A/c	1,000
To Ram To Shyam	1,500 1,500	By Difference in Trial Balance (Balancing figure)	2,720
To P&L Adjustment A/c	90		
	3,720		3,720

CONSIGNMENT -01 108 19 Consignment : Dispatch (Goods) Price (IP) = cost Price (CP) + Loading nvoice a with proforma Similar to Invoice invoice but Goods Sen not invoice Consigner Settelement Consignee Amt. (with Account sale) AFLer Consignor will interval prepare consignment Customer settle ment Alc to find out profit Total sale Proceeds SIG TVP XXX (-) Commission XXX (-) Expenses incurred XXX ((mmissi)) by consignee on behalf of consignor (-) Advance (F. Ary) XXX 111 211.10 Settlement Amt. XXX Account Sale: Details of all transactions given by consignee. Separate consignment Alc for each consignee Profit or loss from consignor Alc shall be transferred to P&L Alc. 21 11 71

Prope Alts 1 2 1 NST GAN ISN > Adjusted in full. Normal -Advance Advance as Adjusted in proportion to sale. an security Fend Gloods. 218/19 Consignor 1 AT Consignee fer it's Principal Agent Owner Possession ail I da Risk No Risk Same D Profit Commission 1111 ost Price Invoice Price 6 Prantila. 100% 50% (1) nitorioni 50% (1 33.33%. 33:33%(1) 25% 1/1 25% 113 120% 1 20% (1) 16.67% (1)

Stock Reserve is loading included in closing stock. 2,8,19 COMMISSION Special Ordinarc Over riding Delcredere Payable to each Commission Commission consignee on Gross sale Given in Consignor may two cases: transfer risk of 1) for sale of bad-debts to new product consignee and 100 @ for selling he will pay goods at extra commission higher price for sale, such than normal commission is Stranilaa known as Del price credere commission. n vanierit. Smin Calculation IF Del credere Génerally method is commission given Raponsibility given otherwithen it it loss !! of consignor se gross sale responsibility of consignee Consignment Alc in debited. Comm will Dr. to comm earned ALC Colculated on Giross Sale. 73

Freque His · Valuation of Closing Stock! 0 0 Consignor's Exp:-Non-recurri- Pune Railway Station Mumbai Consigneets Ento Taxes, loading, Insurance, Rent Sincer and consignor consigned Godown consigneds Exp. (4) recurring Customer Valuation of cost of Proportionate Non Pro-N.R + Recurring exp. Closing Stock = goods + exp. of of consignor in Godown man selar consignee 1 le A raha M 1.0111 Valuation of dosing stock lost in godown! 10 Banding Goods lost Cost of in Pro. N.R. enp. of Transit Man goods consignor. Abnormal loss is always calculated ion cost price and not at invoice price. 74

Para Ma 055 Abnormal loss Normal loss ाती सिर्फ अपने आश हुआ जो सबके अख होता है 👘 Which is avoidable which is unavoidable Which is not separated It is always separated from cost from cost TE will increase cost It will not increase price per unit costprice per unit. (As loss is separated from cost) al ista in malitad 18/8/19 @ Groods Sent on Consignment at invoice price or cost price. Consignment Alc --- Dr To Good sent of on consignment Alc. D loading on good sent ( Only if good are sent at invoice price). Goods sent on consignment Alc -- Dr To Consignment Alc. 75

Date 1818119 3. Expenses by consignor. Consignment Alc -Dr To Bank Alc. @ Expenses by consignee, Consignment Alc -Dr To Consignee Alc. 6 Sale by consignee Consignment ee Alcu-Dr To consignment Alc. © Commission of consignee. Consignment Alc - Dr To consignee Alc. Settlement amount paid by consignee to consignor: (F) Bank Alc - Dr To consignee Alc. (a) Entry for consignment stock (closing Stock). Consignment stock Alc - Dr To consignment Alc. @ Entry for abnormal loss. Abnormal loss Alc - Dr To configment Alc. This abnormal logs will be transferred to P&L pla

# Consignment

# **Multiple choice Questions**

1. Ram of Kolkata sends out goods costing 1,00,000 to Y of Mumbai at 20% profit on invoice price. 1/10''' of the goods were lost in transit. 1/2 of the balance goods were sold. The amount of stock reserve On consignment stock will be:

(a) 4,500 (b) 9,000 (c) 11,250 (d) None

2. On 1st July Krishnan of Chennai consigned 100 bales of cotton to Dheeraj of Hyderabad (Cost price 7,500) at a proforma invoice price of 25% profit On sales. Consignment accounted would be credited for loading by\_

(a) 2,000 (b) 1,500 (c) 2,500 (d) 3,300

3. X of Kolkata sends out 500 bags to Y costing 400 each at an invoice price or 500 each. Consignor's A/c expenses 4,000 consignee's expenses, non-selling 1,000, selling 2,000. 400 bags were sold. The Stock Reserve will be -(a) 10,000 (b) Nil (c) 20,000 (d) 20,400

4. Rabin consigned goods for the value of 8,250 to Raj of Kanpur paid freight etc. of 650 and insurance 400. Drew a bill of Raj at 3 months after date for 3,000 as an advance against consignment, and discounted the bill for 2960. Received Account sales from Raj showing that part of the goods had realized gross 8,350 and that his expenses and commission amounted to 870. The stock unsold was valued at 2,750. Consignee wants to remit a draft for the amount due. The amount of draft will be:

(a) 2130 (b) 4480 (c) 5130 (d) 5090

5. X of Kolkata sends out goods costing 1,00,000 to Y of Delhi. 3/5th of the goods were sold by<br/>consignee for 70,000, commission 2% on sales plus 20% of gross sales less all commission<br/>exceeds cost price. The amount of commission will be:<br/>(a) 2833 (b) 2900 (c) 3000 (d) 2800

6. A of Mumbai sold goods to b of Delhi, the goods are to be sold at 125% of cost which is invoice price. Commission 10% on sales at IP and 25% of any surplus realized above IP. 10% of the goods sent out on consignment, invoice value of which is 12,500 were destroyed. 75% of the total consignment is sold by B at 1,00,000. What will be the amount of commission payable to B? (a) 10,937.50 (b) 10,000 (c) 9,000 (d) 9,700

7. X of Kolkata sends out goods costing 3,00,000 to Y of Delhi. Commission agreement 2% on sales + 3% on sales as del-credere commission. The entire goods is sold by consignee for 4 lacs. However, consignee is able to recover 3,95,000 from the debtors. The amount of profit to be transferred to P/L as net commission by consignee will be: (a) 15,000 (b) 22,000 (c) 21,000 (d) 20,000

8. B sold 50 televisions at 15,000 per television. He was entitled to commission of 500 per television sold plus one fourth of the amount by which the gross sale proceeds less total commission there on exceeded a sum calculated at the rate of 12,500 per television sold. Amount of commission will be -

(a) 45,000 (b) 50,000 (c) 40,000 (d) 35,000

9. 1000 kg of apples are consigned to a wholesaler, the cost being 3 per kg plus Rs.400 of freight, it is known that a loss of 15% is unavoidable. The cost per kg will be:
(a) 5 (b) 4 (c) 3.40 (d) 3

10. X of Kolkata sends out 2000 boxes to Y of Delhi costing 100 each. Consignor's expenses 5000.1/10th of the boxes were lost in consignee's godown and treated as normal Loss 1200 boxes weresold by consignee. The value of consignment stock will be(a) 68333(b) 61500(c) 60000(d) 60250

11. Mahendra of Madras sent goods to Jaya of Delhi at an invoice price of 29,675. He paid freight762; cartage 231 and insurance 700. On the way one-fourth of the goods was lost by fire and claimof 5,000 was recovered from the insurance company. calculate abnormal loss(a) 5,000(b) 7,842(c) 2,419(d) 2,842

**12.X sends out 1000 bag to Y costing 200 each. Consignor's expenses 4000, V's expenses non-selling 4000, selling 5000, 100 bags were lost in transit. Value of loss in transit will be:**(a) 20,400(b) 20,800(c) 20,000(d) 21,300

13. 200 cases @ 150 case were sent on consignment. 180 cases @ 250 per case were sold by consignee. Expenses incurred by consignor were: freight 1,500, Insurance 850, loading charges 250. Expenses incurred by consignee were: Unloading 200, Storage 200, selling expenses 100, Insurance 150. Find the value of unsold stock (a) 3,315 (b) 3,325 (c) 3,280 (d) 3,295

14. A of Ahmadabad consigned goods of 10,000 to M of Madras and paid Rs. 500 for expenses. The consignee paid 100 for freight and 50 godown rent. 80% of goods were sold and commission of 500 was paid. Find the value of closing stock

(a) 2,000 (b) 2,120 (c) 2,100 (d) 2,030

15. Goods sent out on consignment 2,00,000. Consignor's expenses 5,000. Consignee's expenses 2000. cash sales 1,00,000, credit sales 1,10,000. Consignment stock 40,000.. Ordinary commission payable to consignee 3,000. Del-credere commission 2,000. The amount irrecoverable from customer 2,000. What will be the profit on consignment?
(a) 38,000 (b) 40,000 (c) 36,000 (d) 43,000

16. Goods sent on consignment 7,60,000. Opening consignment stock 48,000. cash sales 7,00,000. Consignor's expenses 20,000. Consignee's expenses 12,000. Commission 20,000. Closing consignment stock 3,00,000. The profit on consignment is:
(a) 1,50,000 (b) 1,40,000 (c) 92,000 (d) None

# **Practical Questions**

#### **Question No. 1**

**RTP May 2018** 

Mr. A of Assam sent on 18th February, 2017 a consignment of 1,000 DVD players to B of Bengal costing  $\ge 100$  each. Expenses of  $\ge 1,500$  were met by the consignor. B spent  $\ge 3,000$  for clearance and selling expenses were  $\ge 20$  per DVD player.

B sold on 15th March, 2017, 600 DVD players @ ₹ 160 per DVD player and again on 20th May, 2017, 300 DVD players @ ₹ 170 each.

B is entitled to a commission of  $\gtrless$  25 per DVD player sold plus ¼ of the amount by which the gross sale proceeds less total commission thereon exceeded a sum calculated @  $\gtrless$  125 per DVD player sold. B sent the amount due to A on 30th June, 2017.

You are required to prepare the consignment account and B's account in the books of A.

# Answer

Dr		Amount	Cr		Amount
ען.		Amount	<b>U</b> .		Amount
		₹			₹
2017			2017		
Feb.	To Goods Sent on		March 15	By B's account	
18	Consignment account	1,00,000		(Sales) (600 x ₹ 160)	96,000
Feb.	To Cash/Bank account		May 20	By B's account (Sales)	
18	(Expenses)	1,500		(300 x ₹ 170)	51,000
Feb.	To B's account (Clearance		June 30		
18	charges)			By Consignment Stock	
		3,000		(Working note 2)	10,450
June	To B's account: Selling expenses				
30	(900 x ₹ 20)	18,000			
	Commission (Working note 1)				
		24,900			
June	To Profit and loss account				
30	(profit on consignment				
	transferred)	10,050			
		1,57,450			1,57,450

### In the books of A Consignment Account

#### **B's Account**

Dr.		Amount	Cr.		Amount
		₹			₹
2017			2017		
March	To Consignment		Feb	By Consignment account	
15	Account (Sales)	96,000	18	(Clearance charges)	3,000
May 20	To Consignment Account (Sales)	51,000	June 30 June	By Consignment account: Selling expenses Commission	18,000 24,900
			30	By Cash/Bank account	1,01,100
		1,47,000			1,47,000

#### Working Notes:

#### 1. Calculation of total commission: Let total commission be *x*

 $x = 900 \times ₹25 + \frac{1}{4} [(₹96,000 + ₹51,000) - x - (900 \times ₹125)]$ 

x = ₹ 22,500 + ¼ [₹ 1,47,000 - x - ₹ 1,12,500]

x = ₹ 22,500 + ¼ [₹ 34,500 - x]

4x + x = ₹ 90,000 + ₹ 34,500

- 5x = ₹ 1,24,500
- x = ₹ 24,900

#### 2. Valuation of consignment stock:

	10450
Proportionate expenses paid by B (₹3,000×100) /1,000	300
<i>Add</i> : Proportionate expenses of A (₹1,500×100)/ 1,000	150
100 DVD players @ ₹ 100 each	10,000

#### **Question No. 2**

**RTP Nov. 2018** 

On 1.1.2018, Mr. Jill of Mumbai consigned to Mr. Jack of Chennai goods for sale at invoice price. Mr. Jack is entitled to a commission of 5% on sales at invoice price and 20% of any surplus price realized over and above the invoice price. Goods costing ₹ 1,00,000 were consigned to Chennai at the invoice price of ₹ 1,50,000. The direct expenses of the consignor amounted to ₹ 10,000. On 31.3.2018, an account sales was received by Mr. Jill from Mr. Jack showing that he had effected sales of ₹ 1,20,000 in respect of 4/5th of the quantity of goods consigned to him. His actual expenses were ₹ 3,000. Mr. Jack accepted a bill drawn by Mr. Jill for ₹ 1,00,000 and remitted the balance due in cash.

You are required to prepare the consignment account and the account of Mr. Jack in the books of Mr. Jill.

#### Answer In the books of Mr. Jill Consignment Account

Date	Particulars	₹	Date	Particulars	₹
2018			2018		
Jan. 1	To Goods sent on	1,50,000	Jan. 1	By Goods sent on Consignment	50,000
	Consignment A/c			A/c (Loading)	
	(Invoice price)			₹ (1,50,000 – 1,00,000)	
Mar.31	To Bank A/c Consignor's	10,000	Mar.31	By Jack – Sales	1,20,000
	Expenses				
Mar.31	To Jack	3,000	Mar.31	By Stock on Consignment A/c	32,600
	– Expenses			1/5 x ₹	
				(1,50,000+10,000+3,000)	
	– Commission*	6,000			
	(0.05 x ₹ 1,20,000)				
Mar.31	To Stock Reserve	10,000			

A/c (₹ 50,000 x 1/5)			
To Profit on Consignment A/c (transferred to Profit and Loss A/c)	23,600		
	2,02,600		2,02,600

\*Invoice price of goods sold: = 4/5 of ₹ 1,50,000 = ₹ 1,20,000.

The goods were sold for ₹ 1,20,000 and hence there was no surplus price. Therefore, extra commission @ 20% will not be given to Mr. Jack.

# Jack's Account

Particulars	₹	Particulars	₹	₹
To Consignment A/c -		By Consignment A/c:		
Sales	1,20,000	Expenses	3,000	
		Commission	6,000	9,000
		By Bills Receivable A/c		1,00,000
		By Bank A/c (Balancing figure)		11,000
	1,20,000			1,20,000

1000 Ma 101 01 9 1 19 PARTNERSHIP. · As per partnership Act, following rules will apply to partners | firm of if unless agreed:-D Profit sharing ratio is equal 2) No right to receive interest on capital. 3) No right to receive remuneration / salary. a Partner can claim interest on advance / Joan given to partner at 6% p.a. Above rules may changed by agreement between partners Interest on capital is payable only if agreed. (Given in problem). Interest on capital shall be paid only in case of profit. In case of loss no partners are received interest on capital. But if there is insufficient profit then available profi shall be distributed in capital ratio. Interest on Capital XXX (for full year) - Interest on Additional Capital XXX (Calculate interest from the date of introduction of capital to year end) XXX

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Prefer	Methods of Partners Capital
	<u>Fixed Capital Method</u> <u>Fluctuating Capital Method</u> . <u>Prepare</u> : D Capital Alc <u>Prepare</u> : Capital Alc D) Current Alc
	-Interest is not payable on current Alc.
	istrong under and homenander
amat	When drawing is not when drawing is uniform uniform/regular or there and there is consistant
<u>Insi</u> g	date & amount of drawing pattern in date & amount.
	Separately on each drawing same ant. same ant same ant. from date of drawing at beginning at middle at end to you'year end. of month of month
	Calculate int. Calculate Calculate erest for interest interest 6.5 months for 6 months for 5.5
	on annual on annual months drawing drawing on annual drawing drawing on annual

8)	Prije Mg. Grato
•	Guarantee of Minimum Profit: (Refer Notes)
¶	GOODWILL:
9.51	Gaining partner shall pay amount of goodwill to sacrificing partner as an compensation. . Amount of goodwill shall be distributed in sacrificing ratio. . It nothing is specified about sacrificing ratio and new PSR then it may be assumed that old PSR of those partners is sascrificing ratio.
	) Partner Introduced 2) Partner is not 3) Stettlement Goodwill in: cash introduced goodwill outside firm
<u>enitau</u> (	Option 1' Goodwill shown in capital only. Then adjust it from No Entry Bank Alc — Dr his capital To New partners (apital Alc (Capital + goodwill) Same
	New partner capital Alc Dr (Graining) To Sacrificing partner Alc (Only goodwill ame in sacrificing return)
	Dotion 2: Bank Alc — Dr. Premium for Goodwill To New partner capital Alc — Alc — Dr. To Premium for Goodwill Alc To sacrificing partner cap. Alc 34

1279 163 W · Methods of Goodwill Valuation: DAverage Profit Method: Average Profit x No. of year of purchase. No contra maria 2) Super Profit Method: Super profit × No. of year of purchase Super profit = Average profit - Normal Profit and a manafilmer to Normal Profit = Capital Employeed x Normal Rate of Return. (N.R.R.) 3) Capitalization Method in mining line Goodwill = Normal Capital - Actual Capital Normal Capital = Average Profit Normal rate of return. Actual Capital = Assets - Liabilities In Revaluation AL WAnnuity Method : 1 had a more all GI Goodwill = Super Profit X Sum of discounting factors of of NO. of n Jareft AL years of purchase All ist in March 1 Viene HI without our 1+ris which it 85

Page No シ Average Profit future Adjustment Past Adjustment Always adjusted - Wrong Valuation of from average Inventory / Depreciation profit. in any year. Example: Abnormal loss/ Grain 1) It is proposed that every partner shall Reverse the above situation & in respective get salary Farom years of profit & find remune ration out correct profit for each yr. next year If profit If either 2) Interest on Capital is fluctuating continuous decrease in Now this is final ani profit OR Simple profit (Average) for continuous Average calculation of goodwill Method increase Then war in profit and Brd Weighted 10.000+30.000+10.000 Average And Average = 20,000 Method 2017 10.000 X1 10.000 1,40,000 2018 10,000×2 40.000 2019 30.000×3 90.000 23,333 ,40,000

· Admission of Partner: Steps: LITE CENTRE 1) Calculation of new PSR or Gaining / Sacrificing ratio. (If not given | if required) REAL ON THE THE a) Balance to reserves and Profit & Loss Plc before admission shall be credited to old partners in old PSR is specificat month saminage a Revaluation of assets and liabilities If profit on revoluation: Credit to dd partners in old PSR. If losses on revaluation : Debit to old partners in old PSR 4) Introduction of capital by new partner and Introduction of share of goodwill by new partner 5) Adjustment of Goodwill (In gaining sacrificing ratio) 6) Maintaining Proportionate Capital. (Only if specified in problem). W wetres and so 87

	(1-ge He. (1-fg 15, 9, 1.19	3]						
	· Revaluation of Assets and Liabilitier,							
	Revaluation Alc is prepared to find out profit ( loss on revaluation. (Nominal Alc)	or						
	Devoluction de	and the second						
	Dr.	x.						
31	should be an an in the second should be an an							
	Loss: Profit							
	- Increase in liability and - Decrease in liability	XX						
	- decrease in aset. ) xxx - Increase in assets	XXX						
elare	(Unrecorded liability) (Includes unrecorded							
	assets)							
	IF Profit IF LOSS+							
ho	(Credit old partner in xxx (Dr. old partners in old PSR)	XXX						
	ABOR ANTAR LITA ANTAR							
	and a stor lumanit	_						
	Increase in Asset:							
	Asset Alc - Dr. Inlight toutha							
	To Revaluation Alc.							
	1							
•	Decrease in Asset:							
	Revaluation Alc Dr.							
	To Asset Alc.							
	Increase in Ligbility:							
	Revaluation Alc -Dr.							
	10 Liability Alc.							

15, 9,19 . Decrease in Liability: Liability Alc - Dr. To Revaluation Alc. IF firm is Willing to Revaluate Asset without affecting values of Assets & Liabilities: In other word firm can follow process of revaluation without making changes in values of asets. INFER L 111.15 . Dr. Capital : Land 10.00.000 500000 5120 R 500.000 10000001 THE WORLD 1000.000 Land revalued at 25.00.000. New Partner introduced 500,000 as capital and his share will be 1/5th. No changes in value of asset to be made. Memo, Revaluation ALC Dr. man and the moment in the Cr. (-1 E YX To Profit 15,00,000 Land 1 15.00000 1500000 15.00000

Frigs His Dete New Partner (C) Capital Alc - Dr 3.00.000 To (Gaining) (15.00.000 x 1/5) 1.50.000 To A's Capital Alc 1,50,000 To B's Capital Alc New Balance Sheet intel INDOM Capital: A(51+1.5 L) 6.90.000 Land 10.00.000 Cash B(51+1.51 6.50.000 New Partner 5,00,000 C (51, - 8 L 9.00.000 · Indian 15.00,000 1500.000 HIDDEN GOODWILL: LAND New Partners & Reciprocal haulous hand Capital (Reverse) 115 about ad ad taxas have after at span to.000 new partner 14.000-\* -5++ and all the a marting (-) Actual capital of all partners = (XXX) - Goodwill - ----1 MARCHINE I XXX 90

15, 9, 19 RETIREMENT & DEATH! 1217.04 Steps 1:-) Adjustment of Goodwill. (Similar to admission) 2) Revoluction of Assets & liabilities (Similar to aning antana aning sories admission) 3) calculation of New PSR/Gaining or sacrificing ratio. (Similar to admission) 4) Distribution of Balance of Reienves: &: Surplus P&L Alc 5) Adjustment of Joint life Policy. @ Repayment of Capital of outgoing partner: IF not repaid then it is credited to outgoing partners loan Alc / Executors loan Alc (in case of retirement) ( (in case of death) T) Calculate profit sharing of current year taking the base of profit of last year. more listen innin in an inne adam addamar 91

FINCE MO Distribution of Balance of Reserves & Surplus Share Balance Share of only Balance of RES of Reserves & will be constant outgoing partner surplus between transferred to & remaind partner all partners. will pay outgoing outgoing partners capital Alc. opartner share in R&S out of IF R& 5 = 1.50,000 IF R & S = 1,50,000 their capital Alc. PSR = A : B : C & PSR = A : B : C And .... : 1 . 1 A's Cap. Alc - Dr 2500 1:1: milat B's Cap. Alc - Dr 1544 C will receive 50,000 A B C To C'S Cap. Alc 5000 50,000 50,000 50,000 m. In line No balance in Solance of Balance R&S ALC. R&S 1.00.000 R&S 1.50.000. to an anit a -Mana Addition LIFE PAICY - Ming OINT the survey with a JLP may be taken jointly or severally In case of Death In case of Rettrement Policy amount is Surrender value can receivable be claimed. 92

140.00 11 12 Jointly Severally A B C ...C. Policy 1 Policy 2 Policy 3 Jointy Policu Surrender Surrender IF Death Value Value Death of C Policy Amt. 1500 Policy Amount Profit on 3 policies shall be distributed to all Profit distributed to partners in PSR. all partners in PSR SHE WORKE SPERSE FOR Methods Business Expenditure Surrender Value Joint life Policy Method Method Reserve Method. 110 Premium paid is JLP is treated as (It is extension of 2nd Method) asset & shownat treated as Additionally JLP surrender value expenditure relerve is - 111 maintained. Payment made . 1 .1 ALC I VO TLP ALC -Dr All treatment same - Insu. Premi Alc-Dr as 2nd Method except To Bank To Bank Alc ×1110 we have to create JLPR P&LALC-Dr Not Applicable ALC From POPLALC to the To Insu. Prem Alc extent of surrender value Additionally entry is mudet P&L AIC - UT TO JUPR AIC 93

	the same of a second	and for an interaction of the	Finge Ma Darto 16 19 1	19
•	Surrender Value	Me-thoo	11 Jan Frank	-
	Example:	remium	Surrender Val	ue
	lst upor	20.000	0	
	and year	20.000	20.000	
in the action	3rd year	20,000	50,000	
	4th year	20,000	80,000	
- 363 A 1	5th year	20.000	1/20.000	
	Louis on a polition	ILP ALC	(Asset S.V)	
lst yr_	To Bank Alcining	20.000	end. By PQL Alch	20,000
		20.000		20,000
3rd year	To Bank Alc	20.000	<u>11</u>	a
	To Balance bld.	20000		
- migd	TO POLAIC (B.F)+	10.000	By Ball ddie anound	30,000
L hardis	<u>19 202199 hs</u>	50,000	(yod) a Pi	50000
2nd year	To Bank Alco halos	20,000	By Balancencidminn	20.000
(hereis)	1 bai de trapeda	20.000	n bative	20.000
- Gutt	month has mine -	abran	s	
4th year	To Bal bld	50,000		
1	To Bunk Alc	20,000		
	TO POLAL (B.F.)*	10,000	By Bal. clauser	80.000
here.	1 1 200 11 2 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 1	80,000	Tital Permi St Dr	80.000
	the state of the second se	10.11 J-	- in Man2 JL	
5thyear	To Bal bld	80.000	P. 01 10 - 10 - 10 -	
· <u>·</u> · <u>·</u> ··	To Bank Alc	20,000	TE Insu French	
er (* 1971	TO P & LAK (B.F.)*	20,000	By Bal. dd	1,20,000
1		1,20.000		1.20,000

m 16, 9, 19 Treatment in case of Retirement and Death: 1- shi ling Business Surrender JLPR ALC Expenditure Value and the later in a How to Identify How to lidentify How to Identify this method: ai hardin da sail Only JLP Alc is JLP Alc on asset NO JLP & JLPR on Asset side side + JLPR Alc Alc in Balance sheet. on liability side. Or problem specifies that premium changed to P&L Alc or aquinst revenue Retirement Whatever amt received firm will rereive 5.N. & .. no shall be credited to profit & no effect Same partners capital Alc to purtners in old PSR + capital Alc (Previously amt. paid Balance of JLPR is treated as expense Brink Alc -Dr credited to all In full : receipt is TO JLP ALC partners capital treated as income) ALC IN OLD PSR. (IF Q. specifies that JLPR ALC-Dr amt. is less or higher then only Dr. or cr. To All partners Capital Alc Partners capital Alc)

Finge Ma Dete 16 1 9 119 In case of Death: (Policy amt. received) Synthe Bank Alc - Dr empenditure Same as Gualders same ay above above TO JUP ALC (SV) To all partner's cupital Alc (in old PSR) Same Li mani 1 - all diller Amt Received in excess of SV. \*\*\*\* 13 44 1.1-1 + ahis ahis deall 6.2 Withil no 111 har AINGO ins ment Girm will receive uis an 4. 11. (95) 11 15-1 ---him 1. the second 3/1-- 14 154 S. F. 1 17 00.07 1 11110 11 113 11 12 96

# **Partnership Accounts**

# MCQ'S

1. A and B are partner sharing profits and losses in the ratio 5:3. On admission, C brings ₹ 70,000 cash and ₹ 48,000 cash against Goodwill. New profit sharing ratio between A,B,C is 7:5:4. The sacrificing ratio among A and B is: **A.** 3:1 **B.** 4:7 **C.** 5:4 **D.** 2:1 2. A and B are partners sharing profits in the ratio 7:3. C is Admitted as new partner. 'A' surrenders 1/7 of his share and B's Surrenders 1/3<sup>rd</sup> of his share in favour of C. the new profit sharing ratio will be: **A.** 6:2:2 **B.** 4:1:1 **C.** 3:2:2 **D.** None. 3. A and B are partners sharing profits in the ratio 5:3, they admitted C giving him 3/10<sup>th</sup> share of profit. If C acquires 1/5th share from A and 1/10th from B, new profit sharing ratio will be: **A.** 5:6:3. **B.** 2:4:6. **C.** 18:24:38. **D.** 17:11:12 4. A, B and C are partners sharing profits in the ratio 2:2:1. On retirement of B, goodwill was valued as ₹ 30,000. Find the contribution of A and C to compensate B. **A.** ₹ 20,000 and ₹ 10,000. **B.** ₹ 8,000 and ₹ 4,000. C. They will not contribute anything. D. Information is insufficient for any comment. 5. A and B are partners in a firm sharing profits in the ratio of 3:2. They admit C as the new partner for 1/6th share in the profits. The firm goodwill was valued at ₹ 1,50,000/-. For adjustment of goodwill, C's account will be debited by **A.** ₹ 20,000. **B.** ₹ 15,000. **C.** ₹ 25,000. **D.** None of the three. 6. A firm has on average profit of ₹ 60,000. Rate of return on capital employed is 12.5% p.a. Total capital employed in the firm was  $\gtrless$  4,00,000. Goodwill on the basis of two years purchase of super profits is **A.** ₹ 20,000 **B.**₹15,000 **C.** ₹ 10,000 **D.** None of the above. 7. Find the goodwill of the firm using capitalization method from the following information: Total capital employed in the firm ₹ 80,00,000. Reasonable rate of return 15% Profits for the year ₹ 12,00,000 **A.**₹ 68.00.000. **B.**₹ 12.00.000. **C.** ₹ 11,88,000.D. Nil. 8. A firm earns profit of ₹ 1,10,000. The normal rate of return in a similar type of business is 10%. The value of total assets (excluding goodwill) and total outside liabilities are ₹ 11,00,000 and ₹ 1,00,000 respectively. The value of goodwill is **A.** ₹ 1,00,000 **B.** ₹ 10,00,000 **C.** Nil. **D.** None of the above. 9. X and Y are partners sharing profits and losses in the ratio 5:3. They admitted Z for 1/5<sup>th</sup> share of profits, for which he paid ₹ 1,20,000 against capital and ₹ 60,000 against the Goodwill. Find the capital balances for each partner taking Z's capital as base capital: **A.** ₹ 3,00,000, ₹ 1,20,000, and ₹ 1,20,000 **B.** ₹ 3,00,000, ₹ 1,20,000, and ₹ 1,80,000 **C.** ₹ 3,00,000, ₹ 1,80,000, and ₹ 1,20,000 **D.** ₹ 3,00,000, ₹ 1,80,000, and ₹ 1,80,000 10. A and B are partners of a firm sharing profits in the ratio of 3:2. C was admitted for 1/5<sup>th</sup> share of profit. Machinery would be appreciated by 10% (Block value ₹ 80,000) and Building would be depreciated by 20% (₹ 2,00,000). Unrecorded debtors of ₹ 1,250 would be bought to books and creditors of ₹ 2,750 died and needn't to pay anything. What will be the Profit /Loss on Revaluation? **B.** Loss ₹ 40,000 **A.** Loss ₹ 28,000 ₹ 28,000 **D.** Profit **C.** Profit ₹ 40,000

30,000 will b	e:		····, ····, ····	,	
A. Revaluation	n A/c	Dr.		30,000	
To Unrecorded Investment A/c					30,000
B. Unrecorde	d Investment A	/cDr.	30,000	)	
To rev	valuation A/c				30,000
<b>C.</b> Partner's C	apital A/c	Dr.		30,000	
To Un	recorded Inves	tment A/c		,	30.000
<b>D</b> . Unrecorde	d Investment A	/c Dr		30.000	
To Pa	rtners canital A	/c		50,000	30,000
1014	chers capitari	70			50,000
12 Mr Xisa	nartner in a fi	rm He withdr	aws ₹ 200 at th	e end of	feach month. If rate of interest is @ 5% n a
the interest	partner man	ini. ne withur	aws (200 at th	c chu oi	each month. If face of interest is @ 570 p.a.
$\Lambda \neq 65$	$\mathbf{R} \neq \mathbf{\zeta}\mathbf{\zeta}$	<b>C</b> ₹ 60	<b>D</b> ₹ 50		
A. 1 03	<b>D.</b> 1 35	<b>C. 1</b> 00	<b>D</b> . 1 30		
12 Dichijca	nartnor in a fi	rm Howithdr	ow the followin	annou	nts during the year and ad an 21st
15. NISIII IS d	partiler ill a ll 000	i iii. ne withui	ew the followin	g aniou	nts dui ing the year ended on 51st
December, 2	009.	<b>3</b> 12 000			
February 1		₹ 12,000			
April 30		₹ 6,000			
June 30		₹ 9,000			
August 31		₹ 12,000			
October 1		₹ 8,000			
December 31	L ₹7,0	00			
Interest on d	rawings @ 9%	<b>b p.a. will be</b>			
<b>A.</b> ₹ 2.295	B.₹ 2	2.000	<b>C.</b> ₹ 2.200		<b>D.</b> None of the above
,		-)			
14 The profi	t of the M/s Al	RC a nartnersk	in firm hefore	chargin	g managerial commission is ₹ 44 000 The
managerial	ommission is	charged @ 100	lip in in belore	r charai	ing such commission. The amount of
managerial		llargeu @ 10	<sup>70</sup> on pront arte	i tilaigi	ing such commission. The amount of
	COMMISSION WI	$\mathbf{D} \neq 10 000$	C = A	000	
<b>A.</b> ₹ 4,400		<b>B.</b> ₹ 40,000	<b>L.</b> ₹ 4,0	000	<b>D.</b> ₹ 39,600.
	-				
15. A, B, and	C are partners	s sharing profit	ts and losses in	the ration	o of $\frac{1}{2}$ , $\frac{3}{10}$ , and $\frac{1}{5}$ . B retires from the
firm, A and C	decided to sh	are the future	profits and loss	es in 3:2	2. Calculate gaining ratio:
<b>A.</b> 1:2	<b>B.</b> 3:2	<b>C.</b> 2:3	<b>D.</b> None		
16. A, B and (	C are partners	with profits sł	naring ratio 4:3	2. B ret	ires. If A & C shares profits of B in 5:3, then
find the new	profit sharing	ratio.	U		
<b>A</b> 47.25	<b>B</b> . 17 <sup>.</sup>	11	<b>C</b> . 31.11	$\mathbf{D}$ 14.2	21
11 17.20.	<b>D1</b> 77			<b>DI</b> 1 1.2	
17 A B and	C woro partno	re in a firm ch	oring profits on	م امددمد	in the ratio of 2.2.1 The canital halances
17. A, D, and C	C were partile	$\mp E 0.000 \text{ and}$	$\mp 25000$	u iusses	D declared to retire from the firm on 1st
01 A, D, allu C	alex 50,000,	1 50,000 allu	1 25,000 Tespe	cuvely.	
April, 2008. I	Balances on re	serves on the	date was $₹$ 15,0	000. If go	bodwill of the firm was valued as ₹ 30,000
and profit on	revaluation v	vas ₹ 7,050, th	en what amoun	t will be	e transferred to the loan account of B?
<b>A.</b> ₹ 70,820	<b>B.</b> ₹ 50,820	<b>C.</b> ₹ 25,820	<b>D.</b> ₹ 20,820		
18. X, Y, Z are	e partners sha	ring profits an	d losses equally	/. They t	took a joint life policy of ₹ 5,00,000 with a
surrender va	lue of ₹ 3,00,0	000. The firm t	reats the insura	ance pre	emium as an expenses Y retired and Z and
Z decided to	share profits a	and losses in 2	1. The amount	of Joint	Life Policy will be transferred as:
A. Credited to	X. Y and Z's ca	pital Accounts v	vith 1.00.000 eac	ch	
<b>B.</b> Credited to	X. Y and Z's car	pital Account w	ith 1.66.667 each	ı	
	,				

11. At the time of admission of new partner in a firm, the journal entry for an unrecorded investment of ₹

19. A, B and C takes a Joint Life Policy, after five years B retires from the firm. Old profit sharing ratio is 2:2:1. After retirement A and C decides to share profits equally. They had taken a Joint Life Policy of ₹

**C.** Credited to X, and Z capital accounts with ₹ 2,50,000 each **D.** Credited to Y's capital account with ₹ 3,00,000 each

2,50,000 with the surrender value ₹ 50,000. What will be the treatment in the partner's capital account on receiving the JLP amount if joint life policy premium is fully charged to revenue as and when paid?

**A.** ₹ 50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**B**. ₹ 2,50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**C.** ₹ 2,00,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**D.** No treatment is required.

20. A, B and C takes a Joint Life Policy, after five years, B retires from the firm. Old profit sharing ratio is 2:2:1. After retirement A and C decides to share profits equally. They had taken a Joint Life Policy of ₹ 2,50,000 with the surrender value ₹ 50,000. What will be the treatment in the partner's capital account on receiving the JLP amount if joint life policy is maintained at the surrender value?

**A.** ₹ 50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**B.** ₹ 2,50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**C.** ₹ 2,00,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**D.** No treatment is required.

21. A, B and C takes a Joint Life Policy, after five years B retires from the firm. Old profit sharing ratio is 2:2:1. After retirement A and C decides to share profits equally. They had taken a Joint Life Policy of ₹ 2,50,000 with the surrender value ₹ 50,000. What will be the treatment in the partner's capital account on receiving the JLP amount if joint life policy is maintained at surrender value along with the reserve?

**A.** ₹ 50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**B.** ₹ 2,50,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**C.** ₹ 2,00,000 credited to all the partners in old ratio.

**D.** Distribute JLP Reserve Account in old profit sharing ratio.

# **Practical Questions**

#### **Question No. 1**

**RTP May 2018** 

On 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2017, the Balance Sheet of P, Q and R sharing profits and losses in proportion to their Capital stood as below:

Liabilities	₹	Assets	₹
Capital Account:		Land and Building	30,000
Mr. P	20,000	Plant and Machinery	20,000
Mr. Q	30,000	Stock of goods	12,000
Mr. R	20,000	Sundry debtors	11,000
Sundry Creditors	10,000	Cash and Bank	7,000
		Balances	
	80,000		80,000

On 1<sup>st</sup> April, 2017, P desired to retire from the firm and remaining partners decided to carry on the business. It was agreed to revalue the assets and liabilities on that date on the following basis:

- (i) Land and Building be appreciated by 20%.
- (ii) Plant and Machinery be depreciated by 30%.
- (iii) Stock of goods to be valued at ₹10,000.
- (iv) Old credit balances of Sundry creditors, ₹2,000 to be written back.
- (v) Provisions for bad debts should be provided at 5%.
- (vi) Joint life policy of the partners surrendered and cash obtained ₹ 7,550.
- (vii) Goodwill of the entire firm is valued at ₹14,000 and P's share of the goodwill is adjusted in the A/cs of Q and R, who would share the future profits equally. No goodwill account being raised.
- (viii) The total capital of the firm is to be the same as before retirement. Individual capital is in their profit sharing ratio.
- (ix) Amount due to Mr. P is to be settled on the following basis: 50% on retirement and the balance 50% within one year.
- (x)

Prepare (a) Revaluation account, (b) The Capital accounts of the partners, (c) Cash account and (d) Balance Sheet of the new firm M/s Q & R as on 1.04.2017.

#### Answer

#### (a) Revaluation Account

Date	Particulars	₹	Date	Particulars	₹
2017	To Plant & Machinery	6,000	2017		
April	To Stock of goods	2,000	April	By Land and building	6,000
	To Provision for bad and	550		By Sundry creditors	2,000
	doubtful debts			By Cash & Bank -	
	To Capital accounts			Joint life Policy	7,550
	(profit on revaluation			surrendered	
	transferred)				
	Mr. P (2/7) 2,000				
	Mr. Q (3/7) 3,000				
	Mr. R (2/7) 2,000	7 000			
		<u>7,000</u> 15,550			
		12,220			12,220

#### (b) Partners' Capital Accounts

Dr. Cr.

# TeachMe Academy 😒 (88887 88889)

Particulars	Р	Q	R	Particulars	Р	Q	R
	(₹)	(₹)	(₹)		(₹)	(₹)	(₹)
To P's Capital A/c - goodwill	-	1,000	3,000	By Balance b/d	20,000	30,000	20,000
To Cash & bank A/c - (50% dues paid)	13,000	-	-	By Revaluation A/c	2,000	3,000	2,000
To P's Loan A/c -(50% transfer)	13,000	-	-	By Q & R's Capital A/cs	4,000	-	-
To Balance c/d	-	35,000	35,000	- goodwill			
				By Cash & bank A/c - amount brought in (Balancing figures)	-	3,000	16,000
	<u>26,000</u>	<u>36,000</u>	<u>38,000</u>		<u>26,000</u>	<u>36,000</u>	<u>38,000</u>

# (c) Cash and Bank Account

Particulars	₹	Particulars	₹
To Balance b/d	7,000	By P's Capital A/c - 50% dues paid	13,000
To Revaluation A/c - surrender value of	7 550	By Balance b/d	20,550
To Q's Capital A/c	3,000		
To R's Capital A/c	<u>16,000</u>		
	<u>33,550</u>		<u>33,550</u>

# (d) Balance Sheet of M/s Q & R as on 01.04.2017

Liabilities		₹	Assets		₹
Partners' Capital account			Land and Building	30,000	
Mr. Q	35,000		Add: Appreciation 20%	<u>6,000</u>	36,000
	25 000	70.000	Plant & Machinery	20,000	
Mr. R	<u>35,000</u>	/0,000	Less: Depreciation 30%	<u>6,000</u>	14,000
Mr. P's Loan account		13,000	Stock of goods	12,000	
Sundry Craditors		8 000	Less: revalued	<u>2,000</u>	10,000
Sundry Creditors		0,000	Sundry Debtors	11,000	
			Less: Provision for bad debts 5%	<u>550</u>	10,450
			Cash & Bank balances		<u>20,550</u>
		<u>91,000</u>			91,000

# Working Notes:

Adjustment for Goodwill:

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**Partnership Accounts** 

Goodwill of the firm =	<u>14,000</u>
Mr. P's Share (2/7) =	4,000
Gaining ratio of Q & R; $Q = \frac{16}{2} = \frac{3}{7} = \frac{1}{14}$	
$R = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{7} = \frac{3}{14}$	
Q:R = 1:3	
Therefore, Q will bear - ¼ X 4000 or ₹1,000 R will bear = ¾ X 4000 or ₹3,000	

#### **Question No. 2**

#### RTP Nov. 2018, Mock Test April 2019 (10 Marks)

Neha & Co. is a partnership firm with partners Mr. P, Mr. Q and Mr. R, sharing profits and losses in the ratio of 10:6:4. The balance sheet of the firm as at 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 is as under:

Liabilities		₹	Assets	₹
Capitals:			Land	10,000
Mr. P	80,000		Buildings	2,00,000
Mr. Q	20,000		Plant and machinery	1,30,000
Mr. R	30,000	1.30.000	Furniture	43,000
		_,_ ,_ ,_ ,	Investments	12,000
Reserves		20,000	Inventories	1,30,000
(un-appropriated profit)		20,000	Trade receivables	1,39,000
Long Term Debt		3.00.000		
Bank Overdraft		44.000		
Trade payables		1,70,000		
		6,64,000		6,64,000

It was mutually agreed that Mr. Q will retire from partnership and in his place Mr. T will be admitted as a partner with effect from 1<sup>st</sup> April, 2018. For this purpose, the following adjustments are to be made:

- a) Goodwill is to be valued at ₹1 lakh but the same will not appear as an asset in the books of the reconstituted firm.
- b) Buildings and plant and machinery are to be depreciated by 5% and 20% respectively. Investments are to be taken over by the retiring partner at ₹ 15,000. Provision of 20% is to be made on Trade receivables to cover doubtful debts.
- c) In the reconstituted firm, the total capital will be ₹ 2 lakhs which will be contributed by Mr. P, Mr. R and Mr. T in their new profit sharing ratio, which is 2:2:1.
  - i. The surplus funds, if any, will be used for repaying bank overdraft.
  - ii. The amount due to retiring partner shall be transferred to his loan account.

## **Required**:

Prepare

- (a) Revaluation account;
- (b) Partners' capital accounts;
- (c) Bank account; and
- (d) Balance sheet of the reconstituted firm as on 1st April, 2018.

# Answer

	₹			₹
To Buildings A/c	10,000	By Investments A/c		3,000
To Plant and Machinery A/c	26,000	By Loss to	o Partners:	
To Provision for Doubtful Debts	27,800	Р	30,400	
A/c		Q	18,240	
		R	<u>12,160</u>	60,800
	63,800			63,800

### **Revaluation Account**

## **Capital Accounts of Partners**

Particulars	Р	Q	R	Т	Particulars	Р	Q	R	Т
	₹	₹	₹	₹		₹	₹	₹	₹
To Revaluation	30,400	18,240	12,160	-	By Balance b/d	80,000	20,000	30,000	-
To Invt. A/c	-	15,000	-	-	By Reserves A/c	10,000	6,000	4,000	-
To Q's Loan A/c	-	22,760	-	-	By R and T's	10,000	30,000	-	-
To P and Q's Capital A/c			20,000	20,000	By Bank A/c (balancing figure)	10,400	-	78,160	60,000
To Balance c/d									
	<u>80,000</u>	-	<u>80,000</u>	<u>40,000</u>					
	1,10,400	56,000	1,12,160	60,000		1,10,400	56,000	1,12,160	60,000

# Bank Account

	₹		₹
To P's capital A/c	10,400	By Bank Overdraft A/c	44,000
To R's capital A/c	78,160	By Balance c/d	1,04,560
To T's capital A/c	60,000		
	1,48,560		1,48,560

# Balance Sheet of NEHA Co.as at $1^{\mbox{\scriptsize st}}$ April, 2018

Liabilities	₹	₹	Assets	₹	₹
Capital Accounts:			Land		10,000
Р	80,000		Buildings		1,90,000
Q	80,000		Plant and Machinery		1,04,000
R	40,000	2,00,000	Furniture		43,000
Long Term Debts		3,00,000	Inventories		1,30,000
Trade payables		1,70,000	Trade receivables		1,39,000

By CMA, CS Rohan Nimbalkar

# Question No. 3

Q's Loan Account

A and B are partners in a firm, sharing Profits and Losses in the ratio of 3 : 2. The Balance Sheet of A and B as on 1.1.2018 was as follow:

22.760

6,92,760

Less: Provision for

**Doubtful Debts** 

**Balance at Bank** 

Liabilities	Amount	Amount	Assets	Amount	Amount
	て	え		て	て
Sundry Creditors		12,900	Building		26,000
Bill Payable		4,100	Furniture		5,800
Bank Overdraft		9,000	Stock-in-Trade		21,400
Capital Account:			Debtors		35,000
А	44,000		Less: Provision	200	34,800
В	<u>36,000</u>	80,000	Investment		2,500
			Cash		<u>15,500</u>
		<u>1,06,000</u>			1,06,000

'C' was admitted to the firm on the above date on the following terms:

- (i) He is admitted for 1/6th share in future profits and to introduce a Capital of ₹ 25,000.
- (ii) The new profit sharing ratio of A, B and C will be 3 : 2 : 1 respectively.
- (iii) 'C' is unable to bring in cash for his share of goodwill, partners therefore, decide to raise goodwill account in the books of the firm. T hey further decide to calculate goodwill on the basis of 'C's share in the profits and the capital contribution made by him to the firm.
- (iv) Furniture is to be written down by ₹ 870 and Stock to be depreciated by 5%. A provision is required for Debtors @ 5% for Bad Debts. A provision would also be made for outstanding wages for ₹ 1,560. The value of Buildings having appreciated be brought upto ₹ 29,200. The value of investment is increased by ₹ 450.
- (v) It is found that the creditors included a sum of ₹ 1,400, which is not to be paid off.

# Prepare the following:

- (i) Revaluation Account.
- (ii) Partners' Capital Accounts.
- (iii) Balance Sheet of New Partnership firm after admission of 'C'.

# Answer

# (i) Revaluation Account

# 104

# Partnership Accounts

1,11,200

1,04,560

6,92,760

(27,800)

# RTP May 2019

	₹		₹
To Furniture	870	By Building	3,200
To Stock	1,070	By Sundry creditors	1,400
To Provision of doubtful debts (₹1,750 -1,550 ₹ 200)	1,550	By Investment	450
To Outstanding wages	<u>1,560</u>		
	<u>5,050</u>		<u>5,050</u>

#### (ii) Partners' Capital Accounts

	А	В	С		А	В	С
	₹	₹	₹		₹	₹	₹
To Balance c/d	71,000	54,000	25,000	By Balance b/d	44,000	36,000	-
				By Cash A/c	-	-	25,000
				By Goodwill A/c (Working Note)	27,000	18,000	
	71,000	54,000	25,000		71,000	54,000	25,000

### (iii) Balance Sheet of New Partnership Firm (after admission of C) as on 1.1.18

Liabilities	₹	Assets	₹
Capital Accounts: A 71,000 B 54,000 C <u>25,000</u> Bills Payable Bank Overdraft Sundry creditors (12,900-1,400) Outstanding wages	$1,50,0004,1009,00011,500\underline{1,560}1.76,160$	Goodwill Building (26,000 + 3,200) Furniture (5,800 - 870) Stock-in-trade (21,400 - 1,070) Debtors 35,000 Less: Provision for bad debts ( <u>1,750)</u> Investment (2,500 + 450) Cash (15,500 + 25,000)	45,000 29,200 4,930 20,330 33,250 2,950 <u>40,500</u> 1,76,160

#### Working Note:

#### Calculation of goodwill

C's contribution of ₹ 25,000 consists only 1/6th of capital. Therefore, total capital of firm should be ₹ 25,000 × 6 = ₹ 1,50,000. But combined capital of A, B and C amounts ₹ 44,000 + 36,000 + 25,000 = ₹ 1,05,000.

Thus Hidden goodwill is ₹ 45,000 (₹ 1,50,000 - ₹ 1,05,000).

## **Question No. 4**

May 2018 (10 Marks)

A, B and C are partners sharing profits in the ratio of 3:2:1. Their Balance Sheet as at 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 stood as:
Liabilities		₹	Assets		₹
Capital Accounts			Building		10,00,000
А	8,00,000		Furniture		2,40,000
В	4,20,000		Office equipments		2,80,000
С	<u>4,00,000</u>	16,20,000	Stock		2,50,000
Sundry Creditors		3,70,000	Sundry debtors	3,00,000	
General Reserves		3,60,000	Less: Provision for Doubtful debts	<u>30,000</u>	2,70,000
			Joint life policy		1,60,000
			Cash at Bank		<u>1,50,000</u>
		23,50,000			23,50,000

B retired on  $1^{st}$  April, 2018 subject to the following conditions:

- (i) Office Equipments revalued at ₹ 3,27,000.
- (ii) Building revalued at ₹ 15,00,000. Furniture is written down by ₹ 40,000 and Stock is reduced to ₹ 2,00,000.
- (iii) Provision for Doubtful Debts is to be created @ 5% on Debtors.
- (iv) Joint Life Policy will appear in the Balance Sheet at surrender value after B's retirement. The surrender value is ₹ 1,50,000
- (v) Goodwill was to be valued at 3 years purchase of average 4 years profit which were:

Year	₹
2014	90,000
2015	1,40,000
2016	1,20,000
2017	1,30,000

(vi) Amount due to B is to be transferred to his Loan Account.

Prepare the Revaluation Account, Partners' Capital Accounts and the Balance Sheet immediately after B's retirement.

#### Answer

#### **Revaluation Account**

	₹		₹
To Furniture A/c	40,000	By Office equipment A/c	47,000
To Stock A/c	50,000	By Building A/c	5,00,000
To Joint life policy	10,000	By Provision for	
To Partners' capital A/cs:		doubtful debts	15,000
A 2,31,000			
B 1,54,000			
C 77,000	<u>4,62,000</u>		
	<u>5,62,000</u>		<u>5,62,000</u>

#### Partners' Capital Accounts

А	В	С	Α	В	С
₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹

#### **Partnership Accounts**

To B's	90,000	-	30,000	By Balance b/d	8,00,000	4,20,000	4,00,000
Capital A/c				By General Reserve	1,80,000	1,20,000	60,000
To B's loan A/c		8,14,000		By revaluation	2,31,000	1,54,000	77,000
To Balance c/d	11,21,000		5,07,000	reserve			
				By A's capital A/c		90,000	
				By C's capital A/c		30,000	
	12,11,000	8,14,000	5,37,000		12,11,000	8,14,000	5,37,000

#### Balance Sheet as on 1.4.2018 (After B's retirement)

Liabilities	₹	₹	Assets	₹	₹
Capital accounts:			Building		15,00,000
А	11,21,000		Furniture		2,00,000
С	<u>5,07,000</u>	16,28,000	Office equipment		3,27,000
B's loan account		8,14,000	Stock		2,00,000
Sundry creditors		3,70,000	Sundry debtors		3,00,000
			Less: Provision for	<u>(15,000)</u>	2,85,000
			JLP		1,50,000
			Cash at bank		<u>1,50,000</u>
		28,12,000			28,12,000

#### **Working Notes:**

#### **Calculation of goodwill:**

#### 1. Average of last 4 year's profit

= (90,000+1,40,000+1,20,000+1,30,000)/4 = ₹ 1,20,000

# **2. Goodwill at three years' purchase** = ₹ 1,20,000 x 3 = ₹ 3,60,000

#### Goodwill adjustment

	Share of goodwill (Old ratio)	Share of goodwill (New ratio)	Adjustment
Α	1,80,000	2,70,000	90,000 (Dr.)
В	1,20,000	-	1,20,000 (Cr.)
С	60,000	90,000	30,000 (Dr.)

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Purch of lap	are Tob	Asset	Stock	Asset.
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Car.		Asset	Asset	Stock.
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				108-

Farm Pro Valuation of Inventories. At COSt Net Realisable Or Value. Whichever Goods are Goods are is less. O. For Finished Goods Homogenous not Homogenous Sale Price - Sellina Market Pri-() Specific Exp. Methods:-I I dentification do PEIED @ For W.I.P. @LIFO Method. @ Simple Average Sale Price (-) Expected Oweighted Average art av Belling exp. (-) Expect ted cost of completion. 1 1 1 1 2 ( For Row Material VXX for raw material there is no NRV. but there is it ch. replacement cost Valuation depends on Finished Goods !-Let. 1 /1 / OIF filished Goods valued as cost :- R.M. also valued at Cost. @ IF F. G. Valued, R.M. valued at replacement at NRV cast. 109

Paga Mrs. 0 ---- 3 15 19 · Valuation of Inventories Before or After Closing Date that Closing Date is 31st Assume March. Valuation Before Valuation After closing date Closing date Assume: - 20th March 10th April (Valuation completed) Value as on 20th March XXX Value as on 10th April XXX (+) Purchase between xxx (-) Purchase between XXX 20th Marchto 31st March 20th March to 31st March m 1.5 1 - 51 20 E) cost of sales betw- XXX (+) (ost of sales between XXX een 20th March to 31st March Harch to 31 March 90th (in 11 days) (in 10 days) XXX (in "days) (+) Purchase Return (in 10 days) XXX XXX (-) Abnormal losses (+) Abnormal Losses XXX (in it days) XXX (in 11 days) Value as on 31st March XXX Value as on 31st XXX March 1,12 31 110

315119 FOR RELORDING INVENTORY. SYSTEM Perpetual Recording Periodical System. System Under this system, all Not recorded continutransactions related to outly (Regularly) purchase, sales etc. are regularly recorded Generally adopted by Generally adopted by Business arge Small Businers (Periodic inventories Physical stock taking Opening XXX Opening XXX () Purchase XXX (+) Purchase XXX (-) (.O. G. 5 (XXX) (-) Closing (XXX) Closing Stock XXX Cost of goods XXX Sold In this method loss gets . In this method loss gets included in <u>Closing Stock</u> included in C.O.G.S \* Note: - To find out loss/ Shortage/ pilferage we shall find out closing stock by perpetual system of that should compared with physical stock as per periodical system & difference is loss. 111

Pega Ma. Deta 3 15 Difference Between Physical Stock and Stock as per Record. Physical Stock Stock as per Record. IE is the stock available It is the stock which physically in Godown/shop belongs to us. (Ownership on the date of valuation held by us even though possession is with others' Stin Finding stock as per record/ Balance sheet from Physical Stock. Physical stock closing date XXX (+) Sale on approval  $(X \times X)$ (+) Goods with consignee Agent XXX (+) Goods in Transit XXX (Goods purchased but not recrd) Goods sold but not sent  $(x \times x)$ (-) Goods of consignor (XXX) (-) Goods taken from seller (XXX) on Approval basis E.T.C. XXX

\* Formula for Total Cost weighted Average Total aty. Weighted Average Cost shall be calculated everytime whenever there are more than one goods at different price. \* Find out cost of goods sold and any missing figure related to goods. Opening stock XXX (+) Purchase XXX (+) Expenses on Purchase XXX e.g. Carriage Inward / Freight (+) Many Facturing expenses xxx (-) Purchase Return xxx () Closing Stock Cost of Goods Sold XXX (+) Gross Profit XXX Sales XXX in walls 113

Paga Na. · If any other information is missing like opening stock, Purchase, closing then follow this formula in Reverse Way . COGIS can be calculated: 1) Opening + Purchase + Exp. - closing DR @ Sales - Gross Profit. 145/19. \* ADJUSTED SELLING PRICE METHOD: In this method, closing stock is given at selling price and we are required to find out closing stock at cost price. (% of G.P. or G.P. is not available) . How to calculate cost price:-) Find out total goods available for sale at <u>cost price</u> :- <u>opening</u> <u>Purchase</u> (including stock <u>in year</u> excpenses) 2) Stock available for sale at selling price: Sales + Closing stock at sale price. 114

Outer 1 3) find out G.P. (assuming that all goods are sold) :-Step (2) Goods available for sale at selling - Step (1): Goods available for Price. sale at cost price XXX XXX 4) find out % of G.P. on sales (step 2):-Expected G.P. X 100 Goods available for X 100 sale at selling price s) closing stock at cost price: Closing stock at S.P. - Gross Profit %. (Step4) Para Broy 19. 124 Bunk harrhold to 115

## **Multipal Choice Questions**

1. The books of T Ltd. revealed the following information:

Particular	₹
Opening inventory	6,00,000
Purchases during the year 2010-2011	34,00,000
Sales during the year 2010-2011	48,00,000

On March 31, 2011, the value of inventory as per physical Inventory-taking was Rs. 3,25,000. The company's gross profit on sales has remained constant at 25%. The management of the company suspects that some inventory might have been pilfered by a new employee. What is the estimated cost of missing inventory?

A.Rs. 75,000 B.Rs. 25,000 C.Rs. 1,00,000 D.Rs. 1,50,000.

## **Practical Questions**

#### **Question No. 1**

M/s X, Y and Z are in retail business, following information are obtained from their records for the year ended 31st March, 2016:

Goods received from suppliers (subject to trade discount and taxes)	₹15,75,500
Trade discount 3% and sales tax 11%	
Packaging and transportation charges	₹87,500
Sales during the year	₹22,45,500
Sales price of closing inventories	₹2,35,000

Find out the historical cost of inventories using adjusted selling price method.

#### **Question No. 2**

A trader prepared his accounts on 31st March, each year. Due to some unavoidable reasons, no inventory taking could be possible till 15th April, 2017 on which date the total cost of goods in his godown came to ₹ 5,00,000. The following facts were established between 31st March and 15th April, 2017.

(i) Sales ₹ 4,10,000 (including cash sales ₹ 1,00,000)

(ii) Purchases ₹ 50,340 (including cash purchases ₹ 19,900) (iii) Sales Return ₹ 10,000.

Goods are sold by the trader at a profit of 20% on sales.

You are required to ascertain the value of inventory as on 31st March, 2017.

The following are the details of a spare part of Sriram Mills:

1-1-2016	Opening Inventory	Nil
1-1-2016	Purchases	100 units @ ₹ 30 per unit
15-1-2016	Issued for	50 units
	consumption	
1-2-2016	Purchases	200 units @ ₹ 40 per unit
15-2-2016	Issued for	100 units
	consumption	
20-2-2016	Issued for	100 units
	consumption	

Find out the value of Inventory as on 31-3-2016 if the company follows Weighted Average basis.

Com 20 1 196 19 BILLS OF EXCHANGE manifered buyinger humanitation Negotiable Instrument : Easily Transferable. manal senseriari senit p Here, Written Document Bearer Instrument can be transferred by delivery Order Instrument can be transferred by endorsement + delivery the content of the Debtor: To whom goods are sold on credit and had given oral promise. addplint · Bills Receivable : Written promise is given is that is arrived by person to whom goods man sold on credit. · Promissory Note: An as Can not be issued by individual and it can be (Bearer) · Bearer/Holder: Amount is paid to person who has note/cheque 118

201619 5 14 .... 1 1 1 Nº 1100 10 Time Instrument Demand Instrument In case of time instrume. Amount is payable nt amount is payable immediately when deman. after particulars days, ded/Requested. (No month or on particular need to wait for. event. minimum time) Example:----- Example: Payable 80 days after Payable at sight / Payable sight / presentment at presentment. 3 grace days are No grace days. reiti available. native - aldering - Whithen Cheque is best example of Demand Instrument. DI Promisson Make . Insubiation install which had been Benear Hulder: Marcuns & paid all bas articlebance

1 ì Bills of Exchange Promissory Note -> Unconditional order - Unconditional or to pay promise to pay > This is drawn by -> This is drawn by Creditor / Seller Debtor / Buyer + There are 2 parties ... There are 3 Drawer & Drawee/Payee parties Creditor. Drawer Drawee Debtor ... Nit Stati TE BR. AV (reditor Debtor 51-11 .4. Payee (Drawer& Payee -11- 16 double - 1 may be same) MARKE WARK TO LOSS Future → Cheque is one type ... Bill of Exchange. - la constante 11-71 120

Paga Nta 20,6,19 Bill . 11:11 Drawee Drawer Drawer Alc - Dr B.R. Alc - Dr'-TO B.P. ALC. To Drawee Alc. AL MANTA Discounting Endorsement Retain Sent to the bill Bant for of bill of bill in an collection minne annall Caution - Caution TP & name No Entry BS.B.C.ALC-Dr Cash ALC-Dr Creditor/ To B.R. ALC Discount ALC-Dr Endorsee ALC-D n MALLI TO B.R. ALC. TO B.R. ALC. Paner Draw Collect Cash Alc-Dr Bank Alc-Dr NO No ion/ TO BRAIC TOBSBCALC Entry Entry. > (heque in page Honour An ILIN Dishon Drawee Alc- Drawee Alc- Drawee Alc Drawee Alc Dr – Dr our — Dr - Dr TO B.R. ALC TO B.S.B.C. ALC TO Bank ALC TO Endorsee ALC

Frage No. Com 2216 1.13 ISCOUNTING OF BILL: Drower may approach the bank for early payment of bill and Bank may pay bill after deducting discount/interest for the period of early payment from date of Example: Discounting to Maturity date Date of bill = 1-1-06. Period of bill = 3 months, i.e. 4-4-06. Date of bill \_\_\_\_\_ Maturity date 4-4-06 1-1-06 3 months early payment : 2,00,000 x 12 x 3 = 6,000 KEBATE: XXX Wiel . and . Drawee may make early payment to Drawer ( Payment before - maturity date) the in such case drawer may give discount equivalent to interest for the period of early payment. (Date of payment to maturity date). 1(Q.14. Date of bill \_\_\_\_\_ Maturity date 4-4-05 1-1-05 4-03-05 1 month payment by drawee payment. = 10,000×12% × 1 100 Amt. Paid = 10,000 - 900 = 9.900. 122

mai No Catt 2.3 RENEWAL OF BILL: DALLING Cancel previous bill due to non availability of funds and make new bill. In this case previous bill is treated as dishonoured and noting charges may be paid on such bill. While calculating amount of bill following format should be followed : Amount of XXXX previous bill (+) Noting Charges XXX XXX (-) Amt. paid XXX (if any) Balance XXX Int. on bal. XXX amt. for delay Amt. of new bill XXX . ATANT mos unovi. rannah Hanings att ti natri transmin for airth allower Ittel for article no at a side Hidial 123 1 . Jun

24,6 19 · ACCOMODATION: hi null allies as with. IF bill is drown for consideration then it is Trade Bill. IF bill is drawn for t consideration but just to help other party then it is Accommoda. Hon bill. The is and he - Mutual Accomodation: Bill drawn and signed for the mutual benefit. The bill will be discount. ed with bank and proceeds of bill shall be distributed by party. ant were die from the alter the Discounting charges shall also be distributed in proportion to sharing of amount 16/19 and in nadman Arbeit AVERAGE DUE DATE: AND THE INTER an usinh Hanft should anothe Due Date: Date on which amount is payable/ in the due the eg Suppose X sold goods to Y on 25th June with credit period of 1 month then due date is 25th July day and = 111 Average Due Date (ADD): ADD shall be calculated where there are frequent transactions between same 124

Mr. B accepted a bill for  $\gtrless$  10,000 drawn on him by Mr. A on 1<sup>st</sup> August, 2017 for 3 months. This was for the amount which B owed to A. On the same date Mr. A got the bill discounted at his bank for  $\gtrless$  9,800.

On the due date, B approached A for renewal of the bill. Mr. A agreed on condition that ₹ 2,000 be paid immediately along with interest on the remaining amount at 12% p.a. for 3 months and that for the remaining balance B should accept a new bill for 3 months. These arrangements were carried through. On 31<sub>st</sub> December, 2017, B became insolvent and his estate paid 40%.

Prepare Journal Entries in the books of Mr. A

Date	Particulars	L.F.	Dr.	Cr.
			Amount ₹	Amount ₹
2017	Bills Receivable A/cDr.		10,000	
August 1	То В			10,000
	(Being the acceptance received from B to settle his			
	account)			
	Bank A/cDr.		9,800	
	Discount A/cDr.		200	
1 August	To Bills Receivable			10,000
	(Being the bill discounted for ₹ 9,800 from bank)			
4 November	BDr.		10,000	
	To Bank Account			10,000
	(Being the B's acceptance is to be renewed)			
4 November	BDr.		240	
	To Interest Account			240
	(Being the interest due from B for 3 months i.e.,			
	8000 x 3/12×12%=240)			
4 November	Cash A/cDr.		2,240	
	Bills Receivable A/cDr.		8,000	
	То В			10,240
	(Being amount and acceptance of new bill received			
	from B)			
31	B A/cDr.		8,000	
December	To Bills Receivable A/c			8,000
	(Being B became insolvent)			
	Cash A/cDr.		3,200	
	Bad debts A/cDr.		4,800	
31	То В			8,000
December	(Being the amount received and			
	written off on B's insolvency)			

#### Answer

Prepare Journal entries for the following transactions in K. Katrak's books.

- i. Katrak's acceptance to Basu for ₹ 2,500 discharged by a cash payment of ₹ 1,000 and a new bill for the balance plus ₹ 50 for interest.
- G. Gupta's acceptance for ₹ 4,000 which was endorsed by Katrak to M. Mehta was dishonoured. Mehta paid
  ₹ 20 noting charges. Bill withdrawn against cheque.
- iii. D. Dalal retires a bill for ₹ 2,000 drawn on him by Katrak for ₹ 10 discount.
- iv. Katrak's acceptance to Patel for ₹ 5,000 discharged by Patel Mody's acceptance to Katrak for a similar amount.

#### ANSWER

#### Books of K. Katrak Journal Entries.

		₹	₹
i.	Bills Payable Account	2,500	
	Interest Account	50	
	To Cash A/c		1,000
	To Bills Payable Account		1,550
	(Bills Payable to Basu discharged by cash payment of $\gtrless$ 1,000 and a new bill		
	for ₹1,550 including ₹ 50 as interest)		
ii.	(a) G. Gupta	4,020	
	To M. Mehta		4020
	(G. Gupta's acceptance for ₹4,000 endorsed to M. Mehta dishonoured, ₹		
	20 paid by M. Mehta as noting charges)		
	(b) M. Mehta	4,020	
	To Bank Account		4,020
	(Payment to M. Mehta on withdrawal of bill earlier received from Mr. G.		
	Gupta)		
		1.000	
111.	Bank Account	1,990	
	Discount Account	10	0.000
	To Bills Receivable Account		2,000
	(Payment received from D. Dalal against his acceptance for $₹ 2,000$ .		
	Allowed him a discount of ₹ 10)		
iv.	Bills Payable Account	5,000	
	To Bills Receivable Account		5,000
	(Bills Receivable from Mody endorsed to Patel in settlement of bills		
	payable issued to him earlier)		

#### **RTP May 2019**

#### **Question No. 3**

Rita owed ₹1,00,000 to Siriman. On 1st October, 2018, Rita accepted a bill drawn by Siriman for the amount at 3 months. Siriman got the bill discounted with his bank for ₹99,000 on 3rd October, 2018. Before the due date, Rita approached Siriman for renewal of the bill. Siriman agreed on the conditions that ₹50,000 be paid immediately together with interest on the remaining amount at 12% per annum for 3 months and for the balance, Rita should accept a new bill at three months. These arrangements were carried out. But afterwards, Rita became insolvent and 40% of the amount could be recovered from his estate.

Pass journal entries (with narration) in the books of Siriman.

#### ANSWER

Particulars	L.F.	₹	₹
Bills Receivable A/c	Dr.	1,00,000	
To Rita			1,00,000
(Being a 3 month's bill drawn on Rita for the amount due)			
Bank A/c	Dr.	99,000	
Discount A/c	Dr.	1,000	
To Bills Receivable A/c			1,00,000
(Being the bill discounted)	_		
Rita	Dr.	1,00,000	1
To Bank A/c			1,00,000
[Being the bill cancelled up due to Rita's inability to pay it]	D	1 500	
KITA To Interest A (a	Dr.	1,500	1 500
$\frac{10 \text{ Interest A/C}}{(\text{Doing the interest due on } \mp E0.000 @ 120/ \text{ for 2 months})}$			1,500
(Being the interest due on < 50,000 @ 12% for 5 months)			
	Der	F1 F00	
Bank A/C	Dr.	51,500	
To Rita			51,500
(Being the receipt of a portion of the amount due on the bill together with interest)			
Bills Receivable A/c	Dr.	50,000	
To Rita			50,000
(Being the new bill drawn for the balance)			
Rita	Dr.	50,000	
To Bills Receivable A/c			50,000
(Being the dishonour of the bill due to Rita's			
insolvency)			
Bank A/c	Dr.	20,000	
Bad Debts A/c	Dr.	30,000	
To Rita			50,000
(Being the receipt of 40% of the amount due on the bill from Rita's estate)			

Mock Test March 2019 (10 Marks)

Mr. B accepted a bill for Rs. 10,000 drawn on him by Mr. A on  $1_{st}$  August, 2017 for 3 months. This was for the amount which B owed to A. On the same date Mr. A got the bill discounted at his bank for Rs. 9,800.

On the due date, B approached A for renewal of the bill. Mr. A agreed on condition that Rs. 2,000 be paid immediately along with interest on the remaining amount at 12% p.a. for 3 month s and that for the remaining balance B should accept a new bill for 3 months. T hese arrangements were carried through. On 31<sub>st</sub> December, 2017, B became insolvent and his estate paid 40%.

Prepare Journal Entries in the books of Mr. A

#### Answer

Date		Particulars	L.F.	Dr. Amt ₹	Cr. Amt ₹
2017 August	1	Bills Receivable A/c Dr. To B (Being the acceptance received from B to settle his account)		10,000	10,000
August	1	Bank A/cDr. Discount A/cDr. To Bills Receivable (Being the bill discounted for ₹ 9,800 from bank)		9,800 200	10,000
November	4	B A/cDr. To Bank Account (Being the B's acceptance is to be renewed)		10,000	10,000
November	4	BDr. To Interest Account (Being the interest due from B for 3 months i.e., 8000 x 3/12 12%=240)		240	240
November	4	Cash A/cDr. Bills Receivable A/cDr. T o B (Being amount and acceptance of new bill received from B)		2,240 8,000	10,240
December	31	B A/cDr. To Bills Receivable A/c (Being B became insolvent)		8,000	8,000
December	31	Cash A/cDr. Bad debts A/cDr. To B (Being the amount received and written off on B's insolvency)		3,200 4,800	8,000

24,6 19 · ACCOMODATION: hi null allies as with. IF bill is drown for consideration then it is Trade Bill. IF bill is drawn for t consideration but just to help other party then it is Accommoda. Hon bill. The is and he - Mutual Accomodation: Bill drawn and signed for the mutual benefit. The bill will be discount. ed with bank and proceeds of bill shall be distributed by party. ant were die from the alter the Discounting charges shall also be distributed in proportion to sharing of amount 2516119 and in nadman Arbeit AVERAGE DUE DATE: AND THE INTER an usante finit sonni succhi Due Date: Date on which amount is payable/ in the due the eg Suppose x sold goods to Y on 25th June with credit period of 1 month then due date is 25th July day and = 111 Average Due Date (ADD): ADD shall be calculated where there are frequent transactions between same

	214
11	
	Parties with different due dates and parties are willing to settle their Alc (full Payment) on single date. ADD means date on which there is no loss of interest to any particular
s la	and and party reader about the
•	Steps for Calculation of ADD:
)	Calculate due date for each transaction. (Date of transaction + credit period) (Where credit period is not given then date of transaction is treated as due date)
<u></u>	Select Base date/zero date from the above due dates (Preferably earlier date shall be taken as due date)
3	Calculate number of days from Base date to Actual due date. The second include last day
4)	TE dans are in Calculation total inter and
	due date. No. of days X Amt
	in the mark of the period of the second of
5)	HUD = Bare Date + Total of Product Total of Days Amt.
Cand.	the helphilities and liptic applied and applied -
30	there are frequent transation were the
	130

4, 1, 19 Justa. . . calculation of average due date where amount is repaid in installments. Base date - Date on which loan is taken Average Due \_ Date of \_ Sum of no: of loan \_ yrs/months/days Date. from the date of lending to the date normania of repayment of each installments. No. of Installments have always in sector of million road han made a the second photom of th will betteril uset is having unlimited life then deprived a) , hobiy na sa thant. habitation and line mitching d'interel know which make a band month partie (times) in Perturan knew Actual presiden of Baunda tunch available for replacement and painty and a contraining a : Mult alon Denti di Labora ai Antopingu 131

## **Average Due Date**

#### **Question No. 1**

Calculate average due date from the following information:

Date of bill	Term	Amount (₹)
1 <sup>st</sup> March, 2017	2 months	4,000
10 <sup>th</sup> March, 2017	3 months	3,000
5 <sup>th</sup> April, 2017	2 months	2,000
23 <sup>rd</sup> April, 2017	1 months	3,750
10 <sup>th</sup> May, 2017	2 months	5,000

#### Answer

### Calculation of Average Due Date

(Taking 4<sup>th</sup> May, 2017 as the base date)

Date of bill	Term	Due date	Amount ₹	No. of days from the base date i.e. May 4, 2017	Product ₹
2017		2017			
1 <sup>st</sup> March	2 months	4 <sup>th</sup> May	4,000	0	0
10 <sup>th</sup> March	3 months	13 <sup>th</sup> June	3,000	40	1,20,000
5 <sup>th</sup> April	2 months	8 <sup>th</sup> June	2,000	35	70,000
23 <sup>rd</sup> April	1 month	26 <sup>th</sup> May	3,750	22	82,500
10 <sup>th</sup> May	2 months	13 <sup>th</sup> July	<u>5,000</u>	70	<u>3,50,000</u>
			<u>17,750</u>		<u>6,22,500</u>

Average due date=Base date+ Days equal to Total of products /Total amount

= 4<sup>th</sup> May, 2017 +  $\frac{₹ 6,22,500}{17,750}$  = 4<sup>th</sup> May, 2017 + 35 days = 8<sup>th</sup> June, 2017

#### **Question No. 2**

#### May 2018 (5 MARKS)

Mr. Alok owes Mr. Chirag ₹ 650 on 1<sup>st</sup> January 2018. From January to March, the following further transactions took place between Alok and Chirag

January 15	Alok buys goods	₹ 1,200
February 10	Alok buys goods	₹850
March 7	Alok received Cash loan	₹ 1,500

Alok pays the whole amount on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 together with interest @ 6% per annum. Calculate the interest by average due date method.

#### Answer

#### Calculation of average due date

Alok pays the whole amount on 31st March, 2018 together with interest at 6% per annum.

Due Date	Amoun	No. of days from Jan. 1	Product
2018	₹		
Jan. 1	650	0	0
Jan. 15	1,200	14	16,800
Feb. 10	850	40	34,000
March 7	<u>1,500</u>	65	<u>97,500</u>
	<u>4,200</u>		<u>1,48,300</u>

Average due date=Base date+ Days equal to Total of products /Total amount

= Jan. 1 + 1,48,300/4,200

= Jan. 1 + 35.31\* Days

= Feb. 6

Interest therefore has been calculated on ₹ 4,200 from 6<sup>th</sup> Feb. to 31st March, i.e., for 54 days. 4,200 x 6% x 54/365= ₹ 37.28

ACCOUNT CURRENT 13,7,19 · When due date of the transaction falls after end date then Product / Interest on such transaction shall be shown on the opposite side of the transaction and such product/ interest is written by using red ink it is known as Red Ink Interest/Product EPRICIATION. Depriciation : Reduction in value of assets over time, due to wear and tear. It is mainly because of limited life of asset. If asset is having unlimited life then depriciation shall not be provided. (e.g. land) Depriciation shall be provided :-O To know correct cost of production. © To find out current Profit (financial Performance) 9 To know Actual position of Business. @. To make funds available for replacement fassets · Depriciation is known as opening non cash expenditure: Depriciation is provided if the life of asset AS-10: - Property, Plant and Equipment. 134

## Account Current

#### **Question No. 1**

The following are the transactions that took place between G and H during the period from 1<sup>st</sup> October, 2017 to 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018:

2017		₹
Oct.1	Balance due to G by H	3,000
Oct 18	Goods sold by G to H	2,500
Nov. 16	Goods sold by H to G (invoice dated November, 26)	4,000
Dec.7	Goods sold by H to G (invoice dated December, 17)	3,500
2018		₹
<b>2018</b> Jan. 3	Promissory note given by G to H, at three months	<b>₹</b>
<b>2018</b> Jan. 3 Feb. 4	Promissory note given by G to H, at three months Cash paid by G to H	₹ 5,000 1,000
<b>2018</b> Jan. 3 Feb. 4 Mar. 21	Promissory note given by G to H, at three months Cash paid by G to H Goods sold by G to H	₹ 5,000 1,000 4,300

Draw up an Account Current up to March 31st, 2018 to be rendered by G to H, charging interest at 10% per annum. Interest is to be calculated to the nearest rupee.

#### Answer

# In the books of G H in Account Current with G (interest to 31<sup>st</sup> March,2018@10%p.a.)

Date	Due	Particulars	No. of	Amt.	Product	Date	Due	Particulars	No. of	Amt.	Product
	date		days till				date		days till		
			31.3.18						31.3.18		
2017	2017			₹	₹	2017	2017			₹	₹
0ct 1,	0ct 1,	To Bal. b/d	182	3,000	5,46,000	Nov 16	Nov 26	By Purchases	125	4,000	5,00,000
Oct 18,	0ct 18	To Sales	164	2,500	4,10,000	Dec 7	Dec. 17	By Purchases	104	3,500	3,64,000
2018	2018					2018	2018				
Jan 3	Apr 6	To Bills Payable	(6)	5,000	(30,000)	Mar 28	Apr 8	By Purchases	(8)	2,700	(21,600)
		-				Mar 31	Mar 31	By Balance			1,81,600
Feb 4	Feb 4	To Cash	55	1,000	55,000			of product			
Mar 21	Mar. 21	To Sales	10	4,300	43,000			By Balance c/d		5,650	
Mar 31	Mar 31	To Interest		50	-						
				<u>15,850</u>	<u>10,24,000</u>					<u>15,850</u>	<u>10,24,000</u>

Interest for the period =  $1,81,600 \ge 10 \ge 1 = ₹50$  (approx.)

100 x 365

#### Mock Test March 2019 (5 MARKS)

On 1<sup>st</sup> January, 2018, X's account in Y's ledger showed a debit balance of Rs. 5,000. The following transactions took place between Y and X during the quarter ended 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018:

2018			₹
Jan.	11	Y sold goods to X	6,000
Jan.	24	Y received a promissory note from X due after 3 months	5,000
Feb.	01	X sold goods to Y	10,000
Feb.	04	Y sold goods to X	8,200
Feb.	07	X returned goods to Y	1,000
March	01	X sold goods to Y	5,600
March	18	Y sold goods to X	9,200
March	23	X sold goods to Y	4,000

Accounts were settled on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 by means of a cheque. Prepare an Account Current to be submitted by Y to X as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018, taking interest into account @ 10% per annum. Calculate interest to the nearest multiple of a rupee.

#### Answer

#### X in Account Current with Y (Interest to 31st March, 2018 @ 10% p.a)

Date	Particulars	Amount	Days	Product	Date	Particulars	Amount	Days	Product
2018		₹		₹	2018		₹		₹
Jan.1	To Balance b/d	5,000	90	4,50,000	Jan.24	By Promissiory Note (due date 27 <sup>th</sup> April)	5,000	(27)	(1,35,000)
Jan.11	To Sales	6,000	79	4,74,000	Feb. 1	By Purchases	10,000	58	5,80,000
Feb. 4	To Sales	8,200	55	4,51,000	Feb. 7	By Sales Return	1,000	52	52,000
Mar.18	To Sales	9,200	13	1,19,600	Mar. 1	By Purchases	5,600	30	1,68,000
Mar.31	To Interest	219			Mar.23	By Purchases	4,000	8	32,000
					Mar.31	By Balance of Products			7,97,600
					Mar.31	By Bank	3,019		
		28,619	-	14,94,600			28,619	-	14,94,600

#### Working Note: Calculation of interest:

Interest = 7,97,600 /365 x 10 /100 = ₹ 219 (approx.)

ACCOUNT CURRENT 13,7,19 · When due date of the transaction falls after end date then Product / Interest on such transaction shall be shown on the opposite side of the transaction and such product/ interest is written by using red ink it is known as Red Ink Interest/Product EPRICIATION. Depriciation : Reduction in value of assets over time, due to wear and tear. It is mainly because of limited life of asset. If asset is having unlimited life then depriciation shall not be provided. (e.g. land) Depriciation shall be provided :-O To know correct cost of production. © To find out current Profit (financial Performance) 9 To know Actual position of Business. @. To make funds available for replacement fassets · Depriciation is known as opening non cash expenditure: Depriciation is provided if the life of asset AS-10: - Property, Plant and Equipment.

• Methods of Recording Depriciation: N. Alidiny Depriciation directly Depriciation not charged to Asset but recorded in provision hallen! for Depriciation Alc. · ···· Provision Deprivation Alc - Dr Deprivation Alc - Dr To Provision for Dep. Alc To Asset Alc Asset is shown at Asset shown at original value. WDV BV. most since of O IF there is only one Asset in Asset Alc. (2251) Asset is 1.1. 11. 11. 11 Sold at ALC Provision ALC Asset 7,50,000 Istyr @ To Cash 1000000 By Provision O For Dep. 200000 By Dep. Alc 100000 To Asset Alc 2nd yr 3 6 9,00,000 By-Bank By Dep. Alc 100000 7.50,000 P By P&LALC 50000 (1050) 10.00000 10,00,000 138

Pege Ma Dette IF there are more than One Asset : 2) Provision Alc. Asset Alc To Disposal of By Dep. Alc 1.00000 To Cash 1000000 By Disposal of (Asset D) Asset Alc 1,00,000 Asset 200,000 By Dep. Alc 1.00000 Asset 2 2000,000 i) 6 mic alian . . Assel \$ 15,00000 per visions h Disposal of Asset Alconomy 12 -lassa To Asset 10.00,000 By Provision 2.00,000 41 . 1 march By Bank 7.50000 in . (loss) la theat NI TT ion. 10.00.000 10.00.000 maining 11 134151 12 121 BARRING MANN By Top Me in the mor genig) The Marshold R. 1.1.1.2 A DI G 151.60 B. PALING JAND Loss and the series

20, 7, 18 Methods of Depriciation: ) Straight Line Method (SLM): Cost - Scrap Value Expected Use Foul life (in years) Cost = Purchase Price + All expenses incurred on asset before asset is ready to use. the minute of the method Assumption: It is assumed that benefit taken from asset/sure of asset is some every year. MEARE LITETT TETHING SAAY Method 1 July it reliance - not method 9 Cost - scrappivalue here hors -Cost X% Expected Useful life them Lastara (172 may as anti-himan statutio) TF life of asset and percentage (%) both are given follow percentage (%) method. tother Sector when shall read a 140

Prest Nr. & WRITTEN DOWN VALUE METHOD (WDV): Example :- 10.00,000 for 1st year dep. @ 10% - 1,00,000 9.00,000 -> WDV 90.000 10% 8,10,000 Write + Assumption: In the beginning use & efficiency of asset is higher. Therefore depriciation shall be higher in beginning and it should go down year by year after it's use and therefore, amount shall also decrease. OF NEARS DIGIT METHOD (SYD): S) Sum + Assumption :- Similar to WDV. + had table Example :- Cost of asset = 36,000 more Life of asset =1.6 yrs. Calculate deprictation as per SYD method. spisher ing has been in an TT . Sun Digits of year = 1 2 3 4 5 6= 6styr Sndyr Uthy Brdyr Indyr 1styr Depriciation:  $for 1st year = \frac{36.000}{21} \times 6 = 10,286.$
2nd Year: 36.000 x 5 = 8571 3rd Year : 36.000 x 4 = 6857 arcial Floridade 21 manne for the patentian in current 4th Year: 36.000 x 3 \_ 5143 21 5th Year : 36,000 x 2 - 3429 21 6th Year : 36,000 x1 = 1714 21 36,000 4) MACHINE HOURS METHOD: -Life of machine is given in total expected hours. Cost - Scrap Value X Hours used in Expected Useful life in Hours current year when some hilamand in mothers and 144 PRODUCTION UNITS METHOD: 5. <u>Cost - Scrap Value</u> X Units Produced Expected Useful life in Units in current year. 142

6. DEPLETION METHOD: -Wasting Assets Method. e.g. Coal Mine, oilfields etc. V Actual Extraction Cost Manum Possible Extraction in current year. WORAN della 36.100 SUITE . -2317113 AS-10:- Plant, Property and Equipments. A5-6 AS-10. Depriciation Fixed Assets. Now it is concelled. Now AS For Fixed assets and deprivation andarma A5-10-PPE is in small. sultil and As per AS-10 Depriciation shall be provided in the pattern of benefit/use from asset. PPE ! - Tangible Item Life more than 12 months - Expected to give future economic benefit. - Used in Production Administration of Business.

## **Question No.1**

## RTP Nov. 2018, RTP Nov. 2019

M/s. Green Channel purchased a second-hand machine on 1<sup>st</sup> January, 2015 for 1,60,000. Overhauling and erection charges amounted to  $\gtrless$  40,000. Another machine was purchased for  $\gtrless$  80,000 on 1st July, 2015. On 1st July, 2017, the machine installed on 1st January, 2015 was sold for  $\gtrless$  1,00,000. Another machine amounted to  $\gtrless$  30,000 was purchased and was installed on 30th September, 2017.

Under the existing practice the company provides depreciation @ 10% p.a. on original cost. However, from the year 2018 it decided to adopt WDV method and to charge depreciation 15% p.a. You are required to prepare Machinery account for the years 2015 to 2018.

## Answer

1.1.2015       To Bank A/c       1,60,000       31.12.2015       By Depreciation A/c       24,00         To Bank A/c       40,000       31.12.2015       By Balance c/d       2,56,         1.7.2015       To Bank A/c $\frac{80,000}{2,80,000}$ $(1,12,2016)$ By Balance c/d       2,56,         1.7.2016       To Bal. b/d       2,56,000 $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c       28,00         1.1.2016       To Bal. b/d       2,56,000 $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c       28,00         1.1.2017       To Bal. b/d       2,26,000 $31.12.2016$ By Balance c/d       2,28,00         1.1.2017       To Bal. b/d       2,28,000 $31.12.2016$ By Balance c/d       2,56,000 $31.12.2017$ To Bal. b/d       2,28,000 $31.12.2016$ By Balance c/d       2,28,000 $30.9.2017$ To Bank A/c       30,000 $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c       1,00, $31.12.2017$ By Depreciation A/c       50,000 $(1.7.2017)$ By Depreciation A/c       18,75 $(1.0,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ By Depreciation A/c       18,75 $(1.7,2017)$ By Depreciation A/c <t< th=""><th></th></t<>	
To Bank A/c (Erection charges) $40,000$ $31.12.2015$ $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 4,000)$ $2,56,$ $1.7.2015$ To Bank A/c $80,000$ $2,80,000$ $(₹ 1,80,000 + ₹ 76,000)$ $2,56,$ $1.1.2016$ To Bal. b/d $2,56,000$ $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 8,000)$ $2,80,000$ $1.1.2016$ To Bal. b/d $2,56,000$ $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 8,000)$ $2,28,000$ $1.1.2017$ To Bal. b/d $2,28,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Balance c/d $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ $2,56,000$ $1.1.2017$ To Bank A/c $30,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c By Profit and Loss A/c $(Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)$ $1.8,75$ $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$	4,000
i.7.2015Charges) $31.12.2015$ By Balance c/d $2,56,$ $1.7.2015$ To Bank A/c $\frac{80,000}{2,80,000}$ $(₹ 1,80,000 + ₹ 76,000)$ $2,80,$ $1.1.2016$ To Bal. b/d $2,56,000$ $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 8,000)$ $2,80,$ $1.1.2017$ To Bal. b/d $2,28,000$ $31.12.2016$ By Balance c/d $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ $2,28,$ $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ $1.1.2017$ To Bal. b/d $2,28,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c $1,00,$ $30.9.2017$ To Bank A/c $30,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c $1,00,$ $31.12.2017$ By Depreciation A/c $(Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)$ $18,75,$ $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ $18,75,$ $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$	
1.7.2015To Bank A/c $\frac{80,000}{2,80,000}$ $(\$ 1,80,000 + \$ 76,000)$ $\frac{1}{2,80,000}$ 1.1.2016To Bal. b/d2,56,000 $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c $(\$ 20,000 + \$ 8,000)$ $28,00$ 1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,000 $31.12.2016$ By Balance c/d $(\$ 1,60,000 + \$ 68,000)$ $2,28,000$ 1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,000 $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c $1,00,$ $30.9.2017$ To Bank A/c $30,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c $1,00,$ $31.12.2016$ By Depreciation A/c $(\$ 1,60,000 + \$ 68,000)$ $1.8,75$ $(\$ 10,000 + \$ 8,000 + \$ 750)$ $18,75$ $(\$ 10,000 + \$ 8,000 + \$ 750)$	56,000
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1.1.2016To Bal. b/d2,56,00031.12.2016By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 8,000)$ 28,00 $(₹ 20,000 + ₹ 8,000)$ 1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,00031.12.2016By Balance c/d $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ 2,28, $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ 1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,0001.7.2017By Bank A/c By Profit and Loss A/c (Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)1,00, By Depreciation A/c $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$	80,000
1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,0001.7.2017By Balance c/d2,28, $(₹ 1,60,000 + ₹ 68,000)$ 2,56, 2,56,1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,0001.7.2017By Bank A/c1,00, By Profit and Loss A/c (Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)1,00, 18,75 (₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750) By Balance c/d	8,000
1.1.2017To Bal. b/d $2,28,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Bank A/c $2,56$ $30.9.2017$ To Bank A/c $30,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Profit and Loss A/c $1,00$ $31.12.2017$ By Depreciation A/c $18,75$ $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ By Balance c/d $18,75$	28,000
1.1.2017To Bal. b/d2,28,0001.7.2017By Bank A/c1,00, $30.9.2017$ To Bank A/c $30,000$ $1.7.2017$ By Profit and Loss A/c $50,000$ $(Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)$ $1.12.2017$ By Depreciation A/c $18,750$ $(10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ By Balance c/d $1.72017$ $1.72017$	
1.1.2017       To Bal. b/d       2,28,000       1.7.2017       By Bank A/c       1,00,         30.9.2017       To Bank A/c       30,000       By Profit and Loss A/c       50,00         (Loss on Sale - W.N. 1)       31.12.2017       By Depreciation A/c       18,75 $(₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)$ By Balance c/d       18,75	,50,000
30.9.2017       To Bank A/c       30,000       By Profit and Loss A/c       50,00         (Loss on Sale – W.N. 1)       31.12.2017       By Depreciation A/c       18,75         (₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750)       By Balance c/d       18,75	00,000
31.12.2017 By Depreciation A/c 18,7! (₹ 10,000 + ₹ 8,000 + ₹ 750) By Balance c/d $+ ₹ 20,250$ 80.25	0,000
By Balance c/d $\downarrow \mp 20.250$	8,750
+ \ 29,230 ) 09,23	9,250
	2,58,000
1.1.2018         To Balance b/d         89,250         31.12.2018         By Depreciation A/c         13,3	13,387.5
(₹ 9,000 + ₹ 4,387.5)	
By Balance c/d 75,8	75,862.5
(₹ 51,000 + ₹ 24,862.5)	
89.250	20.250

In the books of M/s. Green Channel Co. Machinery Account

## Working Notes:

## Book Value of machines (Straight line method)

	Machine	Machine	Machine
	1	11	<i>III</i>
	₹	₹	₹
Cost	2,00,000	80,000	30,000
Depreciation for 2015	20,000	4,000	
Written down value as on 31.12.2015	1,80,000	76,000	
Depreciation for 2016	20,000	8,000	
Written down value as on 31.12.2016	1,60,000	68,000	
Depreciation for 2017	10,000	8,000	750
Written down value as on 31.12.2017	1,50,000	60,000	29,250
Sale proceeds	1,00,000		
Loss on sale	50,000		

## Question No. 2

## RTP May 2019

A lease is purchased on 1st April, 2014 for 4 years at a cost of ₹ 2,00,000. It is proposed to depreciate the lease by the annuity method charging 5 percent interest. A reference to the annuity table shows that to depreciate ₹ 1 by annuity method over 4 years charging 5% interest, one must write off a sum of ₹ 0.282012 [T o write off ₹ 2,00,000 one has to write off every year ₹ 5,6402.40 i.e. 0.282012 × 2,00,000].

You are required to show the Lease Account for four years (2014-15 to 2017-18) and also the relevant entries posted to the profit and loss account.

## Answer

## Lease Account

Dr.			Cr.		
2014-15			2014-15		
April. 1	To Bank A/c	2,00,000.00	Mar. 31	By Depreciation A/c	56,402.40
	To Interest A/c (5% on ₹				
Mar. 31	2,00,000)	10,000.00		By Balance c/d	1,53,597.60
		2,10,000.00			2,10,000.00
2015-16			2015-16		
April. 1	To Balance b/d	1,53,597.60	Mar.31	By Depreciation A/c	56,402.40
Mar. 31	To Interest A/c	7,679.88		By Balance c/d	1,04,875.08
	(5% on ₹ 1,53,597.60)				
		1,61,277.48			1,61,277.48
2016-17			2016-17		
April 1	To Balance b/d	1,04,875.08	Mar 31	By Depreciation A/c	56,402.40
Mar. 31	To Interest A/c	5,243.75	Mar 31	By Balance c/d	53,716.43
		1,10,118.83			1,10,118.83
2017-18			2017-18		
April. 1	To Balance b/d	53,716.43	Mar. 31	By Depreciation A/c	56,402.25
Mar. 31	To Interest A/c	2,685.82			
		56,402.25			56,402.25

## **Profit and Loss Account**

2014-15		₹	2014-15		₹
Mar. 31 2015-16	To Depreciation A/c	56,402.40	Mar. 31 2015-16	By Interest A/c	10,000.00
Mar. 31 2016-17	To Depreciation A/c	56,402.40	Mar. 31 2016-17	By Interest A/c	7.679.88
Mar. 31 2017-18	To Depreciation A/c	56,402.40	Mar. 31 2017-18	By Interest A/c	5,243.75
Mar. 31	To Depreciation A/c	56,402.25	Mar. 31	By Interest A/c	2,685.82

Foge N Date SALE Sale: Transfer of Ownership. (Ownership and possession are different) Ownership Ownership is transferred when goods are selected and ready for delievery SALE <u>ા તે પ્રભુગ્રેલું કે</u> ગે સ્પૃથ્વિ Sale on Approval Basis Sale on Return Basis. Sale on Approval Basis is treated as sale in Following cases! D when Approval is given by buyer. 2) Goods are not returned within time. B Goods are sold / mortgaged to other person buyer by 1-11 2404 11 Possession :- Custody × 147

Paga No. Dete Sale on Approval: (Actually sale on Approval is not transaction therefore, no need to record it but it is Forgetting recorded to avoid chance of it Regular Rasis On Casual 2nSouis (few Transactions) In-year) Separate set of Books separate set of NO maintained. Books Regular Book Entry Recorded in same Memorandum Book assuming that it is book regular sale Dr. Cr.B Dr. Cr. O When Goods Sent Customer Alc-Dr Cutomer Alc - Dr XXX To Sale/Return To Sales Alc. puhen goods are returned Good are returned: -> Sale/Return - Dr Sale Alc - Dr XXX To Customer Alc Cautomer ALC XXX 3 when goody are sold-> Goods Aproved 6dd :-> a) 1st reverse 6) Entry For sale the entry fapp. No Entry roval -> (whomerAlc-Dr Sale/Return Alc-Dr To Sale ALC. Goods are still with customer to Cultomer Alr. On 31st March & no is received. opproval b) Show it as closing stock a Reverse the entry for sale Broods with cutomer Sale Dr ALC. To customer to trading Alc

Page Ha Enter 181 4119 Cost Price Sale Price. 100%. (I) 50% 1 50% (1) 33.83 (3) 33.33% (1) 25% (1) 20% (1) 25% (1) 20% (1)  $16.67(\frac{1}{5})$  $\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)$  $\left(\frac{1}{11}\right)$ 2.52.000 5.P. and profit is 26% on cost. (Missing figure assumed as (00) C.P. 5.0 126 2,52,000 82,52,000 100 12,52,000×100 126 2,00,000. 25%. profit on sale & Cost Price is \$5,000. 17.000 85.000×100 125 C.P. S.P. - 68,000. 100 125 - 9-----85.000 149

# Sales of goods on approval or return basis

#### **Question No. 1**

## **RTP** May 2018, RTP Nov. 2019

X supplied goods on sale or return basis to customers, the particulars of which are as under:

Date of dispatch	Party's name	Amount ₹ Remarks
10.12.2017	M/s ABC Co.	10,000 No information till 31.12.2017
12.12.2017	M/s DEF Co	15,000 Returned on 16.12.2017
15.12.2017	M/s GHI Co	12,000 Goods worth ₹ 2,000 returned on 20.12.2017
20.12.2017	M/s DEF Co	16,000 Goods Retained on 24.12.2017
25.12.2017	M/s ABC Co	11,000 Good Retained on 28.12.2017
30.12.2017	M/s GHI Co	13,000 No information till 31.12.2017

Goods are to be returned within 15 days from the dispatch, failing which it will be treated as sales. The books of 'X' are closed on the 31<sup>st</sup> December, 2017.

Prepare the following account in the books of 'X'.

Goods on "sales or return, sold and returned day books". Goods on sales or return total account.

## Answer

#### In the books of 'X' Goods on sales or return, sold and returned day book

Date 2017	Party to whom goods sent	L.F	Amount₹	Date 2017	Sold ₹	Returned ₹
Dec.10	M/s ABC		10,000	Dec. 25	10,000	-
Dec.12	M/s DEF		15,000	Dec. 16	-	15,000
Dec.15	M/s GHI		12,000	Dec. 20	10,000	2,000
Dec.20	M/s DEF		16,000	Dec. 24	16,000	-
Dec.25	M/s ABC		11,000	Dec. 28	11,000	-
Dec.30	M/s GHI		<u>13,000</u>	-		
			77,000		47,000	17,000

#### Goods on Sales or Return Total Account

2017		Amount ₹	2017		Amount ₹
Dec. 31	To Returns To Sales To Balance c/d	17,000 47,000 <u>13,000</u> 77,000	Dec. 31	By Goods sent on sales or return	77,000 77,000

## **Question No. 2**

On 31<sup>st</sup> December, 2018 goods sold at a sale price of ₹ 3,000 were lying with customer, Ritu to whom these goods were sold on 'sale or return basis' were recorded as actual sales. Since no consent has been received from Ritu, you are required to pass adjustment entries presuming goods were sent on approval at a profit of cost plus 20%. Present market price is 10% less than the cost price.

Answer

## **Journal Entries**

Date	Particulars	Dr.	Cr.
2018		₹	₹
31 <sup>st</sup>	Sales A/cDr.	3,000	
Dec.	To Ritu's A/c		3,000
	(Being cancellation of entry for sale of goods, not yet approved)		
	Inventories with customers A/c (Refer W.N.) Dr.	2,250	0.050
	To Trading A/c		2,250
	(Being Inventories with customers recorded at market price)		

#### Working Note:

Calculation of cost and market price of Inventories with customer

Sale price of goods sent on approval	₹ 3,000
Less: Profit (3,000 x 20/120)	₹ 500
Cost of goods	<u>₹ 2,500</u>

Market price = 2,500 - (2,500 x 10%) = ₹ 2,250

## **Question No. 3**

## May 2018 (5 MARKS)

Mr. Badhri sends goods to his customers on Sale or Return. The following transactions took place during the month of December 2017.

December 2<sup>nd</sup> - Sent goods to customers on sale or return basis at cost plus 25% - ₹ 80,000

December 10<sup>th</sup> - Goods returned by customers ₹ 35,000

December 17<sup>th</sup> - Received letters from customers for approval ₹ 35,000

December 23<sup>rd</sup> - Goods with customers awaiting approval ₹ 15,000

Mr. Badhri records sale or return transactions as ordinary sales. You are required to pass the necessary Journal Entries in the books of Mr. Badhri assuming that the accounting year closes on 31<sup>st</sup> Dec. 2017.

## Answer

Date	Particulars		L.F.	Dr. (in ₹)	Cr. (in ₹)
2017	Trade receivables A/c Dr.			80,000	
Dec. 2	To Sales A/c				80,000
	(Being the goods sent to customers on sale or return basis)	Dr			
D 10	Poturn Inward A/c (Noto 1) Dr	DI.		35,000	
Dec. 10	The True de maneire blace A /c				35,000
	10 Trade receivables A/c.				
	(Being the goods returned by customers to whom goods were sent on sale or return basis)				
Dec. 23	Sales A/c Dr.	Dr.		15,000	
	To Trade receivables A/c				15,000
	(Being the cancellation of original entry of sale in respect of goods on sale or return basis)				
Dec. 31	Inventories with customers on Sale or Return A/c Dr.	Dr.		12,000	12,000
	To Trading A/c (Note 3)				
	(Being the adjustment for cost of goods lying with customers awaiting approval)				

#### In the books of Mr. Badhri Journal Entries

Note:

(1) Alternatively, Sales account or Sales returns can be debited in place of Return Inwards account.

(2) No entry is required for receiving letter of approval from customer.

(3) Cost of goods with customers =  $₹ 15,000 \times 100/125 = ₹ 12,000$ 

(4) It has been considered that the transaction values are at invoice price (including profit margin).

## **Question No. 4**

## Nov. 2018 ( 5 MARKS)

Mr. Ganesh sends out goods on approval to few customers and includes the same in the Sales Account. On 31.03.2018, the Trade Receivables balance stood at ₹ 75,000 which included ₹ 6,500 goods sent on approval against which no intimation was received during the year. These goods were sent out at 30% over and above cost price and were sent to- Mr. Adhitya ₹ 3,900 and Mr. Bakkiram ₹ 2,600.

Mr. Adhitya sent intimation of acceptance on 25<sup>th</sup> April, 2018 and Mr. Bakkiram returned the goods on 15<sup>th</sup> April, 2018. Make the adjustment entries and show how these items will appear in the Balance Sheet as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018. Show also the entries to be made during April, 2018.

Value of Closing Inventories as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 was ₹ 50,000. Mr. Adhitya sent intimation of acceptance on 25<sup>th</sup> April, 2018 and Mr. Bakkiram returned the goods on 15<sup>th</sup> April, 2018.

Make the adjustment entries and show how these items will appear in the Balance Sheet as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018. Show also the entries to be made during April, 2018. Value of Closing Inventories as on 31<sup>st</sup> March, 2018 was ₹ 50,000.

## Answer

## In the Books of Mr. Ganesh Journal Entries

Date	Particulars	L.F.	Dr. ₹	Cr. ₹
2018 March 31	Sales A/c Dr. To Trade receivables A/c (Being the cancellation of original entry for sale in respect of goods lying with customers awaiting approval)		6,500	6,500
March 31	Inventories with Customers on Sale or Return A/c Dr To Trading A/c (Note 1) (Being the adjustment for cost of goods lying with customers awaiting approval)		5,000	5,000
April 25	Trade receivables A/c Dr To Sales A/c (Being goods costing worth ₹ 3,900 sent to Mr. Aditya on sale or return basis has been accepted by him)		3,900	3,900

## Balance Sheet of Mr. Ganesh as on 31st March, 2018 (Extracts)

Liabilities	₹	Assets	₹	₹
		Trade receivables (₹ 75,000 - ₹ 6,500) Inventories-in-trade Add: Inventories with customers on Sale or Return	50,000 5,000	68,500 <u>55,000</u>
				<u>1,23,500</u>

Notes:

(1) Cost of goods lying with customers =  $100/130 \ge 1000$  s  $\ddagger 6,500 = \$ 5,000$ 

(2) No entry is required on 15<sup>th</sup> April, 2018 for goods returned by Mr. Bakkiram. Goods should be included physically in the Inventories.

COMPANY ACCOUNTS. 25 9 19 Face Value : Printed Price on certificate. Authorised Capital: Maximum capital permitted by Roc. dimeduo a badinadua Issued Capital : Invited for subscription Application for Boolication receip Subscribed Capital No. of shares for which insurance application money received. Called up Capital Amount of share which is demanded milmillion excess badiosadi From publication Rednon boulas . Paid up Capital Amount of share which is actually balancian no Pald by "public of antipolication Calls in Arrears: Amount called up but not received within due date on Pre-min po Calls in Advance: Amount received from shareholder in excess of called up amount. : maidmonation . A bask or other Aromaial institution · Paid up Capital = Called up - Calls in Arcears. share in an issue of new place (autilidianau, na extrastan ar)

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	issue of shares deb.
	3) To Issue bony shares
	4) To pay premium on redemp- tion of Shares Debentures.

Frige Mr 5) Buy Back of equity shares. Additionally consider premium for calculation of cash and Bank Balance. (Don't touch in any other situation) Dr. Constance Example: 2619119: Company issued 1000 shares of 100 each of 20 premium. Applications received for 9,500 shares out of which 100 applications rejected as it was incomplete. ma times (Including, 50 20 premium) Amount to be collected: On application = 20 On allotment On 1st rall 30 Op final call 20. Application <u>- Dr</u> (9500×50) Bank Alc -4,95,000 money received. Share Application. 4.75000 Application Share Capital Alc -4,75000 Duel transfer -Dr To Bank (100 × 50) to capital. FOOD To Share Capital Alc 9.82.000 (9400× 50) To Securities 1,82000 Premium Alc (9400×20) GUIL I CONTRA Onit

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	Allotment	Share Allotment Alc-Dr	1,88.000	
	Due	(9400×20) To Share Capital Alc	300.8	1.88.000
	Receipt	Bark Alc - Dr	1.98000	3
		To Share Allotment Alc.		1,28,000
	Call, Due	To Share Capital Alc		2,82,000
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Page My 10 1 flats. Forfeiture of Shures 18 4303 In case of shares issued at premium IF Premium is IF premium is not called & Received acitation of received even it was called. Share Capital Ale - Dr Don't touch premium Alc (called Up) Securities Premium Share Capital Alc - Dr (Premium Amt. on stiares forfeted) To share forfeiture Alc : land To Share 1st call Alc To Share for feiture ALC. Man Calls in a means Alci Alci (Paid UP) Reduction Prominal meetelder To 1st call / Allotment/ calls in arrears Alc. ( called but not recvo) 110 a is of 00.55 Locherhice av TYP ( Alines - The second tiano ano 2910119 T Shares Piline (All calculations should be excluding previous received) previous (4) the providence all In thin MELENCE 221 Bry hand . 14 bunda deal X 19133 1 vi highlands 1:1074 751 functe'

27,9,19 Capital Reserve Capital Uncalled capital if reserved Created out of Capital for purpose of liquidation Profit: > forfeiture of share then it is reserve -> Profit on revaluation capital of assets. territy December Of Inn) bonds well and grave Re-Issue of Shares: Manufally -Minimum price of re-issue shall be amount unpaid by previous shareholder (Excluding Premium) ALLA MARK LAL Entry for Re-Issue: shareholder) - Dr (received from new Bank Alc Share forkeiture AIC - Dr (F.V. - Amt. received) To Share capital Ala (F.V.) To securities Premium Alc (if any)-ALL CHARLENDER ADAM Transfer to Capital Reserve: Share forfeiture Alc --- Dr To Capital Reserve (Profit on reissue No. of shares x Amt. recud Amt recud from previous + from new - F.V re-issued share holder share holder Profit Per Share

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• Types of Preference Shares D Cumulative: IF dividend not paid due to insufficient profit then this dividend get ammounted and will be paid in the year of profit to advision of aco 2) Non - Cumulative: Dividend will not get accumulated if not puid In other words, dividend will be paid only if in the year when there is profite all and To charge der 3) Participating: IF there is surply even after dividend payment of equity or capital repayment of equity (on liquidation) then participating preference share have right to participate in surplus. alling is specified then divident will be W Non-Participating: bridges about bing No participation in surplus. • If pothing is specified preference shares are = cumulative & non-participating 5) Convertable: Preference shares will be converted into 15 Bauther Abung All 6) Non-Convertable: mining Mining Si Preference shares remains the preference shares,

Paga No. dood day Redeemable: 7) Which will be redeemable (redeemed) after particular period. is Definition The Area was Duly Particular Disc. 8) Irredeemable: (Max. of life of preference shares is 20 yrs) -: Concept of irredeemable preference shares is pot in existence. DUER SUBSCRIPTION ton trans her Pro - rata allotment that bonched tractor 94 LNG ----1 9 7 Od Shares For Feited Shareholder Paid Shareholder paid only application money all Application & all otment Calculate the extra ant. No need to calculate paid on application by 10 de extra amt. as extra amt. is already adjusted applying ratio of application & allotment against allotment adi - dravis A. Mannungi isanggag is Alloted Shares X (Appl. money. CAL MANNEN Allot.money Intert of per share)

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	c) cash & cash Equivalent Total		
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Page No. Note 1: Share Capital and the second sec is numer, is we to premitted for the ---- Equity shares of ---- each ---- paid up Called up and allost xxx ---- Preference share of ---- each - ---- Paid up 3-1 - Muler issued at nor to parentale at pres ISSUE! OF DEBENTURES: DI SDUIL BIRD Referriction Deve Situations in case of Issue of Debentures. Note: Entries for issued of debentures is some as entries for issue of share except the point of discount 1055 on issue of debentures which is discussed h Plow: To Premium on red Allo Situation T. Debentures issued at F.V. & redemed at F.V. RV=10124 & animal to No discount floss Redemption value = 10 Francis : Perminer Louis and an and Situation I Debentures issued at discount & Reclemable at par an rai - da mas Issue Price = go Discount /losson = 10 Redemption Price - 100 issue of debenture the Merculan on Park 146 at the Severitic Premampin in

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Situation	TTE an birst
Debentu	res issued at par & redeemable at premium
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	To Securifies Premium Alc 10

Sand Ma 2, 10, 19 How to transfer [ Dr. Discount or loss 8-6 Issue of Debenture to P&L ALC. on IF repayment of debins IF repayment of will be made directly those debenture is made at the end of life & deb every year in equal Readal and Blancon installments roln CO 17 loss on issue = 1.50000 ⇒ Same Example and of deb. & life of value of deb is 150000 Deb. ismin IT = 5 yr. & every yr repayment is 300000 Discount deducted every yr: MODIFI (Recout 11.50.000 N= 30,000 (a) Then use sum of years 50 digit method. MARCELL VE MALINGEN on he check the -innt to yr:1 2 3 5 YA doll a 5 1 = 15 2 TO INCO GUARDING 15 1.50,00 x 5 = 50,000 150000x 4 -2nd 40.000 3rd 150000 x 3 80.000 150000 4th 20000 5th 150000 × 1 10000

Deta 2 1 10, 19 Issue of Depentures as Collateral Security (secondary) - Debentures kept with bank by company as a additional Security up with above ad ille Debentures are not gold to bank therefore no interest is payable on debentures (Interest will be paid only on Bank Loan) ca .....Same Example a hail J. No Entry for debenture TF entry is passed:issued as collaberal security. (Because in Debususpense Alc - Dr To % Deb. Alc there is no transaction) hodbon hinib In case of repayment fact can be disclosed of Loon:al note % Deb. Alc - Dr To Deb. Suspense Alc. 1115 Scanned by CamScanner

# **Issue, forfeiture of Shares & Issue of Debentures**

## **Multiple Choice Questions**

## **Issue of Shares**

**1.** E Ltd. has allotted 10,000 shares to the application of 14,000 shares on pro-rata basis. The amount payable on application is Rs. 2. F applied for 420 shares the number of shares allotted and the amount carried forward for adjustment against allotment due from F:

A. 60 shares; Rs. 120 B. 340 shares; Rs. 160

C. 320 shares; Rs. 200 D. 300 shares; Rs. 240

2. 10,000 equity shares of Rs. 10 each were issued to public at a premium of Rs. 2 per share. Application were received for 12,000 shares. Amount of securities premium account will be:
A. Rs. 20,000 B. Rs. 24,000 C. Rs. 4,000 D. Rs. 1,600

3. Called up share capital (46,000 shares 10 each) Rs. 4,60,000

Calls in arrear Rs. 7,500

Proposed dividend 5%

Amount of proposed dividend will be

**A.** Rs. 22625 **B.** Rs. 25000 **C.** Rs. 23000 **D.** None of the three.

## **Forfeiture of Shares**

**4.** 500 shares of Rs. 20 each issued at 5% discount are forfeited for non-payment of allotment and final call money@ Rs. 9 and Rs. 5 respectively. Amount credited to share forfeiture A/c is:**A.** Rs. 2,000**B.** Rs. 2,500**C.** Rs. 3,000**D.** Rs. 7,000

**5.** A company issued 5,000 shares of Rs. 10 each at 20 % premium payable as follows: Application – Rs. 2, Allotment – Rs. 5 (including premium) and First and Final call. His shares were forfeited. Calculate the amount credited to the Share Forfeited Account.

**A.** Rs. 1,000 **B.** Rs. 1,400 **C.** Rs. 400 **D.** None of these

**6.** The directors of company forfeited 1000 shares of Rs. 10 each, Rs. 7.5 paid up, for non-payment of call money of Rs. 2.5 per share. 700 of this shares are reissued @ Rs. 7 per share. The amount transfer to Capital Reserve A/c would be:

**A.** Rs. 2,500 **B.** Rs. 3,150 **C.** Rs. 3,500 **D.** Rs. 5,400

**7.** A company forfeited 100 equity shares of Rs. 100 each issued at premium of 50% (to be paid at the time of allotment) on which the first call money of Rs. 30 per share was not received, final call of Rs. 20 is yet to be made. These shares were subsequently reissued at Rs. 70 per share at Rs. 80 paid up. The amount credited to Capital Reserve is:

**A.** 4,000 **B.** 2,000 **C.** 3,000 **D.** None

8. A Ltd., acquired assets worth Rs. 11,25,000 from B. Ltd., by issue of equity shares of Rs. 100 at premium of 25%. The shares to be issued by A Ltd., for the purchase of consideration:
A 0000 shares
B 11250 shares
C 14062 shares
D 7500 shares

 A. 9000 shares
 B. 11250 shares
 C. 14063 shares
 D. 7500 shares

**9.** F Ltd. purchased Machinery from G Company for a book value of Rs.4,00,000. The consideration was paid by issue of 10% debentures of Rs.100 each at a discount of 20%. The debenture account was credited with **A.** Rs.4,00,000 **B.** Rs.5,00,000 **C.** Rs.3,20,000 **D.** Rs.4,80,000

**10.** Huge Ltd. issued 25,000 equity shares of Rs.100 each at a premium of Rs.15 each payable as Rs.25 on application, Rs.40 on allotment and balance in the first call. The applications were received for 75,000 equity shares but the company issued to them only 25,000 shares. Excess money was refunded to them after adjustment for further calls. Last call on 500 shares were not received and were forfeited after due notice. The above is the case of

A. Over subscription. B. Pro-rata allotment. C. Forfeiture of shares. D. All of the above

**11.** O Ltd. issued 10,000 equity shares of Rs.10 each at a premium of 20% payable Rs.4 on application (including premium), Rs.5 on allotment and the balance on first and final call. The company received applications for 15,000 shares and allotment was made pro-rata. P, to whom 3,000 shares were allotted, failed to pay the amount due on allotment. All his shares were forfeited after the call was made. The forfeited shares were reissued to Q at par. Assuming that no other bank transactions took place, the bank balance of the company after effecting the above transactions = ?

**A.** Rs.1,14,000 **B.** Rs.1,32,000 **C.** Rs.1,20,000 **D.** Rs.1,00,000

**Practical Questions** 

# Issue of shares

## **Question No. 1**

#### **RTP May 2018**

Pihu Limited issued at par 2,00,000 Equity shares of  $\gtrless$  10 each payable  $\gtrless$  2.50 on application;  $\gtrless$  3 on allotment;  $\gtrless$  2 on first call and balance on the final call. All the shares were fully subscribed. Mr. Pal who held 20,000 shares paid full remaining amount on first call itself. The final call which was made after 3 months from first call was fully paid except a shareholder having 2,000 shares who paid his due amount after 2 months along with interest on calls in arrears. Company also paid interest on calls in advance to Mr. Pal. You are required to prepare journal entries to record these transactions.

## Answer

#### **Book of Pihu Limited Journal**

Date	Particulars	L.F.	Debit	Credit
			Amount	Amount
			(₹)	(₹)
	Bank A/cDr.		5,00,000	
	To Equity Share Application A/c			5,00,000
	(Money received on applications for			
	2,00,000 shares @₹ 2.50 per share)			

Equity Share Application A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c (Transfer, of application, money, on 2,00,000)	5,00,000	5,00,000
shares to share capital)		
Equity Share Allotment A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c (Amount due on the allotment of 2,00,000 shares @ ₹ 3 per share)	6,00,000	6,00,000
Bank A/cDr. To Equity Share Allotment A/c (Allotment money received)	6,00,000	6,00,000
Equity Share First Call A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c (Being first call made due on 2,00,000 shares at ₹.2 per share)	4,00,000	4,00,000
Bank A/cDr. To Equity Share First Call A/c To Calls in Advance A/c (Being first call money received along with calls in advance on 20,000 shares at ₹2.50 per share)	4,50,000	4,00,000 50,000
Equity Share Final Call A/cDr. To Equity Share capital A/c (Being final call made due on 2,00,000 shares at ₹2.50 each)	5,00,000	5,00,000
Bank A/cDr. Calls in Advance /C Dr. Calls in Arrears A/c Dr. (Being final call received for 1,78,000 shares and calls in advance for 20,000 shares adjusted)	4,45,000 50,000 5,000	5,00,000
Interest on Calls in Advance A/cDr. To shareholders A/c Being interest made due on calls in advance of ₹50,000 at the rate of 12% p.a.)	1,500	1,500
Shareholders A/cDr. To bank A/c (Being payment of Interest made to shareholders)	1,500	1,500
Shareholders A/cDr. To Interest on Calls in Arrears A/c (Being interest on calls in arrears made due at the rate of 10%)	83.34	83.34
Bank A/cDr. To Calls in Arrears A/c To Shareholders A/c (Being money received from shareholder for calls in arrears and interest thereupon)	5,083.34	5,000 83.34

## Question No. 2

## May 2018 (10 MARKS)

Piyush Limited is a company with an authorized share capital of ₹ 2,00,00,000 in equity shares of ₹ 10 each, of which 15,00,000 shares had been issued and fully paid on 30<sup>th</sup> June, 2017. The company proposed to make a further issue of 1,30,000 shares of ₹ 10 each at a price of ₹ 12 each, the arrangements for payment being:

- (i)  $\mathbf{\xi}$  2 per share payable on application, to be received by 1<sup>st</sup> July, 2017;
- (ii) Allotment to be made on 10<sup>th</sup> July, 2017 and a further ₹ 5 per share (including the premium) to be payable;
- (iii) The final call for the balance to be made, and the money received by 30<sup>th</sup> April, 2018.

Applications were received for 4,20,000 shares and were dealt with as follows:

- 1) Applicants for 20,000 shares received allotment in full;
- 2) Applicants for 1,00,000 shares received an allotment of one share for every two applied for; no money was returned to these applicants, the surplus on application being used to reduce the amount due on allotment;
- 3) Applicants for 3,00,000 shares received an allotment of one share for every five shares applied for; the money due on allotment was retained by the company, the excess being returned to the applicants; and
- 4) The money due on final call was received on the due date.

You are required to record these transactions (including cash items) in the journal of Piyush limited.

## Answer

Date		Dr.	Cr.
2017	Particulars	₹	₹
July 1	Bank A/c (Note 1 - Column 3)Dr. To Equity Share Application A/c (Being application money received on 4,20,000 shares @ ₹ 2 per share)	8,40,000	8,40,000
July 10	Equity Share Application A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c To Equity Share Allotment A/c (Note 1 - Column 5) To Bank A/c (Note 1-Column 6) (Being application money on 1,30,000 shares transferred to Equity Share Capital Account; on 2,00,000 shares adjusted with allotment and on 90,000 shares refunded as per Board's Resolution Nodated)	8,40,000	2,60,000 4,00,000 1,80,000
	Equity Share Allotment A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c To Securities Premium a/c (Being allotment money due on 1,30,000 shares @ ₹ 5 each including premium at ₹ 2 each as per Board's Resolution Nodated)	6,50,000	3,90,000 2,60,000

### Journal of Piyush Limited

	Bank A/c (Note 1 - Column 8)Dr. To Equity Share Allotment A/c (Being balance allotment money received)	2,50,000	2,50,000
	Equity Share Final Call A/cDr. To Equity Share Capital A/c (Being final call money due on 1,30,000 shares @ ₹ 5 per share as per Board's Resolution Nodated)	6,50,000	6,50,000
April 30	Bank A/cDr. To Equity Share Final Call A/c (Being final call money on 1,30,000 shares @ ₹ 5 each received)	6,50,000	6,50,000

## Working Note:

Calculation for Adjustment and Refund

Category	No. of Shares Applied for	No. of Shares Allotted	Amount Received on Application (1x ₹ 2)	Amount Required on Application (2 x ₹ 2)	Amount adjusted on Allotment	Refund [3-4-5]	Amount due on Allotment	Amount received on Allotment
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(i)	20,000	20,000	40,000	40,000	Nil	Nil	1,00,000	1,00,000
(ii)	1,00,000	50,000	2,00,000	1,00,000	1,00,000	Nil	2,50,000	1,50,000
(iii)	3,00,000	60,000	6,00,000	1,20,000	3,00,000	1,80,000	3,00,000	Nil
TOTAL	4,20,000	1,30,000	8,40,000	2,60,000	4,00,000	1,80,000	6,50,000	2,50,000

## **Forfeiture of Shares**

**Question No. 3** 

RTP May 2018, 2019, RTP Nov. 2019

Mr. Hello who was the holder of 4,000 preference shares of ₹ 100 each, on which ₹ 75 per share has been called up could not pay his dues on Allotment and First call each at ₹ 25 per share. The Directors forfeited the above shares and reissued 3,000 of such shares to Mr. X at ₹ 65 per share paid-up as ₹75 per share.

You are required to prepare journal entries to record the above forfeiture and re-issue in the books of the company.

## Answer

## In the books of Company Journal

Particulars	Dr. ₹	Cr. ₹
Preference Share Capital A/c (4,000 x ₹75) To Preference Share Allotment A/c To Preference Share First Call A/c To Forfeited Share A/c (Being the forfeiture of 4,000 preference shares ₹ 75 each being called up for non-payment of allotment and first call money as per Board's Resolution No dated)	3,00,000	1,00,000 1,00,000 1,00,000
Bank A/c (3,000 x ₹65) Forfeited Shares A/c (3,000 x ₹10) To Preference Share Capital A/c (Being re-issue of 3,000 shares at ₹ 65 per share paid-up as ₹75 as per Board's Resolution Nodated)	1,95,000 30,000	2,25,000
Forfeited Shares A/c To Capital Reserve A/c (Note 1) (Being profit on re-issue transferred to Capital/Reserve)	45,000	45,000

Working Note:

Calculation of amount to be transferred to Capital ReserveForfeited amount per share =₹ 1,00,000/4,000= ₹ 25Loss on re-issue =₹ 75 - ₹ 65= ₹ 10Surplus per share re-issued₹ 15Transferred to capital Reserve ₹ 15 x 3,000 = ₹ 45,000.

# **Issue of Debentures**

## **Question No. 4**

## RTP May 2018, Mock Test March 2019

Riya Limited issued 20,000 14% Debentures of the nominal value of ₹1,00,00,000 as follows:

(a) To sundry persons for cash at 90% of nominal value of ₹ 50,00,000.

(b) To a vendor for purchase of fixed assets worth ₹ 20,00,000 - ₹ 25,00,000 nominal value.

(c) To the banker as collateral security for a loan of ₹ 20,00,000 - ₹ 25,00,000 nominal value.

You are required to prepare necessary journal entries Journal Entries.

## Answer

## In the books of Riya Company Ltd. Journal Entries

Date	Particulars	Dr.	Cr.
		₹	₹
(a)	Bank A/cDr. To Debentures Application A/c (Being the application money received on 10,000 debentures @ ₹ 450 each)	45,00,000	45,00,000
	Debentures Application A/cDr. Discount on issue of Debentures A/cDr. To 14% Debentures A/c (Being the issue of 10,000 14% Debentures @ 90% as per Board's Resolution Nodated)	45,00,000 5,00,000	50,00,000
(b)	Fixed Assets A/cDr. To Vendor A/c (Being the purchase of fixed assets from vendor)	20,00,000	20,00,000
	Vendor A/cDr. Discount on Issue of Debentures A/cDr. To 14% Debentures A/c (Being the issue of debentures of ₹ 25,00,000 to vendor to satisfy his claim)	20,00,000 5,00,000	25,00,000
(c)	Bank A/cDr. To Bank Loan A/c (See Note) (Being a loan of ₹ 20,00,000 taken from bank by issuing debentures of ₹25,00,000 as collateral security)	20,00,000	20,00,000

**Note:** No entry is made in the books of account of the company at the time of making issue of such debentures. In the "Notes to Accounts" of Balance Sheet, the fact that the debentures being issued as collateral security and outstanding are shown by a note under the liability secured.

#### CA Foundation – **MATHEMATICS** | Revision Notes | Important Chapters | Author: **CA. Pranav Popat**

#### RATIO

Meaning of Ratio	Division of two quantities a and b of same units. Denoted by a:b	
Inverse Ratio	b:a is inverse ratio of a:b	
Compound Ratio	Compound ratio of a:b and c:d is ac:bd	
Duplicate Ratio	Duplicate ratio of a:b is a <sup>2</sup> :b <sup>2</sup>	
Sub-duplicate Ratio	Duplicate ratio of a:b is $\sqrt[2]{a}:\sqrt[2]{b}$	
Triplicate Ratio	Triplicate ratio of a:b is a <sup>3</sup> :b <sup>3</sup>	
Sub-triplicate Ratio	Triplicate ratio of a:b is $\sqrt[3]{a}$ .	
Commensurate	If ratio can be expressed in the form of integers	
Incommensurate	If ratio cannot be expressed in the form of integers	
Continued Ratio	Ratio of three or more quantities e.g. a:b:c	

#### PROPORTION

Proportion	a,b,c,d are in proportion if a:b = c:d [it is an equality of two ratios]	
Term/ Proportional	first = a, second = b, third =c, fourth = d	
Mean Proportional	In a continued proportion a:b=b:c, b <sup>2</sup> =ac, b is called mean proportional	
Cross Product Rule	If a:b=c:d, then ad = bc	
Invertendo	If a:b=c:d, then b:a = d:c	
Alternendo	If a:b=c:d, then a:c = b:d	
Componendo	If a:b=c:d, then (a+b):b = (c+d):d	
Dividendo	If a:b=c:d, then $(a-b)$ :b = $(c-d)$ :d	
Componendo and	If a:b=c:d, then $(a+b):(a-b) = (c+d):(c-d)$ or $(a-b):(a+b) = (c-d):(c+d)$	
Dividendo	Angening students to Destaccionals	
Addendo	If a:b = c:d = e:f = = k, then also (a+c+e+):(b+d+f+) = k	

#### INDICES

Index / Indices	Here in 4 <sup>2</sup> , 4 is base and 2 is power or index. Plural of index is indices	
Basic 1	$a^{0}$ = 1, any number raised to power zero equals to 1	
Basic 2	$\sqrt{a} = a^{1/2}, \sqrt[3]{a} = a^{1/3}$	
Law 1	$a^m \times a^n = a^{(m+n)}$	
Law 2	$a^m / a^n = a^{(m-n)}$	
Law 3	$a^{(m)^n} = a^{m \times n} = (a^m)^n$	
Law 4	$(ab)^n = a^n b^n$	

#### LOG

Basic	If $2^4$ =16 [2 is base, 4 is power], then $\log_2 16 = 4$ (i.e log of 16 base 2)
How to remember?	2 should be raised to what power so that it becomes 16
	2 ka kitna power karne wo 16 ho jaye, ans is 4
Standard Result	$\log_a a = 1, \log_a 1 = 0$
Law 1	$\log_a(mn) = \log_a m + \log_a n$
Law 2	$\log_a(\frac{m}{n}) = \log_a m - \log_a n$
Law 3	$\log_a m^n = n \log_a m$
Change of Base	$\log_b m = \frac{\log_a m}{\log_a b}$

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#### **EQUATIONS - BASICS**

Equation Means	mathematical statement of equality	
Identity Equation	If equality is true for all the values of variable, ex. $2x + 3 = x + x + 3$	
<b>Conditional Equation</b>	If the equality is true for certain value of the variable ex. $2x + 1 = 3$	
Solution or Root	It is the value of variable that satisfies the equation	
Degree	Highest power of variable in equation	

#### SIMPLE EQUATION

1			1	
Туре	Linear equation with one unknown	Linear equation with two unknowns	Quadratic Equation	Cubic Equation
Form	ax + b = 0, where a and b are constants	ax + by + c = 0 a,b,c are constants	$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ a,b,c are constants with a $\neq 0$	$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0$
Degree	1 (One)	1	2	3
Roots	1 (One)	1 each for both	2 (α, β)	3
Remarks	NA	Need minimum two equations to get roots	Trial Error/ Formula based	Trial and Error
Methods for solution	NA	1. Elimination 2. Cross Multiplication	$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$	NA
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#### rn wit LINEAR EQUATIONS WITH TWO UNKNOWNS

Elimination	Eliminate one variable by algebraic operations on given equations, and then calculate the value of variable that remains. Using this value, find out the value of other root.	
Cross Multiplication	$a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0, a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$ Solution is given by: $\frac{x}{b_1c_2 - b_2c_1} = \frac{y}{c_1a_2 - c_2a_1} = \frac{1}{a_1b_2 - a_2b_1}$	

#### QUADRATIC EQUATION

Formula	$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$		
Sum of Roots	$\alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a} = \frac{\text{coefficient of } x}{\text{coefficient of } x^2}$		
Product of Roots	$\alpha \times \beta = \frac{c}{a} = \frac{\text{constant term}}{\text{coefficient of } x^2}$		
How to construct a quadratic equation	$x^2$ - (sum of roots: $\alpha + \beta$ ) $x$ + Product of Roots: $\alpha \times \beta = 0$		
Nature of Roots	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c } \hline Condition & Nature of Roots \\ \hline $b^2-ac=0$ & Real and Equal ($\alpha=$$)$ \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ & Real and Unequal \\ \hline $b^2-ac<0$ & Imaginary \\ \hline $b^2-ac$ is a perfect square & Real, Unequal and Rational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequal and Irrational \\ \hline $b^2-ac>0$ but not perfect square & Real, Unequare & Real, Unequare & Real, Unequare & Real,$		
Irrational Roots	If one root is $(m + \sqrt{n})$ , then other root will be $(m - \sqrt{n})$		

#### MATRICES

Matrix	A rectangular array of numbers (real/complex) with m rows and n columns	
Order of Matrix	Order is m × n where m= no. of rows and n = no. of columns	
Row Matrix	Matrix having only one row [1 4 2]	
Column Matrix	Matrix having only one column $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Zero/ Null Matrix	If all the elements of matrix (any order) are zero $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	
Square Matrix	If in a matrix, no. of columns = no. of rows $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 9 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Rectangular Matrix	If in a matrix, no. of columns $\neq$ no. of rows $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 9 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$	
Leading Diagonal	Diagonal elements starting from top left to bottom right	
Diagonal Matrix	A square matrix where all the elements except leading diagonal elements are zero. $ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} $	
Scalar Matrix	A diagonal square matrix where all the leading elements are equal $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Unit Matrix	A scalar matrix whose leading diagonal elements are equal to 1 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$	
Upper Triangle Matrix	A matrix whose all the elements below the leading diagonal are zero $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$	
Lower Triangle Matrix	A matrix whose all the elements above the leading diagonal are zero $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$	
Sub Matrix	The matrix obtained by deleting one or more rows or columns or both of a matrix is called its sub matrix.	
Equal Matrices	Two matrices are are equal matrices if order of both is same and corresponding elements are same	
Addition/ Subtraction	All the corresponding elements will be added/ subtracted to make a new matrix. (only possible when both matrix are of same order)	
Properties of Addition/ Subtraction	<b>a</b> . A+B = B+A [Commutative], <b>b</b> . (A+B)+C = A+(B+C) [Associative], <b>c</b> . k(A+B) = kA + kB, k is constant	
Multiplication	Multiplication of two matrices is possible only when no. of columns of first matrix = no. of rows of second matrix. <i>[To understand how to do multiplication – refer page 2.40 Example 3]</i>	
Properties of Multiplication	<b>a.</b> In general, $A \times B \neq B \times A$ , <b>b.</b> $(A \times B) \times C = A \times (B \times C)$ if defined, <b>c.</b> $A(B+C) = AB + AC$ also, $(A+B)C = AC+BC$ , <b>d.</b> if $AB = AC$ then $B \neq C$ in general, <b>e.</b> $A \times O = O$ [O means null matrix], <b>f.</b> $A \times I = IA = O$ [I means Unit Matrix],	

Transpose of a Matrix	A matrix obtained by changing rows and columns of a matrix <b>A</b> is called as Transpose Matrix of <b>A</b> . It is denoted by - <b>A</b> <sup>T</sup> or <b>A</b> '		
Properties of Transpose	a. $A = (A')'$ b. $(A+B)' = A' + B'$ c. $(KA)' = K.A'$ d. $(AB)' = B' \times A'$		
Symmetric Matrix	If after transposing also there is no change in matrix. A'=A		
Skew Symmetric	If after transposing a matrix, it becomes its negative. A'=–A		

#### DETERMINANTS

Determinants	It is a valuation of a matrix using some rules. It only applies for square matrix		
Denote	It is denoted by <b>det A</b> or <b>  A  </b> or <b>Δ</b>		
2 × 2 Matrix	$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = (ad - bc)$		
3 × 3 Matrix	$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1(b_2c_3 - b_3c_2) - a_2(b_1c_3 - b_3c_1) + a_3(b_1c_2 - b_2c_1)$		
Minor	M <sub>ij</sub> =Minor of the element located in i <sup>th</sup> row and j <sup>th</sup> column. It is equal to determinant of sub matrix obtained after i <sup>th</sup> row and j <sup>th</sup> column		
Cofactor	$C_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$		
3 × 3 Formula using Cofactors	$a_{11}c_{11} + a_{12}c_{12} + a_{13}c_{13}$		
Properties	a. $\Delta$ remains unaltered if its rows or columns are interchanged.b. $\Delta$ change its sign if two rows or columns interchangesc. If any two rows or columns of a determinant are identical, then $\Delta = 0$ d. If each element of matrix is multiplied 		
Singular Matrix	if det A = 0, then singular matrix otherwise non-singular matrix		
Adjoint Matrix	Adjoint of A Matrix is the transpose of the Cofactor Matrix		
Inverse Matrix	If A is a square matrix, and det A $\neq$ 0 (non-singular), then $A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ A } \times Adj.A$		
Cramer's rule to find solution of linear eq. in 3 variables	$x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta}$ , $y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta}$ , $z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta}$ , provided $\Delta \neq 0$ [ $\Delta x$ means determinant of matrix by replacing first column of matrix with RHS values of equations] See Example		
Properties of Cramer's	a. If $\Delta \neq 0$ , the system has unique solutionb. If $\Delta = 0$ and atleast one of $\Delta x$ , $\Delta y$ , $\Delta z \neq 0$ , then system has no solution and it is inconsistentc. If $\Delta = 0$ and all of $\Delta x$ , $\Delta y$ , $\Delta z \neq 0$ , then system may or may not have solution,. If it has solution, equations are dependent and there will be infinite no. of solutions. If it doesn't have solution, equations are inconsistent.		

#### **SEQUENCE AND SERIES**

Sequence	An ordered collection of numbers arranged as per some definite rule or pattern. $a_1, a_2, a_3,, a_n$ is a sequence if you are able to identify pattern and there by the value of $a_n$ (n <sup>th</sup> term)			
Examples of Sequence	Collection           1, 4, 9, 17, 18,           20, 17, 4, 3, 1,           1, 4, 7, 10, 13,           20, 10, 5, 5/2,	Ordered Yes Yes Yes Yes	Rule/ Pattern No No Yes +3 on each term Yes ÷2 on each term	Conclusion Not a sequence Not a sequence Yes Sequence Yes Sequence
Terms	$a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ are called as 1 <sup>st</sup> Term, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Term, 3 <sup>rd</sup> Termnth term respectively			
Types of sequence	Finite Sequence – sequence having finite elements $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{n}$ Infinite Sequence – sequence having infinite elements $\{a_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$			
Series	Sum of the elements of the sequence is called as Series. $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$ $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_n$ $S_1 = a_1,  S_2 = a_1 + a_2,  S_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3$			
Arithmetic Progression (A.P.)	AP is a sequence in which each next term is obtained by adding a constant 'd' to the preceding term. This constant 'd' is called as common difference. Let say $a =$ first term and $d =$ common difference, then AP can be written as $-a$ , $a+d$ , $a+2d$ , $a+3d$ $a+(n-1)d$			
Common Difference 'd'	$d$ = any term – preceding term or { $t_n - t_{n-1}$ }			
n <sup>th</sup> term of an AP	$t_n = a + (n-1)d$			
Insert AMs between two numbers	If there is a problem to find out AMs between two number, consider it as an AP with first number as first term of AP and other number as last term of AP. Number of AMs required = no. of terms between first term and last term Example: If 3 AMs between a and b is asked, form an AP as below: $a, \_, \_, \_, b$			
Sum of first n terms of an AP	$S_n = \frac{n(a+t_n)}{2}$ or $S_n = \frac{n}{2} \{2a + (n-1)d\}$			
Other Useful Formulas	Sum of first n natural numbers $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ Sum of first n odd numbers $n^2$ Sum of squares of first n $\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ natural numbers $6$ Sum of cubes of first n natural $\left\{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right\}^2$			

	GP is a sequence of terms where each term is a constant multiple of preceding	
Geometric	term. This constant multiplier is called as common ratio.	
Progression (G.P.)	Let say $a =$ first term and $r =$ common ratio then GP can be written as	
	$a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots, ar^{n-1}$	
nth term of a GP	$t_n = ar^{(n-1)}$	
Common Ratio 'r'	$r = \frac{\text{any term}}{\text{preceding term}} = \frac{t_n}{t_{n-1}}$	
	If there is a problem to find out GMs between two number, consider it as a GP	
Insert GMs	with first number as first term of GP and other number as last term of GP.	
between two	Number of GMs required = no. of terms between first term and last term	
numbers	Example: If 3 GMs between a and b is asked, form an GP as below:	
numbers	a,,, b	
Sum of first n	$\mathbf{S} = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{m}$ when $r < 1$ $\frac{a(r^n-1)}{m}$ when $r > 1$	
terms of a GP	$D_n = (1-r)$ when $r < 1$ , $(r-1)$ when $r > 1$	
Sum of infinite GP	$S_{\infty} = \frac{a}{(1-r)}$ [only possible when r<1]	
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#### TIME VALUE OF MONEY

Basics	<ul> <li>→ The sum of money r</li> <li>→ Rs. 100 Note given later due to various</li> <li>Risk Factor</li> <li>Liquidity</li> <li>Preference</li> <li>Inflation</li> <li>Opportunity</li> <li>Cost</li> </ul>	eceived in future is less valuable than it is today today is more valuable than Rs. 100 note given a year reasons: Risk that payer will not give money Cash given today will be immediately available for spending, hence more valuable In general, as the time goes on purchasing power of the money gets reduced Cash given today could be invested to a better investment that could appreciate its value
Partied involved in Financial Transaction	Name of Parties Lender Borrower Investor Investee	Treatment of InterestIncomeExpenseIncomeExpenseExpense
Simple Interest	Formula P Print r t Accumulated Amount under SI	$S.I. = \frac{P.r.t}{100}$ Cipal means amount of money invested or loan taken Rate of simple interest per annum Time of loan / investment in years Amount under SI = Principal + Simple Interest (amount is also called as Balance)
Compound Interest vs. Simple Interest	Simple Interess → Interest earned is v every time it is ear → No re-investment o earned in earlier p → Amount includes P Interest on that Pri	tCompound Interestwithdrawn ned→Interest earned is not withdrawn till maturityof interest eriods→Re-investment of interest earned will be donerincipal and ncipal→Amount includes Principal and interest on that Principal and interest on interest earned in the earlier periods
Effective Rate of Interest	MeaningThe rate of interest stated in question does not always mean that effectively interest charged/ received will be same % when compared at annual level. Effectiveness depends on Compounding.Higher the compounding for a rate of interestHigher the effective rate for the yearFormula $E = [(1 + i)^n - 1]$ nhere n means no. of periods in one years considering the compounding	

		It means no. of times interest is compounded in a year or no. of conversions in a year. Compounding means calculation of interest by bank. For e.g.	
	Compounding Frequency and Conversion Periods	Conversion PeriodCompounding FrequencyYearly1Half-yearly2Quarterly4Monthly12Daily365While calculating compound interest, we need to adjustinterest rate and time period using compounding frequency.	
	Formula for Accumulated	$A = P(1+i)^n$	
	A	Accumulated amount as per CI	
	Р	Principal means amount of money invested or loan taken	
Compound Interest	Elear	Interest rate (adjusted as per compounding) e.g. If rate of interest given is $r=10\%$ and if compounding is half- yearly, $i = \frac{10\%}{2} = 5\% = 0.05$	
	Transformi	It means no. of periods (not necessarily no. of years). It depends on type of compounding. E.g. if compounding is quarterly and $t = 2$ years, it means we will have $2 \times 4 = 8$ no. of periods. $n=8$	
	Shortcut in calculator to	Example: $P=1000$ , $i = 10\%$ , $n=3$ then Calculator Steps: Write P i.e 1000 then press	
	Direct Formula of Amount in Calculator	Example: P=1000, $i = 10\%$ (three times because $n=3$ )Example: P=1000, $i = 10\% = 0.1$ , n=3 thenCalculator Steps: $1 + 0.1 \times \equiv \equiv$ (first equal will be consideredas power 2, second as 3 and so on) $\times$ 1000 (Principal)	
	How to calculate CI?	$A = P + CI \Rightarrow CI = A - P$ $CI = P(1 + i)^{n} - P$ $CI = P[(1 + i)^{n} - 1]$	
Annuity	Definition Annuity Regula Annuity Due	<ul> <li>→ Sequence of periodic payments (installment)</li> <li>→ Same amount</li> <li>→ Regularly</li> <li>→ For a specified period of time</li> <li>r Installment commencing from the end of the period</li> <li>Installment commencing from the beginning of the period</li> </ul>	
Future Value	Future value is the cash value of an investment at some time in the future. It is tomorrow's value of today's money compounded at the rate of interest.		
Present Value	Present value is today's value of tomorrow's money discounted at the interest rate.		



Present Value	Formula for PV of Annuity Regular	$PVA = A_{I} \times [PVAF(n, i)]$ $PVA = A_{I} \left[ \frac{(1+i)^{n} - 1}{i(1+i)^{n}} \right]$ or $PVA = \frac{A_{I}}{i} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{(1+i)^{n}} \right]$
of Annuity	Formula for PV of Annuity Due	A <sub>I</sub> = amount of installment or Annuity PVA Regular for one shorter period + Initial Cashflow
	Calculator Trick of PVAF (Present Value Annuity Factor)	$1+i$ $\div$ $\equiv$ $\equiv$ <i>n</i> times GT



	Darticulara	Application	Domort	
	Particulars	Application	Remark	
	Sinking Fund	Annuity is the amount which is required in future and annuity amounts are the regular savings required for creation of fund	Sinking fund means a fund created for specific purpose where a big amount of money is required at any specific point in future. An annuity is set aside and invested so that it will mature on that specific date giving the required amount.	
	Leasing	Present Value of Annuity (Lease Rentals) are compared with Asset Cash down price	LessorOwner of Asset, who gives asset on rent. Lease Rentals are income for LessorLesseeUser of the asset who has taken asset on rent. Lease Rentals are expense for Lessee	
Applications of Time Value of Money	Capital Expenditure or Investment Decision	Present value of savings and benefits are compared with purchase value of asset, to decide whether asset to purchase or not	Capital ExpenditureExpenditure on capital assets in anticipation of future benefitsFutureContribution from sales and other benefits or savings derived from a capital investment	
	Valuation of Bond	Present value of interest income and maturity value is compared with the issue price of bond	It is a debt security. Type ofBondloan taken by company from public. Like debenturesValuewrittenValuewrittenValuewrittenValueis used to calculateValueis used to calculateIssueActualPricepurchase the bondMaturity valueAmountIssueActualMaturity valueor bond	
	Meaning Formula	An annuity that con	tinues till infinite period of time is called as Perpetuity. Pert Value of Perpetuity $= \frac{A_I}{I}$	
Perpetuity	rpetuity Formula Growing Perpetuity Present Value		ue of Growing Perpetuity = $\frac{A_I}{(i-g)}$ g is constant growth rate	
Net Present Value	NPV = Present Value of Cash Inflows – Present Value of Cash Outflows If NPV $\ge 0$ , accept the proposal If NPV $\le 0$ reject the proposal			
Nominal Rate of Return	Real Rate of Return = Nominal Rate of Return – Rate of Inflation			
CAGR	Compoundo Inter	ed Annual Growth rat est. It is used to see r	e is the interest rate we used in Compound eturns on investment on yearly basis	

SET

Sat maans	Collection of well-defined distinct objects. It is usually denoted by capital letter		
Element	Each object of set is called as element. It is usually denoted by small letter		
Braces Form	When set shown as a list of elements within braces {} e g A = {1 3 5 7}		
Descriptive Form	Set can be presented in statement form e.g. $A = set of first four odd numbers$		
Descriptive rorm	Here Set is written in the algebraic form in this format –		
Set-Builder or	$\{x: x \text{ satisfies some properties or rule}\}$ . The method of writing this form is		
Algebraic form	called as Property or Rule method		
	It is denoted by 'E' $a \in A$ means that element $a$ is one of the element of Set A $\#$		
Belongs to	used for do not belongs to		
	Set $A$ is a subset of Set B if all the elements of Set A also exist in Set B. It is		
Subset	denoted as - $A \subset B$		
Proper Subset	A is a proper subset of B if A is a subset of B and $A \neq B$		
Improper Subset	Two equal sets are improper subsets of each other		
Null Set	A set having no elements is called as Null or Empty Set. It is denoted by $\mathbf{\phi}$		
No. of subsets	Formula: no. of subsets = $2^n$ no. of proper subsets = $2^{n-1}$		
Intersection	Intersection set of A and B is a set that contains common elements between		
denoted by <b>[A∩B]</b>	both of the sets		
Union	Union set of A and B is a set that contains all the elements contained in both the		
denoted by [AUB]	sets without repeating the common elements		
	The set which contains all the elements under consideration in a particular		
Universal Set	problem is called the universal set generally denoted by <b>S</b>		
Complement Cot	A complement set of set P is a set that contains all the elements contained in		
complement Set	the universe other than elements of P. It is denoted by <b>P' or P</b> <sup>c</sup>		
Set (A D)	A-B is a set that contains elements of A other than those which are common in		
Set (A-D)	A and B. $[A-B = A - A \cap B]$		
Do Morgan's Law	1. $(P \cup Q)' = P' \cap Q'$		
De Morgan 5 Law	$2.  (P \cap Q)' = P' \cup Q'$		
	Iniversal		
	Cot		
	301		
	Union Set		
	AUB		
Vonn Diagnama			
venn Diagrams			
	Intersection		
	Set AOB		
	Set Ai ID		
	Set A-B (A () B)		
2 sets – Formula	$n(A \cup B) = n(A) + n(B) - n(A \cap B)$		
3 sets – Formula	$n(A \cup B \cup C) = n(A) + n(B) + n(C) - n(A \cap B) - n(B \cap C) - n(C \cap A) + n(A \cap B \cap C)$		

	A or B , atleast A or B, either A or B	A∪B		
Venn Diagram	A and B, Both A and B	A∩B		
related some	Only A means	A–B		
basics	Only B means	B-A		
	Neither A nor B	(A∪B)′		
Cardinal Number	No. of distinct elements contained in a	finite Set A is called Cardinal Number.		
	For Set $A = \{4, 6, 8, 3\}$ ,	cardinal no. $n(A) = 4$		
Equivalent Set	Two sets A and B are equivalent sets if $n(A) = n(B)$			
Power Set	Collection of all possible subsets of a given set A is called Power set of Set A. It			
	is denoted by P(A)			
Ordered Pair	Pair of two elements both taken from different Sets. E.g. if $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ then			
	ordered pair is (a,b) where first element will always from A and second always			
	from B in every pair			
Product of Sets	Also called as Cartesian Product. If A and B are two non-empty sets, then set of			
	all the ordered pairs such that $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ is called as Product Set. It is			
	denoted by $A \times B$ . [ $A \times B = \{(a:b): a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$ ]			
Why Product?	$n(A \times B) = n(A) \times n(B)$ i.e. cardinal no. of product set is equal to product of			
	cardinal no. of each set			

### FUNCTION

Relation	Any subset	of product set is called $A \times B$ is said to define relation from A to B.	
	It's any coll	ection of ordered pairs taken from a product set. Onals	
Function (set	A relation where no ordered pairs have same first elements is called Function.		
based definition)	First element of the ordered should not be repeated in the relation set. (a,b) all		
	a should be unique for different values of b		
Function (non set	A rule whic	h associate all elements of A to B is called function from A to B. It is	
based definition)	denoted by	$f: A \to B \text{ or } f(x) \text{ of } B$	
Image, Pre-image	f(x) is calle	ed the image of x and x is called the pre-image of $f(x)$	
	Pre-image i	s input and Image is output	
Domain, Co-	Let $f: A \to B$	B, then A is called domain of f and B is called the co-domain of f.	
domain, Range	Set of all t	he images (contained in B) of pre-images taken from A is called	
	Range. Don	nain is a set of all pre-images and Range is a set of all images. Also	
	Range is a s	subset of Co-domain.	
Types of	One-One	Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ , if different elements in A have different images in B	
Functions	Function	then f is one-one or injective function or one-one mapping	
	Onto	Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ , if every element in B has at least one pre-image in	
	Function	A, then <i>f</i> is an onto or surjective function	
	Into	Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ , if even a single element in B is not having pre-image	
	Function	in A, then it is said to be into function	
	Bijection	If a function is both one-one and onto it is called as Bijection	
	Function	Function	
	Identity	If domain and co-domain are same then function is identity	
	Function	function Let $f: A \to A$ and $f(x) = x$	
	Constant	If all pre-images in A will have a single constant value in B then	
	Function	the function is constant function	
Equal Function	Two functions <i>f and a</i> are said to be equal function if both have same domain		
	and same range		
Inverse Function	Let $f: A \to A$	<i>B</i> , is a one-one and onto function. Every value of $x$ (preimage)will	

	give unique image $f(x)$ using $f$ . If there is a function that takes value of images as input and gives pre-images as output, such function is called inverse function. It is denoted as $f^{-1}: B \to A$ .
Composite	A function of function is called composite function. Example: if
Function	<i>f and g</i> are functions, then $f[g(x)]ana g[f(x)]are composite functions. Also called as fog or gof$

#### RELATION

Relations	Any subset of product set is called $A \times B$ is said to define relation from A to B.		
	It's any collection of ordered pairs taken from a product set.		
Domain and	If R is a relat	ion from A to B, then set of all first elements of ordered pairs is	
Range	domain and s	et of all second elements of ordered pairs is range.	
There a Chaladian	Reflexive	If S is a universal set, $S = \{a, b, c\}$ then R is a relation from S to S. If this R contains all the ordered pairs in the form (a,a) in S×S, then it is a reflexive relation	
Types of Relation	Transitive	If $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}$ , then if $(b,a) \in \mathbb{R}$ then $\mathbb{R}$ is called Symmetric If $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}$ and also $(b,c) \in \mathbb{R}$ , then if $(a,c) \in \mathbb{R}$ such relation is Transitive. [ if in a relation only $(a,b)$ is present but $(b,c)$ is not present we will consider it as transitive relation]	
Equivalence Relation	If a relation is Reflexive, Transitive and Symmetric as well, then it is called as Equivalence Relation		
La Transforming students to Professionals			

### **Permutations and Combinations**

Fundamental Principles of Counting	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Multiplication Rule} \\ \text{AND} \rightarrow \text{Multiply} \\ \\ \text{Addition Rule} \\ \text{OR} \rightarrow \text{Add} \\ \end{array}$	If one thing can been done, anot ways then the to <b>things simultan</b> If two alternativ respectively then	be done in 'm' ways and when it has her thing can be done in 'n' different tal number of ways of doing <b>both the</b> <b>eously = <math>m \times n</math></b> e jobs can be done in 'm' and 'n' way n <b>either of the two jobs</b> can be done
	It is written as n! or $n = n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3 \times 2 \times 1$		
Factorial	0! = 1, 1! = 1, 2! = 2×1, 3	3! = 3×2×1, 4! = 4	×3×2×1
Permutations means	It is the ways of <b>arrang</b> regard being paid <b>to or</b>	<b>ging or selecting</b> <b>der</b> of the arrang	g things from a group of things with due gement or selection.
Basic Example 1	<b>Arranging</b> three perso ACB, BAC, BCA, CAB, CB	ons A,B,C for a grad BA}, thus total no	roup photograph can be done as {ABC, . of ways is 6
Basic Example 2	<b>Selecting</b> two persons participants P,Q,R,S car SR}, thus total no. of wa winner and second is ru	s as Winner an 1 be done as {PQ ays is 12 (here in unner up)	nd Runner-up for a contest having 4 , PR, PS, QP, QR, QS, RP, RQ, RS, SP, SQ, n the set of arrangement first element is
Theorem for Permutations	The number of permutations of n things chosen r at a time is given by ${}^{n}P_{r} = \frac{n!}{n-r!}$ or $n(n-1)(n-2) \dots (n-r+1)$		
Basic Example 3	${}^{5}P_{3} = \frac{5!}{(5-3)!} = \frac{5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1}{2 \times 1} = 5 \times 4 \times 3 = 60$ Or simply here r = 3, so do reverse multiplication of 5 up to three terms so it will be $5 \times 4 \times 3 = 60$		
Use of Theorem	We are able to find no. of ways manually also <i>(as done in Basic Example 1 and 2)</i> but that is easy for lower values of n and r. When there is a higher value of n, manually creating the set of arrangements will be tedious which requires the need of this theorem. Check Basic Example 1 and Example 2 using theorem		
Why 0! = 1	${}^{n}P_{n} = \frac{n!}{(n-n)!} = \overline{\frac{n!}{0!}}$ also, ${}^{n}P_{n} = n!$ , thus $\frac{n!}{0!} = n!$ , $0! = \frac{n!}{n!} = 1$		
Special Formula	$(n + 1)! - n! = n \cdot n!$	(for proof – refer	Example 10 Study Mat Page 5.6)
Question Patterns with remarks	TypeCalculate No. of wordof a particular wordGroup PhotographRank Awards first, secTheorembasedcalculation of n or rdataSelectionSelectionof persons	ds using letters cond, third etc. questions, with the given erent unique ns from a group	RemarkSimple ${}^{n}P_{r}$ Note: Meaning of words has no relevance ${}^{n}P_{r}$ ${}^{n}P_{r}$ here r is no. of ranksDirectly apply theorem ${}^{n}P_{r}$ here r is no. of unique designations/ positions

Circular Permutations	Above discussion was relevant for things that are arranged in a row. However when the things are arranged in a circle, the permutation is termed as circular.		
Theorem: Circular Permutations	The number of circular permutations of n different things chosen all at a time is <b>(n-1)!</b>		
Standard Results	number of ways of arranging n persons along a round table so that no person has the same two neighbors is $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$ the number of necklaces formed with n beads of different colors $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$		
Permutation with Restrictions Note: These two theorems are useful for formula based questions. For practical questions we will use logic. (explained in example)	Theorem 1Number of permutations of n distinct objects taken r at a time when a particular object is not taken in any arrangement is $(n-1)P_r$ Theorem 2Number of permutations of r objects out of n distinct objects when a particular object is always included in any arrangement is $(n-1)P_{(r-1)}$		
Some tips useful while solving problems having restrictions	Requirement of Que.TipsCalculate permutationIn that case consider that group of objects as 1 object for the purpose of ${}^{n}P_{r}$ formula, then multiply factorial of no. of objects in the groupCalculate permutation when two or more objects will never come togetherStep 1: Calculate the no. of ways without restriction using ${}^{n}P_{r}$ When there are two types of objects and ask is to calculate the ways in which no two objects of one the category will be togetherIn that case, that particular group of objects can be arranged in the alternate places as a neighbor of each object of other category Refer Example 10 Study Mat Page 5.13SS		
Standard Results	Permutations when some of the things are alike, taken all at a time $p = \frac{n!}{n_1! \times n_2! \times n_3!}$ Permutations when each thing may be repeated once, twice, upto r times in any arrangement. $n^r$		

Combinations	The number of ways in w or selected from a colle <b>arrangement is not imp</b>	which smaller or equal number of things are arranged ection of things where the <b>order of selection or</b> <b>ortant</b> , are called combinations. It is just a GROUPING	
Basic Example 1	Grouping of two persons out of three persons A,B,C for a group photograph can be done as {AB, BC, AC}, thus total no. of ways is 3. Here AB and BA are same group and will be counted once only, even though the sequence is not same. Sequence has no relevance while finding combinations.		
Basic Example 2	Selection of persons for a committee of 2 out of total 4 applicants P,Q,R,S can be done in {PQ, QR, RS, PS, PR, QS} – total 6 ways. Here we used combinations because in the committee of two there is no designations all are same so sequence of selection does not matter.		
Theorem of Combinations	$^{n}C_{1}$	$r = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$ or ${}^{n}C_{r} = \frac{n_{P_{r}}}{r!}$	
Standard Results		${}^{n}\mathcal{C}_{0}=1$ , ${}^{n}\mathcal{C}_{n}=1$	
Complimentary Combinations	$^{n}C_{r} =$	${}^{n}C_{(n-r)}$ example: ${}^{5}C_{3} = {}^{5}C_{2}$	
Special Formulas	${}^{n+1}C_r = {}^{n}C_r + {}^{n}C_{r-1}$ <u>Memorize:</u> Combination of (n+1) things when one thing is always included [ {}^{n}C_r]+ Combination of (n+1) things when one thing is always excluded [ {}^{n}C_r]+		
Permutation Special formula	$P_r = {}^{n-1}P_r + r. {}^{n-1}P_{r-1}$ Memorize in the same way as above		
Standard Results	Combinations of n different things taking some or all of n things at a time $2^n - 1$ [1 is subtracted because we are removing all rejection case]		
	Туре	Remark	
	Different pocker hands in a pack of cards	When we play Poker, Teen Patti etc. only group of 5 cards, sequence in which it is picked does not matter hence we take combinations	
	when vertices (corner points) are given	we need three vertices to make a triangle. Now with group of three points to make a triangle and sequence of points does not matter, hence will use combination. Example: Using eight points how many triangle can be formed - ${}^{8}C_{3} = 56$	
<b>Question Patterns</b>	No. of ways of	Here also sequence does not matter, hence will use	
with remarks	invitation	combination	
	from hox	of identical color	
	No. of ways of forming	Refer Example 6 – Page 5.25 Study Mat	
	words from n letter		
	taking few letters and		
	unique		
	Number of diagonals of	${}^{n}C_{2}-n$ , here n means no. of side of polygon	
	a polygon	(refer Q.10 Exercise 5C)	





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UNIT

2





## **SUIT BY THIRD PARTY TO CONTRACT**

ntracting Parties	3rd party
2nd party	
Trustee	Beneficiary
ber Family membe	r Family member not included in Contract
ber Family membe	r Female member
Assignor	Assignee
Receiver	Beneficiary
Buyer	Successor of seller
Agent	Principal

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## **OTHER ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF CONTRACT**

UNIT



usually unsound mind occassionally sound mind

· Make contract, when of sound mind

usually sound mind occassionally unsound mind

• Not make contract, when of unsound mind



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Have you heard About Our Holi Event "RANG De"



UNIT



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Participate in our Annual Sport Tournament "CHAK De"



UNIT





# THE SALE OF **GOODS ACT, 1930**

# FORMATION OF THE CONTRACT OF SALE

#### Scope of the act

- Only movable Property
- General provision of Contract Act also applicable
- **Expression of Indian Contract Act**
- Custom & Usage

- Buyer & Seller Goods
  - All movable property other than money & actionable claim

UNIT

- Deliverv
  - Voluntary transfer of Possession from one person to another
- Document of title
  - Proof of the possession or control of GoodsOR
  - Is for authorising or purporting to authorise either by endorsement or delivery
- Document showing title
  - Share certificate is document showing title
- Property (Special vs General)
  - Ownership or General property
- **Insolvent**—Ceases to pay his debts in ordinary course
- **Price** Money Consideration for Sale of Goods
- Quality State or Condition



## Actual

Goods are physically delivered to buyer

## **Contract of Sale**

Sale  $\mathbf{I}$ Agreement to sale

to Sale 1. Transfer of property 2. Nature of contract

possession

- 3. Remedies for breach
- 4. Liabilities of parties
- 5. Burden of risk
- 6. Nature of right
- 7. Right of resale
- 8. In case of insolvency of seller

### Sale VS Hire Purchase



### DELIVERY



### Sale vs Agreement

9. In case of insolvency of buyer

### Sale VS Bailment

- 1. Transfer of property
- 2. Return of Goods
- 3. Consideration

#### Symbolic

Delivery of things in token of transfer of something

#### **Token Agreement** to sale become sale

When time elapses or Condition is fulfilled

> Sales and contract for Work and Labour

### subject matter of contract of sale



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# THE SALE OF GOODS ACT, 1930







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# THE SALE OF **GOODS ACT, 1930**



UNIT

delivery Section 57	Section 58	of warranty Section 59	anticipatory breach Section 60	Interest	
Seller wrongfully refuses to deliver the goods	<ol> <li>Contract for sale of specific/ascertained Goods</li> <li>Provision of specific Relief act</li> <li>Damage is not adequate remedy</li> <li>If goods are of special nature OR unique</li> </ol>	buyer can not reject the goods due to Breach of Warranty		recover interest when Interest is recoverable as per any Law	No Need to inform buyer when goods are of Perishable nature

How

effected



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# THE INDIAN PARTNERSHIP ACT, 1932







### VARIOUS KINDS OF PARTNERSHIP

### WITH REGARD TO EXTENT OF BUSINESS

### **General Partnership**

Partnership constituted with respect to business in General

### Particular Partnership

- Particular adventure or undertaking
- Liability extends to Particular venture or undertaking

## PARTNERSHIP DEED

A document in writing containing various terms and conditions as to the relationship of Partner to each other is called Partnership deed.

#### **GENERAL POINTS**

- Name of Partners & Firm
- Place of Business & Date
- Nature of Business & Duration
- Capital
- IOD, IOC & Interest on Loan
- Salary & Commission
- P S R

#### **Partnership** VS HUF

- Mode of creation
- Death of member
- Management
- Authority to bind
- Liability
- Calling for accounts on clauses
- **Governing Law**
- Minors capacity
- Continuity
- Number of members
- Share in business

Partnership Co ownership

#### Partnership VS Association

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# THE INDIAN PARTNERSHIP ACT, 1932



Participate in our Annual Sport Tournament "CHAK De"

# THE INDIAN PARTNERSHIP ACT, 1932



UNIT

5



## **DISSOLUTION OF FIRM**

### By Order of Court (Section 44)

- Insanity 1.
- 2. Misconduct
- **Permanent Capacity** 3.
- 4. Persistent breach of Agreement
- 5. Transfer of Interest
- 6. **Continuous Loss**
- 7. Just and Equitable Ground

Section 48

Mode of settlement of Partnership Account

### Section 49

Payment of firm debt and of separate debts

Proud Vidhyoday Student Lichi Sharma Scored 99% in CBSE Board Exams

# THE COMPANIES ACT, 2013

**THE COMPANIES ACT, 2013** 

Sec(20) : Company Incorporated under this act or under any previous company law.





• If SEBI prescribes : - Co. not t be considered as Listed Company

Industry V. Associates Rubber Ind. Ltd.

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# THE COMPANIES ACT, 2013



## **ON THE BASIS OF CONTROL**

#### HOLDING COMPANY

- Sec 2 (46)
- A company of whose other companies are subsidiary or Associate companies

#### ASSOCIATE COMPANY

- Sec 2 (6)
- A company in which other company has "Significant Influence" (Atleast 20% of total voting power / control)
- Includes Joint venture but not a Subsidiary Co.

- Sec 2 (87)
- A company in which Holding Co. :-
- 1. Controls composition of B.O.D.

2. Controls more than half of total voting Power

on its own or together with its subsidiary

Deemed to be Subsidiary Co. : - If control is of another Subsidiary Co. of the Holding Co.

**OTHER COMPANIES** 

#### Government Company

- Sec 2 (45)
- Company in which atleast 51% of paid up Share Capital held by :-
  - 1. CG
  - 2. SG
  - 3. CG + SG

#### **Dormant Company**

- Company formed for future project or to hold IPR / Asset
- No Significant Accounting Trans.
- Inactive Company :-
- 1. Not carrying business
- 2. Not Significant Accounting Tr.
- 3. Not field financial statement/ Annual Return

During last 2 F.Y.

## • Sec 2 (42)

- Company incorporated outside India
- Has place of business in India
- Through itself or agent, physically or electronically.

#### Section 8 Company

- To promote Art, Science, Commerce, Sports, Religion, Environment etc.
- Profit utilized for promotion of objects
- **Dividend distribution** prohibited
- Need not use word 'Limited' or 'Private Limited'

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## THE COMPANIES ACT, 2013

- Charted document, defines scope of powers of Company
- Contains object for which company is formed, Beyond which actions cannot go.
- Sec 399 :Memorandum is public document, person contracting with company presumed to have knowledge of it
- Any contract beyond the power of memorandum ULTRA VIRES & VOID
- Form of MOA : Table A, B, C, D, E
- Memorandum: Printed, Paragraphed, Numbered, Signed in presence of 1 witness, Description of Subscribers.
- MOA must comply with provisions of Companies Act, 2013.



### MEMORANDUM OF ASSOCIATION

- Rules & Regulations framed to manage Internal affairs.
- Forms of Articles : Table F,G, H, I & J
- Model Articles : May adopt all or any regulations
- Entrenchment Provision :
- Amendment, if more restrictive provisions are inserted 1.
- 2. At the time of Incorporation or by Amendment (Special Resolution)

BASIS	MOA V	YS AOA
Objectives	Defines & delimits the objectives of Company	Rules & Regulation for management of Company
Relationship	Company and outside world	Company and its members
Alteration	Only under certain circumstances with permission of RD/ NCLT	By passing Special Resolution
Ultra Vires	Acts done beyond MOA – void and ultravires, cannot be ratified	Acts beyond AOA, Ratified by Special Resolution of Shareholder

- Act done in excess of legal powers
- · Acts done beyond the power of Director and
- Company  $\rightarrow$  void & not binding on Company
- · Company can neither sue nor can it sue on it
- MOA public document (open for inspection)
- Person dealing with Company cannot enforce against Company, if ultra vires.

- "Right of Inspection to all."
- Any person can inspect by electronic means, make record or get copies.
- Duty of person dealing with company:
- 1. To inspect documents
- 2. Ensure, Contract is in conformity with provisions.
- Person reads the document or not → Presumed to have knowledge of contents.
- If Contracts, beyond power of Company → Cannot acquire any rights against Company

- Exception to doctrine of Constructive Notice
- Outsiders not deemed to have notice of internal affairs of Company.
- Popularly known as Turquand Rule [Royal British Bank V. Turquand]
- Affairs of Company.

#### **1 Actual Constructive** Knowledge of Irregularity

- [Howard V. Patent Ivory Manufacturing Co.]
- Omitting to do something that is necessary.
- Cannot be protected under **Doctrine of Indoor Management**
- & Co.]



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# LLP ACT, 2008



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Separate

Legal Entity

Flexibility in

Procedural

Requirements

Sec 24

As per Agreement

Death / Insolvency

to partners

If not, 30 Days written Notice

**Mutual** 

Agency

## LLP ACT, 2008

### LIABILITY OF LLP & PARTNER





### **SPECIAL COURT**



Offences u/s 67A triable only May proceed with summary

### **Appeal & Revision**

- Sec 67C
- •High Court may exercise • powers conferred by CrPC.

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# Chapter 1

# Nature and Scope of Business Economics

- 1. Economics originated from Greek work 'Oikonomia'. 'Oiko'-'House' & 'Nomia',-'Management'.
- 2. Till 19th century, Economics was also known as 'Political Economy'
- 3. Basic Economics problem unlimited wants, and Scarce resources.
- 4. Resources shall be allocated to their highest valued uses.
- 5. Economics is study of **transformation of the scarce resources** into G&S to satisfy the most important of our infinite wants
- 6. The book named 'An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations' (1776), by Adam Smith is considered as the first modern work of Economics.
- 7. Decision making process of selecting an appropriate alternative that will provide the most efficient means of attaining a desired end, from two or more alternative courses of action'.
- 8. *Decision making* arises only if there is choice available. No alternatives no decision making- e.g.-Continue or shut down decision, New Product, Make or buy, Marketing
- 9. Joel Dean defined Business Economics as the use of economic analysis to make business decisions involving the best use of an organization's scarce resources.-
- 10. Business Economics is referred as Managerial Economics, generally refers to the integration of economic theory with business practice.
- 11. Economic theories are hypothetical and simplistic in since based on simplifying assumptions.
- 12. Business Economics enables application of economic logic and analytical tools to bridge the gap between theory and practice.
- 13. Business Economics is not only valuable to business decision makers, but also useful for managers of 'not-for-profit' organizations
- 14. Difference between Micro and Macro Economics

Micro Economics	Macro Economics
Greek work 'Mikros' which means 'Small'	Greek work "Makros' which means 'large'
"Study of particular firm, particular household,	"Macro Economics examines the Forest and
individual price, wages, income, individual industries,	not the Trees. Large aggregates"-
particular commodities"- Prof. Boulding	Prof.Mc.Connel
Behavior of individual firm or industry	Overall economic phenomena
It is also called as 'Price Theory'	It is also called as 'Income Theory'

#### 15. The Nature of Business Economics is described as under-

- (a) Business Economics is a Science- Explains cause and effect relationships.
- (b) Business Economics is an art -application of rules and principles
- (c) Micro Economics based and Macro Analysis based
- (d) Analysis from Private Enterprises Economy viewpoint
- (e) **Inter-Disciplinary** Integrates the tools of decision sciences such as Mathematics, Statistics and Econometrics with Economic.
- (f) Pragmatic Approach-

16. Normative and positive -

•	
Positive Economics or Pure economics	Normative Economics
It is <b>based on facts</b> and there is <b>no</b> point of	It tells us about how the things should be.
ambiguity or second view	
Descriptive in nature & It states 'what is'	Prescriptive in nature & describes 'what ought to be'.
It explains cause & effect relationship and	It passes value judgments /suggestions and offers
there will be no value judgments/suggestions.	advice.
It is based on <b>past data</b> and can be <b>checked</b>	Cannot be verified because it is opinion based and
with data	not fact based
No Matter of debate	Matter of Debate
According to Robbins, Economics is neutral	It is based on welfare economics - (Marshall &Pigou)
between ends.	Complete neutrality between ends is, however,
	neither feasible nor desirable.

#### 17. Scope of Business Economics

**a.** Microeconomics applied to operational or internal Issues – issues within the organization and fall within the purview and control of the management.

1.	Demand Analysis	2. Demand Forecasting	3.	Cost analysis
4.	Theory of Capital and	5. and Uncertainty Analysis	6.	Market Structure and
	Investment Decisions			Pricing Policies
7.	Resource Allocation	8. Production analysis	9.	Inventory Management
10	. Profit analysis			

- **b.** Macroeconomics applied to environmental or external issues *issues out of preview of an organization* The major macro-economic factors relate to
- 1) The type of economic system.
- 2) Stage of business cycle.
- 3) The general trends in national income, employment, prices, saving and investment.
- 4) Government's economic policies like industrial policy, competition policy, monetary and fiscal policy, price policy, foreign trade policy and globalization policies.
- 5) Working of financial sector and capital market.
- 6) Socio-economic organizations like trade unions, producer and consumer unions and cooperatives.
- 7) Social and political environment.

#### **Central Economic Problems**

- 1. All countries, without exceptions, face the problem of scarcity because their resources are limited and these resources have alternative uses.
- 2. If a resource has only a single use, then also the economic problem would not arise.
- 3. The central economic problem is further divided into four basic economic problems.
  - a) What to produce? Which goods and in what quantities
  - b) How to Produce? Method of production, (labour- intensive or capital intensive)
  - c) For whom to produce? How the G&S should be distributed among members of the society. Also shares of different people in the national product.
  - d) What provisions (if any) are to be made for economic growth?-saving and investment
- 4. Understanding different types of Economies

Particular	Capitalist economy	Socialist economy	Mixed Economy
Also Known as	Free market economy or laissez-	Karl Marx and Frederic	Depends on
	faire economy	Engels in their work 'The	both markets
		Communist Manifesto'	and govt.
		published in 1848	
Most imp	Private Ownership	Collective Ownership/ Public	Include the
Feature		ownership	best features
Other points	Private property is the mainstay.		of both the
	Profit motive is its driving force		controlled
How CEP are	Impersonal forces of market		economy and
solved	demand and supply or the price		the market
	mechanism		economy while
What To	Decided by consumers	Decided by CPE	excluding the
produce			demerits of
How to	Cost of production minimum.		both.
produce	Labor or capital Intensive		
For Whom to	Those who have buying capacity		
produce			
What provision	Depends upon level of interest		
are to be made	rate for consumer and rate of		
for economic	return in Market for business		
growth?	firm		

#### 5. Characteristics of each type of economy

	Capitalist economy		Socialist economy	Mixed Economy	
a.	Right to private	۵.	Collective Ownership of means of	a.	Government
	property		production by state however, small farms,		itself must run
b.	Freedom of enterprise		workshops & trading firms which may		important and
c.	Freedom of economic		remain in private hands.		selected
	choice	b.	Profit- motive and self- interest are not		industries and
d.	Profit Motive		the driving forces		eliminate the
e.	Consumer Sovereignty	c.	The resources are used to achieve certain		free play of
f.	Competition		socio-economic objectives.		profit motive and

Nature and Scope of bi	siness Economics	CA Aditya Sharma 7410134858
g. Absence of Government	d. Centrally planned economy	self-interest.
Interference	e. Absence of Consumer Choice-	
	f. Relatively Equal Income Distribution-	
	g. Minimum role of Price Mechanism or	
	Market forces-	
	h. Absence of Competition	

#### 6. Merits of each type of economy

	Capitalist economy		Socialist economy		Mixed Economy
a)	Self-regulating through	a)	Equitable distribution of	a)	Economic freedom and
	price mechanism.		wealth and income		existence of private property
b)	Rewards efficiency and	b)	Rapid and balanced	b)	Price mechanism
	punishes inefficiency.		economic development	c)	Consumer sovereignty and
c)	Faster economic growth	c)	Planned Economy-		freedom of choice.
d)	Optimum allocation of	d)	Minimum Wastage and	d)	Appropriate incentives
	resources		optimum utislisation of	e)	Encourages enterprise and
e)	Operative efficiency.		resource-		risk taking.
f)	Lower cost of production	e)	Unemployment is	f)	Advantages of economic
g)	Better standard of living		minimized,		planning
	of consumers	f)	Absence of profit motive	g)	Comparatively greater
h)	Incentive for innovation	g)	Right to work and minimum		economic and social equality
	and Technological progress.		standard of living		and freedom
i)	Right to private Property	h)	High Social security	h)	No cut throat competition
j)	No costs for collecting and				
	processing of information				

### 7. Demerits of each type of economy

	Capitalist economy		Socialist economy	N	Nixed Economy
α)	Precedence of property rights	a)	Inefficiency and delays, corruption,	a)	Excessive
	over human rights.		red-tapism, favoritism,		controls the
b)	Inequality and social injustice	b)	All material means of production are		private sector.
c)	Wide differences in economic		under the control and direction of	b)	Poor
	opportunities.		state.		implementation
d)	Does not represent the real	c)	Takes away right of private property.	c)	Undue delays
	needs of the society.	d)	No incentive for hard work		
e)	Exploitation of labour	e)	Administered prices		
f)	Consumer sovereignty is a myth	f)	State monopolies become		
g)	Misallocation of resources		uncontrollable		
h)	Less of merit goods	g)	Consumers have no freedom of choice.		
i)	Unplanned production.	h)	No importance topersonal efficiency		
j)	Waste of productive resources		and productivity.		
k)	Formation of monopolies	i)	The extreme form of socialism is not		
I)	Environmental degradation.		at all practicable		

## Chapter 2A

## Consumer Behaviour & Utility Analysis

- 1. Utility is want satisfying power of a commodity is called as utility.
- 2. Utility is subjective term and differs from person to person
- 3. Utility does not mean usefulness.
- 4. Utility is ethically neutral.
- 5. Human beings have virtually unlimited wants, Each single want is satiable (capable of being satisfied)
- 6. Consumer spends his income on different G&S to attain maximum satisfaction.

#### 7. Difference Between Cardinal and Ordinal Approach

	Cardinal Approach	Ordinal Approach
Assumptions	Measurable and quantifiable	Utility is not quantifiable
Rationale	Human satisfaction can be expressed in	Human Satisfaction is psychological
	monetary terms,	phenomenon
Economists	Alfred Marshall	Hicks and Allen

#### CARDINAL APPROACH

#### Refer Table for further discussion :( Table 2.1)

Quantity of Oranges	Total utility	Marginal Utility	Price	Consumer's
consumed per day				Surplus in Rs.
0	0	0	0	0
1	60	60	40	20
2	110	50	40	10
3	150	40	40	0
4	180	30	40	-10
5	200	20	40	-20
6	210	10	40	-30
7	. 210	0	40	-40
8	200	-10	40	-50
9	180	-20	40	-60

- 8. Total Utility- The sum total of utility derived from different units of commodity
- 9. Marginal Utility Additional utility derived from additional unit of a commodity.

Marginal Utility can also be defined as change in the total utility resulting from one- unit change ( $TUn-TU_{(n-1)}$ ) in consumption of commodity, per unit of time or, Change in Utility/ change in Qty.

- a) Law of diminishing marginal utility forms the basis of Law of demand.
- b) Law of diminishing marginal utility indicates consumer's equilibrium and price.
- c) Law of diminishing marginal utility explains the concept of consumer surplus
- d) Price and MU moves together up and down.
- e) Marginal utility varies inversely with the supply.
- f) MU of the goods increases as the quantity of complementary goods increases
- g) MU of the goods decreases as the quantity of substitute goods with the consumer increases.

- 13. Conclusion as per law of Diminishing marginal utility
  - a) Total Utility increases at diminishing rate.
  - b) Marginal Utility is Downward Sloping curve, moving from left to right
  - c) Marginal utility is negatively sloped curve.
  - d) Where Marginal Utility is negative, Total utility decreases.
  - e) MU goes on decreasing & becomes negative beyond a certain point of time.
- 14. Assumptions and Exception to Law of Marginal utility
  - a) Standard Units- Suitable size.
  - b) Homogeneous units-
  - c) Constant Income-
  - d) Constant Taste/ fashion- Continuous consumption-
  - e) Cardinal approach-Utility is quantifiable

#### 15. Exceptions to Law-

- a) Personal Aspects- music, hobbies, etc
- b) Money is excluded-
- c) Other possessions substitute or complimentary.

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- 10. Assumptions under Marginal utility analysis and cardinal approach
  - a) Cardinal Measurability of Utility Utility is measurable and quantifiable.
  - b) Comparability of Utility across the goods Satisfaction derived by a person from different commodities can be compared.
  - c) Independence of Utilities-
  - d) Constant Marginal Utility of Money-

*Consumer Behavior and Utility Analysis* 

- 11. Law of diminishing Marginal utility states -as a consumer consumes more of stock, the extra satisfaction that he derives from an extra unit, declines with the increase in consumption of that item.
- 12. If same goods have capacity to satisfy other wants then their marginal utility would not have decreased.



- 17. Law of Equi- marginal utility As per the law of Equi- marginal utility, If marginal utility of money spent on commodity X is greater than marginal utility of money spent on commodity Y, then the consumer will withdraw some money from purchase of Product Y and will spent on purchase of X, till MU of money in two cases becomes equal.
- **18.** Maximum Satisfaction- The consumer will attain maximum satisfaction, and will be in equilibrium when MU of money spent on various goods that he buys, are equal.
- 19. Consumer's Equilibrium: Consumer is in equilibrium when price of the commodity = MU. Similarly for more than two products, consumer will be in equilibrium if-

 $\frac{MU_{X}}{Price_{X}} = \frac{MU_{y}}{Price_{y}} = \frac{MU_{z}}{Price_{z}}$ 

- 20. The consumer will attain maximum satisfaction, and will be in equilibrium when MU of money spent on various goods that he buys, are equal.
- 21. Consumer Surplus: What a consumer is ready to pay what he actually pays. (refer table 2.1)
  - a) The consumer continues to buy a commodity till MU = Price of the commodity
  - b) For all the earlier units purchased, MU > price paid. This difference is called as consumer's surplus
- 22. Limitations to Consumer surplus
  - a) Relevant only if cardinal approach to measurement of utility is assumed.
  - b) Consumer's surplus cannot be measured precisely
  - c) Consumer's surplus derived is affected by availability of substitutes.
  - d) In case of necessaries, consumer's surplus is infinite
  - e) Not applicable to prestigious items
  - f) It is assumed that MU of the money is constant, which is unrealistic.

#### 23. Graphical Interpretation: refer schedule above (2.1)

- a) Consumer is in equilibrium at 3 units, where price = MU.
- b) Consumer surplus is INR 20 and INR 10 at consumption level of 1 Orange and 2 oranges

respectively.



#### Ordinal Approach- Hicks and Allen Approach

- 24. Indifference curve analysis- Assumptions
  - a) Ordinal Approach to utility- UTILITY is not measurable in monetary terms.
  - b) Consistency in ranking- If a consumer prefers X to Y and Y to Z, this automatically means that he must prefer X to Z.
  - c) Rational Consumer-Ranking and preferences-
  - d) Number of Goods- Customer prefers that combination which has <u>more commodity</u> in combination and tries to maximize his satisfaction.

#### 25. Indifference curve analysis

- a) An Indifference curve is a curve which represents all those combination of goods which gives same satisfaction to the consumer.
- b) He remains indifferent among those combinations.

#### Example:

Combin- ation	Roses	Lilies	Marginal Rate of substitution ( MRS)	Indifference curve
А	15	1	-	12 10 B
В	11	2	4 Roses per lily	8 C D E
С	8	3	3 Roses per lily	4
D	6	4	2 Roses per lily	1 2 3 4 5 Ouantities of Lilies
E	5	5	1 Roses per lily	(10) and a second state of the second state of

#### 26. Indifference Map:

- a) A set of indifference curves is called as Indifference Map.
- b) An indifference map depicts complete **picture of customer's** taste and preferences.
- c) The consumer is indifferent for any combination lying on same IC.
- d) However he prefers combination on Higher IC to combinations on lower IC, as the combinations of higher IC give more satisfaction. So IC<sub>4</sub> > IC<sub>3</sub>>IC<sub>2</sub>>IC<sub>1</sub>.



e) Farther the IC from the origin, higher is the satisfaction level.

#### 27. Marginal rate of Substitutions

- a) Marginal rate of substitutions (MRS) indicates how much of one commodity is substituted for how much of another commodity.
- b) MRS is indicated by Slope of IC curve at a particular point.
- c) MRS show decreasing trend similar to concept of diminishing marginal utility.

#### 28. Property of indifference curve

- a) Downward sloping to right- negatively sloped.
- b) Convex to the origin- due to diminishing nature of MRS.
- c) All point on an IC gives same satisfaction-
- d) Higher IC gives Higher level of satisfaction-
- e) Non Intersecting

#### Consumer Behavior and Utility Analysis

- 29. Budget line Price line, Price opportunity line, Price- income line, Budget constraint line.
  - a) A Budget line shows all those combinations of two goods which a consumer can buy spending his given money income on two goods at their given prices.
  - b) Budget line is also called as Every point on Budget line represents **full** spending by the consumer.
- **30**. Consumer Equilibrium under indifference curve approach
  - a) Consumer will try to reach the highest possible IC.
  - b) However his objective of buying higher quantity of goods is **restricted by Budget line**.
  - c) Thus a consumer is in equilibrium when he derives maximum possible satisfaction from the goods, and is in no position to re- arrange his purchase of goods.

#### 31. Assumptions under Ordinal Approach:

- a) The consumer has fixed money income which he has to spend wholly on 2 Goods
- b) Prices are constant.
- c) The consumer has given an indifference map which shows his scale of preferences

#### 32. Relationship of MRS and price at equilibrium,

- a) At equilibrium, slope of price line is equal to slope of Indifference curve.
- b) Slope of the line is  $P_X/P_{y}$ .
- c) Slope of indifference curve indicates Marginal rate of substitution of X for Y. MRS<sub>XY</sub>=MU<sub>X/</sub>MU<sub>Y</sub>.
- d) Hence at equilibrium  $MRS_{XY}=MU_X/MU_Y=P_X/P_Y$ , alternatively,  $MU_X/P_X=MU_Y/P_Y$ .





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#### Demand Analysis

# Chapter 2B - Demand Analysis

- 1. Demand = Willingness (Desire) and ability (Resources/Means) + willingness to use those means
- 2. Demand is determined at certain, (i) Price (ii) place or (iii) time.
- 3. The quantity demanded is a flow.
- 4. Types of Demand
  - a. Individual Demand/ Company demand- sub-system of total demand.
  - b. Market Demand/ Industry demand. sum total demand of all individual demand
  - c. Price Demand Demand of consumer at various prices
  - d. Income demand- DD at various income levels. According to this superior goods have greater demand and as the level of income lowers, inferior goods have higher demand.
  - e. Cross demand Demand due to availability of Substitute goods or complementary goods.
  - f. Short run demand- refers to the demand with its immediate reaction
  - g. Long run demand- refers to demand which exists over a long period.
  - h. Derived demand-The demand because of the demand for some other commodity called 'parent product',
  - i. Autonomous demand- Independent of the demand for other goods.
  - j. **Producer goods** are used for the production of other goods either consumer goods or producer goods themselves.
  - k. Consumer goods are used for final consumption.
    - **Durable goods** are those which can be consumed more than once.
    - Non-durable goods are those which cannot be consumer more than once
- 5. Factors of Demand
  - a. Price of the commodity: demand for a commodity is inversely related to its price.
    - 3 Complementary goods Inversely Related
    - Competing goods or substitutes Directly Related
  - b. Income of the consumer-
    - As the level of income rises, increase in demand of necessities is proportionally less than increase in income.
    - As the income level increase importance of food and other non durable goods in the overall consumption basket and a rise in the importance of durable goods
    - There are some commodities for which the quantity demanded decreases with an increase in money income beyond this level. These goods are called inferior goods.[ Also called as Giffen goods]
  - c. Tastes and preferences of consumers-
    - Tastes and preferences of consumers are also influence by 'Demonstration effect' or
       'bandwagon effect', i.e. by seeing another person use a particular product/ commodity.
    - Sometimes, when a product becomes common among all, some people decrease or altogether stop its consumption. This is called 'snob effect'.

#### Demand Analysis

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- Highly priced goods are consumed by status seeking rich people to satisfy their need for conspicuous consumption. This is called 'Veblen effect'
- d. Population aspect-
  - Size of the population-Directly related
  - Somposition of population: Directly if composition is in favor of demand
  - The level of National Income and its Distribution: Even Distribution More DD, uneven distribution less Demand
  - Consumer-credit facility and interest rates: Cheaper interest rate and larger availability of credit increases DD

#### 6. Law of Demand

- (a) Other things being equal, inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded,
- (b) The other things which are assumed to be equal or constant are:-
  - Prices of related commodities (complementary goods or substitute goods)
  - Income of consumers
  - Tastes and preferences of consumers, and
  - Such other factors which influence demand.

#### 7. Schedule:-



#### 8. Features of the Demand Curve

- (a) Slopes downwards from left to right
- (b) Negatively sloped
- (c) May sometimes be a straight-line or sometimes a free hand curve
- (d) Demand curve is also called Average Revenue curve (ARC).
- (e) The Market Demand curve is a lateral summation of individual Demand curve.

#### 9. Rationale of the Law of Demand

- a) Law of diminishing marginal utility
- b) **Substitution effect**:-When the price of a commodity falls, it becomes **relatively cheaper** than other commodities.
- c) Income effect: As a result of fall in the price of the commodity, consumer's real income or purchasing power increases.
- d) Arrival of new consumer: Rise in number and rise in buying capacity
- e) Different uses:

- Demand Analysis
- 10. Exceptions to the Law of Demand
  - a) Conspicuous goods: Prestige value or snob appeal or conspicuous consumption or Veblen effect or prestige goods effect.
  - b) Giffen goods: Inferior goods , with no close substitutes easily available and which occupy a substantial place in consumer's budget are called 'Giffen goods'
  - c) **Conspicuous necessities:** The demand for certain goods is affected by the **demonstration effect** of the consumption pattern of a social group to which an individual belongs.
  - d) Future expectations about prices:
  - e) Irrational consumer-
  - f) Demand for necessaries
  - g) Ignorant consumer:
  - h) Speculative goods

Term	Meaning	Effect
Expansion/ Extension of	Quantity demanded Increases, due to	Downward movement along
Demand	decrease in price	same Demand curve
Contraction of Demand	Quantity demanded decreases, due to	Upward movement along same
	increase in price	Demand curve
Increase in DD	Quantity demanded Increases, due to	Rightward Shift of Demand
	change in any factor other than price	Curve
Decrease in DD	Quantity demanded decreases, due to	Leftward Shift of Demand
	change in any factor other than price	Curve

#### 11. Expansion and contraction in Demand VS Increase and decrease in Demand

#### 12. Elasticity of Demand

- Elasticity of demand is defined as the responsiveness of the quantity demanded of a good to changes in one of the variables on which demand depends.
- the percentage change in quantity demanded divided by the percentage change in one of the variables on which demand depends

#### 13. Factors affecting demand and name of their elasticity

Factors	Name of Elasticity	Denoted by
Price of the commodity	Price Elasticity	Ep
Income of the consumer	Income Elasticity	EI
Price of the related product	Cross Elasticity	Ec
Availability of the substitute	Substitution Elasticity	Es

#### 14. Methods of calculation of Price Elasticity of Demand

Methods	Formula	Used when	Diagram
Percentage change or proportional Method	(E <sub>P</sub> ) = % change in quantity demanded % change in Price	<ol> <li>Responsiveness of quantity demanded of a commodity, to a change in Price</li> <li>% change in quantity demanded divided by the % change in price, other things remaining equal</li> </ol>	Answer will be in negative denoting Inverse relation
Point Elasticity- Method of derivative	Ep = -dq p ÷ dp q	<ol> <li>change in price is infinitesimal (very small)</li> <li>Makes use of derivative rather than finite changes in price and quantity</li> </ol>	
Point Elasticity - Method of Graph	E <sub>P</sub> Lower segment Upper segment	<ol> <li>Applicable only for Straight- line Demand curve touching both the axes.</li> </ol>	
Arc Elasticity Method	1. $E_P = \underline{q_1 - q_2} \times \underline{p_1 + p_2}$ $q_1 + q_2  p_1 - p_2$	<ol> <li>Arc Elasticity is a measure of average responsiveness</li> <li>Large change in prices and quantities</li> </ol>	Y g g Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q Q
Total Outlay Method	<ol> <li>Elasticity is calculated by expenditure or Outlay of</li> <li>By this method we can onl good is elastic or inelastic coefficient of price elastic</li> </ol>	analysisng the change in Total the household. y say whether the demand for a ; we cannot find out the exact city	
E <sub>P</sub> < 1	<ul> <li>Price and Expenditure movies</li> <li>Demand is said to be less</li> </ul>	ves in <mark>same</mark> direction. elastic, or inelastic	<ul> <li>Price Increase and TR increase</li> <li>Price Decrease and TR decrease</li> </ul>
E <sub>P</sub> = 1	<ul> <li>Total Expenditure remains Unchanged.</li> <li>Demand is said to be unit elastic</li> </ul>		<ul> <li>Price Increase and TR unchanged</li> <li>Price Decrease and TR unchanged</li> </ul>
E <sub>P</sub> > 1	<ul> <li>Price and Expenditure more</li> <li>Demand is said to be elast</li> </ul>	ves in <b>opposite</b> direction. tic	<ul> <li>Price Increase and TR decrease</li> <li>Price Decrease and TR increase</li> </ul>

#### 15. Interpretation of Elasticity of Demand

Description	Numerical	Interpretation	Nature of Curve	
	value			
Perfectly	EP =0	Qty. demanded does not	Vertical line	
inelastic		changes as price changes	Parallel to Y axis	
Inelastic or	0 <ep <1<="" th=""><th>Qty demanded changes by</th><th>Relatively steeper</th><th></th></ep>	Qty demanded changes by	Relatively steeper	
less elastic		smaller percentage than	Demand curve	
		price		
Unit Elastic	EP =1	Qty demanded changes	45 degree	
		exactly by same % as	straight line	
		price	Or rectangular	
			hyperbola	
Elastic	1 <ep <∞<="" th=""><th>Quantity demanded</th><th>Relatively flatter</th><th></th></ep>	Quantity demanded	Relatively flatter	
		changes by larger	demand curve	
		percentage than price		
Perfectly	EP =∞	Small change in price will	Parallel to X axis	
elastic		bring infinite change in		
		quantity demanded		

#### 16. Determinants of price Elasticity

- a) Availability of substitutes:\_\_\_\_\_\_ relationship
- b) Position of a commodity in a consumer's budget:
  - > Goods having higher proportion of consumers' spending are \_\_\_\_\_\_ to demand.
  - Goods having lower proportion of consumers' spending are \_\_\_\_\_\_ to demand.
- c) Number of uses to which a commodity can be put:
  - > Multiple uses have \_\_\_\_\_ to demand.
  - > Specified or particular use have \_\_\_\_\_\_ to demand.
- d) Time period:
  - > The long run demand for a commodity is \_\_\_\_\_.
  - > The short run demand for a commodity is \_\_\_\_\_\_ to change in price.

#### e) Consumer habits:

- Habitual Goods \_\_\_\_\_ Demand
- f) Tied demand:
  - Goods which have autonomous demand on their own are \_\_\_\_\_
  - Goods which have tied or joint demand are \_\_\_\_\_
- g) Nature of the need that a commodity satisfies:
  - Luxury goods are price \_\_\_\_\_\_-while necessities are price \_\_\_\_\_\_to price change.

#### h) Price range:

- > Goods which are in medium range of price level are \_\_\_\_\_\_ to price change.
- > Goods which are in very high price range or in very low price range have \_\_\_\_\_ DD.

#### Demand Analysis

17. Income Elasticity of Demand

Responsiveness of quantity demanded of a	E:= <u>Percentage change in quantity Demand</u> ×100
good to changes in the income of	Percentage change in income
consumers	

#### 18. Income Elasticity of Demand

Туре	Relation between income & demand	Example	Formula	Curve
Positive Income Elasticity	Positive	Normal and Luxury goods	Ey = 1 Ey > 1 Ey < 1	
Negative Income Elasticity	Inverse	Inferior goods	Ey < 0	
Zero Income Elasticity	Constant (No change in demand though there is change in income)	Necessaries goods	E = 0	

#### 19. Cross Elasticity of Demand

Cross elasti good to a cl	$\underline{\text{Ec}} = \frac{\% \land Qx}{\% \land Py}$			
Positive	Direct or Positive relation	Tea & Coffee,	CED = 1	
Cross	(Goods must be substitute)		CED > 1	
Elasticity			CED < 1	
Negative	Inverse relation	Car & Petrol	CED < 0	
Cross	(Goods must be complementar			
Elasticity	goods			
Zero	Constant	Cloth & salt	CED = 0	
Cross	(No change in demand of			
Elasticity	one product though there is			
	change in price of other			
	product)			
	goods must be unrelated			

#### 20. Methods of demand Forecasting

- 1. Survey of Buyers' Intentions: direct interview of potential customers.
  - a. Complete enumeration method
  - b. Sample survey method

#### Demand Analysis

- c. End-use method, especially used in forecasting demand for inputs, involves identification of all final users,
- 2. Collective opinion method:
  - a) Sales force opinion method or grass roots approach. Firms having a wide network of sales personnel can use the knowledge, experience and skills of the sales force.
  - b) Although this method is simple and based on first-hand information of those who are directly connected with sales, it is subjective as personal opinions.
- 3. Expert Opinion method:

#### Delphi Technique

- a) The <u>Delphi technique</u>, developed by <u>Olaf Helmer</u> at the <u>Rand Corporation of the USA</u>, provides a useful way to obtain informed judgments from diverse experts
- 4. Statistical methods:
- a) Forecasts using statistical methods are considered as superior methods because they are more scientific, reliable and free from subjectivity.
- b) Trend Projection method: This method, also known classical method, is considered as a 'naive' approach to demand forecasting.
- i. Graphical Method:
- ii. Fitting trend equation: Least Square Method: sum of the squared differences between the calculated and observed value is minimised.
- 5. Regression analysis: Relationship is established between the quantity demanded (dependent variable) and the independent variables (explanatory variables) such as income, price of the good, prices of related goods etc. Once the relationship is established, we derive regression equation assuming the relationship to be linear. The equation will be of the form Y = a + bX.
- 6. Controlled Experiments: also known as market experiment method.
  - a) Under this method, future demand is estimated by conducting market studies and experiments on consumer behaviour under actual, though controlled, market conditions.

#### 7. Barometric method of forecasting:

- a) Just as meteorologists use the barometer to forecast weather, the economists use economic indicators to forecast trends in business activities. This information is then used to forecast demand prospects of a product, though not the actual quantity demanded.
- b) For this purpose, an index of relevant economic indicators is constructed.
- c) Movements in these indicators are used as basis for forecasting the likely economic environment in the near future. There **are leading indicators**, **coincidental indicators and lagging indicators**. The leading indicators move up or down ahead of some other series.

Factors	Explanation	Elasticity
Nature of the	Necessities.	Inelastic
commodity		
	Luxurious goods.	Elastic
Level of income	Goods demanded by high income group.	Inelastic
	Goods demanded by low income group.	Elastic
Proportion of	Commodity on which Proportion of expenditure is low.	Inelastic

#### 21. For Quick Practice

Demand Analysis	CA Aditya Sharma	7410134858
expenditure		
	Commodity on which Proportion of expenditure is large.	Elastic
Level of price and	When price level of a commodity is too high and change in	Inelastic
change in price	price is smaller.	
	If price level is low and change in price is large.	Elastic
Number of uses	Commodity which has limited uses.	Inelastic
	Commodity which used to satisfy several wants.	Elastic
Substitutes	Commodity which have less substitutes.	Inelastic
	Commodity having several substitutes.	Elastic
Urgency	Commodity which is required urgently.	Inelastic
	Commodity which is not required urgently.	Elastic
The Period	Demand for commodity is inelastic in long run.	Inelastic
	Demand for commodity is elastic in short period.	Elastic
Tied demand or Joint	Demand for those goods, which are tied to others.	Inelastic
demand		
Consumer habits	Demand for commodity used by habitual consumer.	Inelastic

# Chapter 2C- Supply Analysis

#### 1. Supply refers to amount of a commodity seller is

Supply

- > Able to sell depends upon stock of a commodity
- > And willing to sell- depends upon price of a commodity

#### 2. Determinants of supply on Factors affecting supply

Factors	Relation	Factor	Relation
Price		Cost of Production***	
Stock		Techniques of	
Time		Taxation policy	
Natural Resources		Trade policy	
Production		Infrastructure	
Weather conditions		Monetary Policy	

- 3. Law of supply states that "other things being equal" there is a direct relationship between price and supply.
- 4. The law of supply is explained by Dr. Alfred Marshall.

#### 5. Supply Schedule and Graph



#### 6. Features of Supply curve

- a) Slopes upwards from left to the right.
- b) Positively slope
- c) Straight—line or sometimes a free hand curve.
- d) The Market Supply Curve is a lateral summation (totaling) of Individual Supply Curves

#### 7. Assumptions of Law of supply

- a. No change in cost of production
- b. No change in technology
- c. Normal weather conditions
- d. No change in infrastructural facilities
- e. No change in amount of Natural Resources
- f. No change in Taxation policy
- g. No change in monetary and trade policy

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#### 8. Increase and Decrease VS Expansion and contraction in the Quantity Supplied

Increase In SS	Decrease In SS	Expansion in SS	Contraction in SS
Increase in Supply take place as	Decrease in Supply take place	Rise in the <u>quantity</u>	Fall in <u>the quantity</u>
a result of changes in factors	as a result of changes in	<u>supplied</u> takes place as	supplied takes place as
other than price, while price	factors other than price,	a result of changes	a result of changes
remains constant.	while price remains constant.	in price	in price
		Upward Movement	Downward Movement
Shift	Shift	along same SS curve	along same SS curve

#### 9. Exceptions to law of Supply

Labour Supply	/		w su
Wage rate	Labour	Total	Wage Rate
	supply	income	**
Rs.100/hr	12 hr.	1200/day	sL
Rs.250/hr.	15 hr.	3750/day	OL L <sub>2</sub> L <sub>4</sub> Labour Supply
Rs.700/hr.	10 hr.	7000/day	
This is Backwo	ard bending	supply curve	
Need for cas	h-		Seller may sell at lower price and supply more Qty if
			needs more cash
Savings			If a person wants a fixed amount of income in the form
			of interest then, he will save more at a lower rate of
			interest and save less at a higher rate of interest
Future Expectations			With a small rise in price, if seller expects a further rise
			in future he will decrease the supply & vice-versa

#### 10. Methods of measurement of Elasticity of supply

Methods of measurement of Elast	icity of supply
1. Percentage / Proportionate Method: According to this	s method elasticity of supply is
calculated by dividing a % or proportionate change in suppl	y with the % or proportionate
change in price. As explained above	
<u>% Change in supply</u>	<u>51-52</u> X 100
% Change in Price	51
	<u>P1-P2</u> X100
	P1

2. Point Method: This method is used to find out elasticity at a point on supply curve. The elasticity at a point on the supply curve can be measured with the help of following formula.

 $\frac{\mathsf{ES}}{\mathsf{dp}} \stackrel{=\mathsf{dq}}{\times} \frac{\mathsf{p}}{\mathsf{q}}$ 

Supply

**3** Arc Elasticity: when the price change is somewhat larger and we have to measure elasticity over an arc rather than at a specific point on it, in such cases, the concept of arc elasticity is used. In arc elasticity we use the average of the two prices and quantities (Original & new)

ES =	$\frac{\boldsymbol{Q_1}-\boldsymbol{Q_2}}{\boldsymbol{X_1}+\boldsymbol{P_2}}$	Where P1and Q1 are original price and quantity respectively
	$Q_1 + Q_2  P_1 - P_2$	and P1 and P2 are new price and quantity respectively.

#### 11. Elasticity of Supply refers to degree of responsiveness of supply to change in its price. Or, Elasticity of Supply refers to the ratio between percentage or proportionate change in supply and percentage or proportionate change in price.

Perfectly Elastic	Relatively Elastic	Unitary Elastic	Relatively	Perfectly
Supply	Supply	Supply	Inelastic Supply	Inelastic Supply
	Or, More Elastic		Or, less Elastic	
Es = ∞	Es> 1	Es = 1	Es< 1	Es = 0

#### 12. Equilibrium Price:

The determination of Equilibrium Price using Demand and Supply

is explained in the following manner -

Demand Curve slopes downwards from left to right, while Supply Curve slopes upwards from left to right.

Point E constitutes the Stable Equilibrium for the product, other things remaining equal.

The Equilibrium Price is OP, and the quantity bought and sold at that level is OQ units.



**Production Analysis** 

# Chapter 3A - Production Concepts

- 1. According to <u>James Bates and J.R. Parkinson</u> "Production is the <u>organized activity</u> of <u>transformation of Raw material into Finished G&S</u> to <u>satisfy the demand</u>
- 2. Production is any economic activity, which satisfy human wants.
- 3. Production = Creation of Utility or Addition of utility.
- 4. Methods of Creation of Utility
  - a) Form Utility
  - b) Place Utility
  - c) Time Utility
  - d) Personal Utility

#### 5. Factors Of Production

#### I. Land

- a) Every free gift of nature on Surface of the earth + below the surface of the earth + above the surface of the earth
- b) No Social Cost: Since no sacrifice is made in creation of land.
- c) Permanent factor:
- d) Passive factor:
- e) Heterogeneous factor and site value differs from place to place
- f) Mobility: Geographically land is \_\_\_\_\_ but occupationally it is \_\_\_\_\_.
- g) Subject to diminishing returns:
- h) Supply: Supply of level is perfectly \_\_\_\_\_.

#### II. Labour

- a) Mental or physical exertion to produce G&S, for economic reward.
- b) Perishable Nature- Labourer cannot store his Labour
- c) Labour is said to have no reserve price
- d) Weak bargaining power.
- e) Self- Source- Labour is inseparable from the Labourer himself.
- f) Variations in skill and productivity
- g) Productivity differs from person to person
- h) Peculiar relationship between labour supply and Wage rate- Backward bending Supply curve
  - i. Direct Relationship: Generally
  - ii. Reverse Relationship at Higher Prices
  - iii. Reverse Relationship at Lower Prices

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#### Production Analysis

#### III. Capital

- a) Part of wealth which is used for further production of wealth, or which yields an income.
- b) Capital is a stock concept
- c) Capital refers to only that part of wealth, that is used for further production. Therefor not all wealth is capital but all capital is wealth.
- d) Produced means of Production
- e) Man-made means / factor
- f) Mobility
- g) Perishable factor- that's why we charge depreciation

#### h) Types of Capital:

Fixed	Working	Sunk	Floating	Money	Real
Capital:	Capital:	Capital:	Capital:	Capital:	Capital:

#### j) Stages in capital Formation

- i. Savings: Ability to save depends upon the income capacity of individual.
- ii. Mobilization of Savings: network of banking and other financial institutions
- iii. Investments:

#### IV. Entrepreneur-

- a) Person who combines the various factors of production in the right proportions, initiates the process of production and bears the risk involved in it.
- b) Also Called as Organiser, Manager or the Risk-Taker.
- c) Without the Entrepreneur, the other factors of production would remain unutilized or idle.
- d) Holds final responsibility of the business.
- e) Entrepreneurship gets its reward (i.e. Profit), only after all other factors of production have been rewarded, i.e. after Rent, Wages and Interest.

#### f) Functions of an Entrepreneur

- i. Initiating and Running the business:
- ii. Risk—Bearing:
- iii. Innovations:

#### g) Enterprise Objective

- i. Organic Objectives Survival then Growth and Expansion
- ii. Economic Objectives- Profit Maximizing Objective
- Social Objectives: <u>Avoid anti—social practices</u>, <u>opportunities for gainful employment</u>, continuous and sufficient supply of unadulterated goods, does not cause any type of pollution.
- iv. Human Objectives: All the objectives towards its employees
- v. National Objectives:

Production Analysis	CA Aditya Sharma 7410134858					
h) Constrains and Problems in achieving objective						
Constrains in achieving the objectives	Enterprise's Problems					
a) Information	a) Objective					
b) Infrastructure	b) Location of Plant					
c) Factors of Production	c) Size of Plant:					
d) Economic Aspects	d) Physical Facilities					
	e) Finance:					
	f) Organisation Structure:					
	g) Legal Compliance:					
	h) Industrial Relations:					

#### PART B - PRODUCTION FUNCTION

- 1. Production Function is the functional relationship between physical inputs and physical outputs
- 2. The maximum amount of output that can be produced with given quantities of inputs, in the existing state of technology.
- 3. Production Function gives the minimum quantities of various inputs that are required to yield a given quantity of output.
- 4. Cobb-Douglas Production Function
  - a) Output is manufacturing production and inputs used are Labour and Capital.
  - b) Cobb-Douglas Production Function is Q = KLaC(1-a),

Where, Q is output, L is Quantity of Labour and C the qty of Capital. K and a are Positive Constants.

c) Labour contributed about 3/4<sup>w</sup> and Capital about 1/4<sup>th</sup> of the increase in the Manufacturing Production.

#### 5. Short run and long run production function

	Short Run	Long Run
Fixed	Only one Factor of Production is kept	There is no Fixed Factor of Production in the
Factor	constant or fixed. [Generally and, Capital	long—run planning horizon.
	or Enterprise is taken as fixed.]	all the factors production are variable.
Proportion	Production is increased by increasing	Production is changed by changing all the Factor
between	proportion of variable factor only, keeping	of Production simultaneously
Factors	fixed factor constant	
Theory	Law of Variable Proportions is	Law of Returns to Scale is applicable in the
•	applicable in the short—run.	long—run.

#### 6. Assumptions:

- It is related to a particular unit of time.
- The technical knowledge during that period of time remains constant.
- The factors of production are divisible into most viable units.
- The producer is using the best technique available.

Production Analysis

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#### 7. Understanding Short term production function

Total		Total Output				
Product	tion					
Averag	e	AP = TP/Units of variable input (labour)				
Product	tion					
Margin	al	Additional	TP due	to an ad	lditiona	l unit of input.
Product	tion	MP = Chan	ge TP /	′ change	in Labo	ors Or,
(MP)		Mp = MP =	TPn -	TPn_1		
Relatio	nship	1. Both AP	and MP	can be co	alculate	ed by TP.
betwee	n AP	2. When Al	rises t	then MP a	lso rise	es but MP>AP.
and MP		3. When Al	' is max	imum the	n MP =	AP or say MP curve cuts the AP curve at its
		maximun	n point			
		4. When Al	P falls t	hen MP al	lso falls	s but MP <ap.< td=""></ap.<>
		5. There m	ay be a	situation	when N	NP decreases and AP increases but opposite never
*		happene	d.			
Schedu	le	Labour	ТР	AP	MP	Analysis
		1	2	2	2	MP & AP both increases' MP>AP' TP also
		2	5	2.5	3	increases
	3 9 3 4					
		4	12	3	3	MP=AP, AP = maximum
		5	14	2.8	2	MP & AP both decreases MP <ap<sup>. TP increases</ap<sup>
		6	15	2.5	1	MP = 0  TP = maximum
		7	15	2.1	0	
		8	14	1.7	-1	AP > MP both decreases TP decreases
		9	12	1.3	-2	
	Relat	Relationship between TP				
Rule		and MP Y Point of Inflexion TP is maximum. MP is Zero at this point.				
1	When increa:	TP increases sing rate, MP s	at an hows an	.		TP TP
	increas	e.			ndth	A stage Stage Stage AP is maximum, So, MP
2	When decrea	TP increases ising rate, MP	shows a		°   _	II III = AP.
	decreas	se.	MD is	-		AP X When TP falls, MP
3	zero.	i P is maximur	n, mp is		Qt	ty of Variable Factor C
4	When	TP decreas	es, MP			
L	Decome	negative.				
Relatio	nship	a. Whe	n AP ris	es, MP >A	NP.	
betw	een	b. Whe	n AP is i	maximum	, MP = A	Р.
Aver	age	c. MP d	eclines	slightly e	earlier	than AR
Product	t and	d. MP C	urve cut	ts AP Curv	ve from	above when AP is maximum.
Marg	inal	e. Whe	n AP de	creases, i	MP < AP.	
Prod	uct	f. MP C	'urve de	clines ste	eply th	an AP.
		g. MP m	nay beco	ome zero	and neg	gative later, but AP continues to remain positive
Note:	The	point on the	TP Cur	ve when	MP is	maximum, is called Point of Inflexion

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- 8. Law of Variable Proportion/ Law Of Proportionality/ Law Of Diminishing Returns /Law Of Diminishing Marginal Physical Productivity.
  - (a) The Law of Variable Proportions operates in short run only
  - (b) Output is increased by varying the quantity of one input.
- 9. Explanation to Various Stages
  - a) Explanation to Stage 1
    - 01. Full Use of Fixed Indivisible Factors Fixed Factors are more intensively and effectively utilized. This causes the production to increase at a rapid rate.
    - 02. Efficiency of Variable Factors- Through Specialization
    - 03. No Scarcity of Variable factor
    - 04. Reaching the right combination
  - b) Explanation to Stage 2-
    - 01. Inadequacy of Fixed Factor
    - 02. Less efficiency of Variable Factor
    - 03. Imperfect Substitutes
    - 04. Wrong combinations

Note: Stage II is called Law of Diminishing Returns since MP and AP both show decreasing trend. However, both MP and AP remain positive

- c) Explanation to Stage 3
  - 01. Variable Factor becomes too excessive, Due to this, the total output falls instead of rising.
  - 02. Stage III is called Law of Negative Marginal Returns

Since the second stage is the most important, So stage II will be stage of operation and because of that in practice we normally refer to the law of variable proportion as the law of diminishina returns.

Stage I and III is the stage of economic absurdity or stage of economic nonsense

Production Analysis

### Law of Return to scales- Operates in Long Run Only

1. All factor inputs in the production function can be changed. The behavior of output consequent to change in the quantities of all factor inputs in the same proportion (i.e. keeping, the factor proportions unaltered) is known as 'returns to scale'.

Increasing Returns to Scale:	Simultaneous increase in <u>all</u> the inputs in the same given proportion result in a more than proportionate increase in the output.	
Constant Returns to Scale:	<ol> <li>Proportionate increase in <u>all</u> the inputs results in proportionate increase in output.</li> <li>Constant return to scale is also called 'Linear Homogeneous Production Function'.</li> </ol>	
Diminishing Returns to scale:	Simultaneous increase in <u>all</u> inputs in the same given proportion result in <u>a less than</u> proportionate increase in the output	

# 2. Internal Economies and Diseconomies to Scale- Use of greater degree of division of Labour and specialised machinery at higher levels of output are generally termed as Internal Economies.

Technical	Managerial	Commercial	Risk— bearing	Financial		
All these factors are within the control of an organization and thus are internal Factors. These						
factors initially acts Economies but after a pint becomes diseconomies						

#### 3. External Economies are explained below —

Cheaper Raw Materials	Technological	Development	Growth of	Better
and Capital Equipment for	development for	of Skilled	ancillary	transportation
entire industry	entire industry	Labour	industries	and marketing

#### 4. External Diseconomies:

Rise in Factor Prices:	Higher Costs:	Government Restrictions:
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### **Production Optimisation**

- 1. Isoquant Curve: "Iso" means equal and "quant" means quantity.
  - (a) An Isoquant is a Curve that shows all the combinations of inputs that yield the same level of output.

#### 2. MRTS=Marginal Rate of Technical Substitution

- (a) MRTS always shows diminishing trend.
- (b) MRTS= Change in units of capital/ change in units of labour

Combination	Units of Labour (x)	Units of Capital (y)	Product Output	MRTS (See Note)
A	5	9	100 units	
В	10	6	100 units	(9- 6)/(10-5) = 0.6
С	15	4	100 units	(6 - 4)/( 15 -10) = 0.4
D	20	3	100 units	(4-3)/(20-15)= 0.2

#### 3. Features of Isoquants:

- (a) Isoquants are convex to the origin, due to diminishing trend of MRTS
- (b) Isoquants are negatively sloped, i.e. downwards from left to right.
- (c) Isoquant do not touch either axis.
- (d) Isoquants need not be parallel.
- (e) Two Isoquants cannot cut each other, i.e. Isoquants are nonintersecting.
- (f) An Isoquant lying above and to the right represents a higher level of output.
- 4. Isocost Lines: Equal—Cost Lines or Budget Line or the Budget Constraint Line.

Isocost Line shows the various alternative combinations of two Factor Inputs, which a Firm can buy with given amount of money.

#### 5. Production Optimisation

- 1. A Profit Maximising Firm is interested to know what combination of factors of production would minimise its Cost of Production for a given output, and also the optimum level of output.
- 2. This is obtained by combining the Firm's Production and Cost Functions, namely Isoquants and Isocost Lines respectively.
- 3. Isoquants represent the technical conditions of production for a product, and Isocost Lines represent various "levels of cost" (given the prices of two factors). Together, these can help the Firm to optimize its production.





Factor (y) / Capital

Factor (x) /Labour



#### Meaning

- 1. Business decisions are generally based on cost of production i.e. the money value of inputs and output is considered.
- 2. In other words, cost analysis is concerned with the financial aspects of production.

#### 3. Types of cost

	Name	Explanation
•	Explicit cost	1. Costs which involve cash payment towards factors of production.
•	Out-of-Pocket	2. Recorded in books of accounts.
	Costs	3. Rent, Wages & Salaries, Interest on Loans borrowed for business, etc.
•	Outlay Costs.	
•	Accounting Costs	
•	Implicit cost	1. Costs do not involve any cash payment to outsiders.
•	Notional cost	2. It is the monetary reward for all factor of production owned by
•	Imputed cost	entrepreneur himself
•	Opportunity	3. Not recorded in books of account.
	Costs.	4. Interest on own Capital, Rent of own premises, Salary to Entrepreneur,
		etc.
Ec	onomic Costs	Explicit Costs + Implicit Costs.
Op	oportunity Cost	1. It refers to the value of sacrifice made, or benefit of opportunity
		foregone in accepting a next best alternative course of action.
		2. Opportunity Cost arises only when alternatives are available. If a
		resource can be put only to a particular use, there are no Opportunity
		Costs.
		3. Opportunity Costs do not involve any cash payment as such.
		4. It is considered only for decision—making and analytical purposes.
		5. Examples: A person quits his job and enters into business. Here, the
		Salary foregone from employment constitutes Opportunity Cost.
•	Direct cost	1. Direct costs are those which have direct relationship with a component
•	Traceable cost	of operation like manufacturing a product, organizing a process or an
		activity etc.
		2. They are charged directly to product
		3. They can be generally quantified and expressed per unit of output, e.g.
		5 kg of Raw Materials per unit of product, etc.
•	Indirect cost	1. Indirect costs are those which are <b>not easily and definitely identifiable</b>
•	Non-traceable	in relation to a plant, product, process or department.
	cost	2. Therefore, such costs are not visibly traceable to specific goods,
		services, operations, etc.; but are nevertheless charged to different jobs
		or products in standard accounting practice and Apportioned on suitable
		basis.
		3. Factory Rent, Electric Power, and other Common Costs incurred for
		general operation of business benefiting all products jointly.

Theory Of Cost &	Revenue CA Aditya Sharma 7410134858
Committed Fixed	Also known as "Unavoidable" Fixed Costs. These costs cannot be controlled.
Costs	
Discretionary Fixed	Also known of "Ausidoble" Fixed Costs. These costs can be controlled
Costs	Also known as Avoidable Fixed Costs. These costs can be controlled.
Historical cost /	Historical cost refers to the cost incurred in the past on the acquisition of
Sunk Cost	a productive asset such as machinery, building etc.
Deplecement cost	Replacement cost is the money expenditure that has to be incurred for
Replacement cost	replacing an old asset.
Incremental cost	Incremental cost refers to the additional cost incurred by a firm.
Private cost	Private costs are costs actually incurred or provided for by firms and are
	either explicit or implicit.
Social Cost	1. Social cost =private cost + external cost.
	2. It includes the cost of resources for which the firm is not required to
	pay price such as atmosphere, rivers, roadways etc. and the cost in
	terms of dis-utility created such as air, water and environment pollution.

#### 4. Strike the incorrect

- Rent is paid to the Landlord, Salary/ wages paid to employee/ workers, Interest on Capital is borrowed and used in business is Explicit / Implicit cost.
- 2. Land is owned by the Entrepreneur, Own people are employed in the firm, Entrepreneur employs his own funds as Capital is Explicit / Implicit cost.
- 3. Entrepreneur himself manages the business is **Explicit / Implicit** cost.

Output	Total	Total	Total	Average	Average	Average	Marginal
(Unit)	fixed cost	variable	cost	fixed cost	variables	Total Cost	Cost Rs.
	TFC	τνς	тс	AFC	AVC	AC	MC
0	10	-	10	-	-	-	-
1	10	10	20	10	10	20	10
2	10	18	28	5	9	14	8
3	10	24	34	3.33	8	11.3	6
4	10	28	38	2.5	7	9.5	4
5	10	32	42	2	6.4	8.4	4
6	10	38	48	1.67	6.33	8	6
7	10	46	56	1.43	6.57	8	8
8	10	56	66	1.25	7	8.25	10
9	10	68	78	1.11	7.55	8.67	12

#### 5. Important types of cost

Type         Nature           Fixed         1. Fixed Costs are costs that do not vary with output.           2. They are period—related.         3. They are period—related.           3. They are incurred even at zero level of output.         4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.           5. Fixed         Costs per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice—versa.           6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.           1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.           2. They are product—related.           3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.           4. They are incurred only when production commences.           5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.           6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.           7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.           1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.           2. Marginal Cost is per unit =         Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels           3. TCe- TCe-1         4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm tis U—shaped.           Cost         Factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.           2. So, law of variable proportion applies her	Theory	Of Cost & Revenue CA Aditya Sharma 7410134858
1. Fixed Costs are costs that do not vary with output.         2. They are period—related.         3. They are taken as a function of time and not of output.         4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.         5. Fixed       Cost per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice—versa.         6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.         1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.         2. They are product—related.         3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.         4. They are incurred only when production commences.         5. Variable Costs are avaidable costs.         6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.         7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.         2. Marginal Cost per unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. TC <sub>0</sub> - TC <sub>n-1</sub> 4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm tis U—shaped.         Cost       Fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased of decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied	Туре	Nature
<ul> <li>2. They are period—related.</li> <li>3. They are taken as a function of time and not of output.</li> <li>4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.</li> <li>5. Fixed Cost per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice—versa.</li> <li>6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.</li> <li>1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.</li> <li>2. They are product—related.</li> <li>3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>4. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>4. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>4. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.</li> <li>6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.</li> <li>7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.</li> <li>Marginal</li> <li>Costs</li> <li>1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.</li> <li>2. Marginal Costs per unit = Difference in Output Quantity at those levels</li> <li>3. TCn- TCn-1</li> <li>4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.</li> <li>Cost</li> <li>Cost</li> <li>Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost Function</li> <li>Short Run</li> <li>1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased on decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> <li>Total</li> <li>Total</li> <li>Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. Thas inverse's shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that th</li></ul>		1. Fixed Costs are costs that do not vary with output.
Fixed       3. They are taken as a function of time and not of output.         4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.       5. Fixed         5. Fixed       Cost per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice-versa.         6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.         1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.         2. They are product-related.         3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.         4. They are incurred only when production commences.         5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.         6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.         7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         1. Marginal Cost gen unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. There, TCr-1       4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U-shaped.         Cost       Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost factor have fixed cost and variable factors ane variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Cost       So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased o decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Cost found       I. Period in w		2. They are period—related.
<ul> <li>4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.</li> <li>5. Fixed Cost per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice-versa.</li> <li>6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.</li> <li>1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.</li> <li>2. They are productrelated.</li> <li>3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>4. They are incurred only when production commences.</li> <li>5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.</li> <li>6. Variable Cost are unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.</li> <li>7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.</li> <li>Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.</li> <li>2. Marginal Costs per unit = Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels Difference in Output Quantity at those levels</li> <li>3. TCr- TCr-1</li> <li>4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors and some factors cannot be varied</li> <li>Total Fixed costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's shape and south of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance</li> </ul>	Photo I	3. They are taken as a function of time and not of output.
<ul> <li>5. Fixed Cost per unit of output decreases with increase in output, and vice-versa.</li> <li>6. Rent, Insurance, Interest on Loans, Depreciation, etc. are Fixed Costs.</li> <li>1. Variable Costs are costs that vary, based on the level of output.</li> <li>2. They are product-related.</li> <li>3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.</li> <li>4. They are incurred only when production commences.</li> <li>5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.</li> <li>6. Variable Costs per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.</li> <li>7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.</li> <li>Marginal</li> <li>1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.</li> <li>2. Marginal Costs per unit = Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels Difference in Output Quantity at those levels</li> <li>3. TCn- TCn-i</li> <li>4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U-shaped.</li> <li>Cost</li> <li>Cost</li> <li>Short Run</li> <li>1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> <li>Total</li> <li>FC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run, e.g. rent and insurance</li> <li>Total</li> <li>Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverses' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output til zero cost is also zero and as output</li> </ul>	<b>FIXED</b>	4. They are incurred even at zero level of output.
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Variable       4. They are incurred only when production commences.         Costs       5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.         6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.         7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         Marginal         Costs         1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.         2. Marginal Costs per unit =         Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. TCn- TCn-1         4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost         Function         Short Run         1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased o decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run, e.g. rent and insurance         Image: the short run, e.g. rent and insurance       Image: the short run, e.g. rent and insurance         Image: the short run, e.g. rent and insurance       Image: the short run, e.g. rent and insurance      <		3. They are taken as a function of output and not of time.
Costs       5. Variable Costs are avoidable costs.         6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs vary proportionately with output.         7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         Marginal         Costs         1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.         2. Marginal Costs per unit =         Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. TCn- TCn-1         4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost         Function         Short Run         1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased o decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total         Fixed cost         Wariable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Variable	4. They are incurred only when production commences.
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Vary proportionately with output.         7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         Marginal         1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.         2. Marginal Costs per unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         0. Marginal Costs per unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. TCn- TCn-1       4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost       Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost         Function       1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         Short Run       1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors cannot be varied         Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run, e.g. rent and insurance         Imaginal costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		6. Variable Cost per unit of output generally remains constant, if Total Variable Costs
7. Cost of Raw Materials and Wages are Variable Costs.         Marginal         1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of output.         2. Marginal Costs per unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         3. TCn- TCn-1       4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost       Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost         Function       1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Variable       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's 'shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		vary proportionately with output.
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Costs       output.         2. Marginal Costs per unit =       Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         Difference in Output Quantity at those levels         3. TCn- TCn-1         4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost         Function         Short Run         1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total         Fixed cost         (Short run)         Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Marginal	1. Marginal Cost is the addition made to the total cost by production of an additional unit of
<ul> <li>2. Marginal Costs per unit = Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels         <ul> <li>Difference in Output Quantity at those levels</li> <li>3. TCn- TCn-1</li> <li>4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.</li> </ul> </li> <li>Cost Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost Function         <ul> <li>Short Run</li> <li>1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> </ul> </li> <li>Total TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         <ul> <li>Total Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output</li> </ul> </li></ul>	Costs	output.
Difference in Output Quantity at those levels         3. TCn- TCn-1         4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.         Cost         Function         Short Run         1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased o decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total         Fixed cost         (Short run)         Total         Variable         Variable       Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		2. Marginal Costs per unit = Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels
<ul> <li>3. TCn- TCn-1</li> <li>4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.</li> <li>Cost Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost Function</li> <li>Short Run</li> <li>1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> <li>Total Fixed cost</li> <li>(Short run)</li> <li>Total Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output</li> </ul>		Difference in Output Quantity at those levels
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rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.          Cost       Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost         Function       I. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         Short Run       I. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         (Short run)       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		4. Marginal Cost (MC) Curve of a Firm declines first, reaches its minimum and then
Cost Function       Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost         Short Run       1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased a decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total Fixed cost (Short run)       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Total Variable cost (TVC)       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		rises. Hence, Marginal Cost Curve of a Firm is U—shaped.
Function         Short Run         1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.         2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied         Total         Fixed cost         (Short run)         Using the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Cost	Mathematical relationship between cost of a product and the various determinants of cost
<ul> <li>Short Run         <ol> <li>Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixe factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.</li> <li>So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> </ol> </li> <li>Total Fixed cost         <ol> <li>Short run. e.g. rent and insurance</li> <li>Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output</li> </ol> </li> </ul>	Function	
Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance       Image: Cost of the short run origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Short Run	1. Period in which some factors are fixed and some factors are variable. Fixed
<ul> <li>2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased of decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied</li> <li>Total Fixed cost even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance</li> <li>Total Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output</li> </ul>		factor have fixed cost and variable factor have variable cost.
Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance       Image: Cost of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         (Short run)       Image: Cost of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance       Image: Cost of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output       Image: Cost of the short run		2. So, law of variable proportion applies here. In short-run, output can be increased or
Total       TFC is parallel to X-axis. In the figure given below, even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         (Short run)       Image: short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		decreased by changing variable factors only but fixed factors cannot be varied
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(Short run)       the short run. e.g. rent and insurance       Image: Content of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance         Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output       Image: Cost of the short run. e.g. rent and insurance	Fixed cost	even at zero output-fixed cost remain the same in
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run)       0       0         Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output       Y	(Short	Cost
Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with         Variable       Changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape         cost (TVC)       and start from origin. Figure given below shows that         Image: a output is zero cost is also zero and as output	run)	
Total       Variable Costs are those costs that change with         Variable       Changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape         cost (TVC)       and start from origin. Figure given below shows that         as output is zero cost is also zero and as output		0 Defer X
Variable       changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape         cost (TVC)       and start from origin. Figure given below shows that         as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Total	Variable Costs are those costs that change with
cost (TVC) and start from origin. Figure given below shows that as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	Variable	changes in level of output. It has inverse's' shape
as output is zero cost is also zero and as output	cost (TVC)	and start from origin. Figure given below shows that
		as output is zero cost is also zero and as output
increases cost increases. e.g. raw material, power		increases cost increases. e.g. raw material, power
etc.		etc.

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3.10

Theory	Of Cost & Revenue CA Aditya Sharma 7410134858
Semi- variable	There are some costs which are neither perfectly variable, nor absolutely fixed in relation to the changes in the size of output. <b>Example: Elasticity charges include both a fixed charge and a charge based on</b>
	Consumption.
Short run Total cost behaviour	<ol> <li>It can be noticed that TFC is constant at all levels of output.</li> <li>TVC increases with the increase in output but rate of increase is changing.</li> <li>Initially TVC increases at decreasing rate but after some time it increases at increasing rate.</li> <li>Behaviour of TVC is determined by law of variable proportion.</li> <li>TC increases with increase in output. Changes in TC are determined by TVC.</li> <li>TFC curve is a horizontal line starting from y-axis.</li> <li>TC curve is upward slopping. Initially it is fatter and later on steeper.</li> <li>TC curve is upward slopping starting from y-axis.</li> </ol>

1

6. Short Run A	verage Cost				
Average Fixed	1. Average fixed cost is the total fixed cost divided by the output.				
Cost (AFC)	2. TFC/Q.				
	3. The general shape of the AFC curve is downward sloping it does not touch the				
	X-axis as AFC cannot be zero.				
	. It is not 'U' shape. This curve is also called Rectangular Hyperbola.				
Average	1. Average variable cost is the total variable cost divided by the output.				
Variable Cost	2. TVC/Q.				
(AVC)	3. The average cost curve will first fall, then reach a minimum and then rise				
	again.				
	4. It has 'U' shape.				
Avenues Total	1 Avenues total cost is total cost divided by the system				
Average Iotal	1. Average total cost is total cost alvided by the output.				
COST (ATC)	2. IC/Q or AFC+AVC.				
	The ATC curve is 'U' shape due to law of variable proportions				
	The Arte curve is o shape due to law of variable proportions.				
Marginal Cost	1. Marginal cost is the change in total cost due to change in the output.				
(MC)	2. MC= Change in Total Cost / Change in Qty. produced				
	3. MC = Change Total Variable Cost / Change Qty. produced.				
	4. The MC curve is also 'U' shape				
Behavior of	AFC goes on diminishing with the increase in YA MC ATC				
Average -	output but it never becomes zero.				
COSTS IN Short	increasing				
- Kun	ATC initially decreases constant for a				
	while & finally ages on increasing				
	MC initially decreases & finally increases				
	The point at which ATC is minimum Tt is $0 \longrightarrow X$				
	equal to MC.				
	AFC curve is a 'rectangular hyperbola'				
	because AFC × Q is always constant.				
	because AFC × Q is always constant.				

- 7. Relationship between Average Cost and Marginal Cost Curves
  - 1. When AC falls as a result of an increase in output, MC is less than AC.
  - 2. When AC is minimum, MC = AC. So, MC Curve cuts the AC Curve at its minimum.
  - 3. When AC increases due to increase in output, MC is greater than AC.

#### 8. Relationship between ATC and MC

- ✓ Initially ATC & MC both decline with increase in output. In this situation ATC > MC.
- $\checkmark$  When ATC is minimum ATC = MC.
- ✓ When ATC & MC both are increasing MC > ATC.

- ✓ When AC is decreasing, MC may be decreasing or increasing.
- $\checkmark$  When AC is increasing MC must be increasing.

#### 9. Long run average cost curve

- a) LAC Curve: A Long Run Average Cost Curve (denoted as LAC Curve) depicts the <u>functional relationship between</u> <u>output and the long—run cost of production</u>.
- b) No distinction of Fixed Variable: All factors of production are variable in long—run.
- c) AC cannot be higher in the long—run, than in the short—run. Thus, LAC is the least—cost combination, for any particular output level.
- d) Planning Curve: LAC Curve is called Planning Curve.
- e) SAC (Short—Term Average Cost) Curves are called Plant Curves.
- f) LAC derived from SAC: LAC Curve is derived as an envelop / tangent of all SAC Curves. Further, the
- g) LAC Curve is a U-Shaped Curve, due to the operation of Law of Returns to Scale.
- h) Selecting the suitable SAC Curve at different output levels:
- i) Note: The Firm should select the SAC, not the lowest point of that SAC.
- j) Deriving LAC Curve in case of numerous / infinite SAC Curves:
- k) In the diagram, the LAC Curve is drawn as a smooth curve, so as to be tangent to each of the SAC Curves.
- 1) Note: LAC Curve is tangent to each of the SAC Curves, not the minimum points of the SAC Curves. So

When LAC Curve is -	LAC will be tangent to	Principle
	The falling portions of the	Returns to Scale will first increase, due to
Declining	SAC Curves.	internal and external economies. So, LAC will
		decline.
	The rising portions of the	Returns to Scale will decrease later, due to
Rising	SAC Curves.	internal and external diseconomies. So, LAC will
		rise.

Thus, as a result of initial fall and subsequent increase in LAC, it will be a U-shaped Curve.



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## REVENUE CONCEPT

Qty	Price p	pu	TR =	MR	Space for Diagram	
(Q)	(AR=P	<b>')</b>	PxQ			
1	22		22	22		
2	20		40	18		
3	18		54	14		
4	16		64	10		
5	14		70	6		
6	12		72	2		
7	10		70	-2		
8	8		64	-6		
9	6		54	-10		
10	4		40	-14		
Meaning	9	1.	Revenue ret	<sup>f</sup> ers to moi	ney received by a seller by selling his product in the	
			market.			
		2.	Hence, reve	nue is sales	receipts or sales proceeds.	
Total R	evenue	1.	1. It is the total money received from the sale of all units of the product.			
		2. Total Revenue = Price × Quantity (P × Q)				
Average	2	1.	1. Average Revenue = Total Revenue/Quantity (TR/Q)			
Revenue	e (AR)	2.	Average Rev	venue is alw	ays equal to Price	
Margina	al	1.	MR is the <u>cl</u>	<u>nange in TR</u>	<u>resulting from the sale of an additional unit</u> of a	
Revenue	e (MR)		commodity.			
		2.	Marginal Re	venue = Cl	hange in TR/ Change in Qty.	
			Marginal Re	venue= TRI	n - TRn-1	
MR, A	AR, TR	Mar	ginal Reveni	le = Averag	e Revenue (E - 1/E)	
and E	lasticity	Wh	ere E = Price	e elasticity	of demand	
of Dem	and			en MR = 0		
		2.	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{If } E > I, \text{ Ine} \\ T \in \Gamma : 1, \text{ The} \\ \end{array} $	en MR Will d	e Positive	
3.		3.	LT E < 1, The	en MR WIII D	e Negative	
Benavio		1. A firm should produce at all if I otal Revenue(IR) from its product is equal to				
IR, AR	C MK	or exceeds its total variable Cost (IVC) or say IR $\geq$ IVC (Price $\geq$ AVC).				
	2				- TVC	
			x y - ik an Tt will ha m	u rive x Q	- ive $a_{1}$ the firm to increase output whenever MD > MC and $a_{2}$	
		5.	decrease ou	thut when	by the firm to increase output whenever $MK > MC$ and ever $MD > MC$ and the firm should continue production	
			till	i pur where	we and the firm should continue production	
	Λ		MD - MC -	nd MC cum	ve should cut to MP from below	
		<u>т.</u>	min - mic u		TE STIVUIN CUT TO THIN IT UTIL DEIUW.	

#### Summary of Relationships:

	-	If TR increases, MR will be positive.
TR and	•	When TR is maximum, MR = 0.
MR	•	If TR decreases, MR will be negative.
	•	MR and AR both decline, but MR falls rapidly than AR
MR and	•	AR Curve is flatter than MR.
AR	•	MR can be zero and even negative, while AR will never cross below the X axis.
	-	At the point where MR = 0, Elasticity of Demand on AR Curve will be 1.

#### Equilibrium Point of the Firm

- It will be profitable for the Firm to expand its output whenever Marginal Revenue (MR) is greater than Marginal Cost (MC), and to keep on increasing output until MR = MC.
- If any unit of production adds more to Revenue than to Cost, production and sale of that unit will increase profits. Similarly, if it adds more to Cost than to Revenue, it will decrease profits.



- 3. Profits will be maximum at the point where Additional Revenue (MR) from a unit equals its Additional Cost (MC). So, MC = MR.
- 4. Further, the MC Curve should cut the MR Curve from below (and not from above). This is so because, upto this point MR > MC, hence there is an incentive for further production. Beyond this point, MC > MR.
- 5. This position (i.e. where MC = MR, and MC cuts MR from below) is called **Equilibrium position** for the Firm.
- 6. Thus, Note: For achieving Equilibrium Position, the conditions to be satisfied are -MC = MR, and MCCurve should cut MR Curve from below, i.e. MC should have +ve slope.
- 7. Merely being in Equilibrium position does not mean that the Firm is making profits. The actual position of

Situation	Interpretation
If AR > AC	The Firm makes <b>super-normal profits</b> , i.e. over and above normal profits.
If AR = AC	The Firm makes <b>normal profits</b> , since AC includes normal profits.
	The Firm makes losses, but it need not shut down in the short—
If $AR < AC$	run. (See Para C.5) Note: Here, Loss means Economic Loss, and
	not Loss as per Books of Accounts.

profits can be known only on the basis of AR and AC Curves


# Meaning:

- 1) Market is a place where Buyers and Sellers meet and bargain over a commodity for a price.
- 2) Also, market can be defined simply as all those buyers and sellers of a good or service who influence price.
- Elements of a Market: The elements of a Market are-
- 1) Buyers and Sellers,
- 2) Product or Service,
- 3) Bargaining for a Price,
- 4) Knowledge about market conditions, and
- 5) One Price for a Product or Service at a given time.



#### B. Types of Market

The Market Structures analysed in Economics are --

	1			
Perfect	Monopoly:	Monopolistic	Oligopoly	Monopsony-
Competition		Competition		
Many Sellers	Single Seller	Many Sellers	A Few Sellers	Single Buyer of a
selling identical	producing	offering	selling competing	product or
products to many	differentiated	differentiated	products to many	service.
Buyers.	products for	products to many	Buyers.	
	many Buyers.	Buyers.		
	R. B.	CINTRER AND STATE		(4052) <b>贝</b> 开 WCR

#### Other forms of the market are

- Duopoly- Duopoly is a market situation in which there are only two Firms in the market. It is a sub—set of Oligopoly.
- 2. Oligopsony Oligopsony is a market characterized by a small number of large buyers.
- 3.Bilateral Monopoly- 1It is a market structure in which there is only a Single Buyer and a Single Seller. Thus, it is a combination of Monopoly Market and a Monopsony Market

#### **Classification of Market:**

Markets are generally classified into-

- a. Product markets- markets for goods and services in which households buy the goods and services they want from firms. Product markets allocate goods to consumers,
- b. Factor markets- those in which firms buy the resources they need land, labour, capital and entrepreneurship- to produce goods and services. Factor markets allocate productive resources to producers. The prices in factor markets are known as factor prices.

Area	Time	Nature of	Regulation	Volume of	Types of
		Transaction		Business	Competition
Local market	Very Short period-	Spot	Regulated	Wholesale	Perfectly
	Also Known as	Market	Market	market	competitive
	MARKET PERIOD				
Perishable and	Market for Flower,				
Bulky Goods	fish etc.				
	Supply is Fixed				
Regional	Short period	Future	Unregulat	Retail	Imperfectly
Market		Market	ed Market	Market	Competitive
Kolhapuri					
Chappal					
National	Long Period				
Market					
Hindi books					
International	Very long/ <mark>Secular</mark>				
Market	Period				
High Value					
Small Bulk					

Alfred Marshall conceived the 'Time' element in markets and on the basis of this, markets are classified into

### Do You Know??

- Difference between 'value in use' and 'value in exchange'.
  - Value in use refers to usefulness or utility i.e the attribute which a thing may have to satisfy human needs.
  - Value in exchange or economic value is the amount of goods and services which we may obtained in the market in exchange of a particular thing. It is measured by the amount someone is willing to give up in other goods and services in order to obtain a good or service.
- In Economics, we are only concerned with exchange value. Considerations such as sentimental value mean little in a market economy

C. Perfect Competition

Features of Perfect Competition

- 1. Large number of Buyers & Sellers
- 2. Sellers offer Homogeneous/ identical Products
- 3. No individual Buyer or Seller will be in a position to influence the demand or supply in the market.
- 4. Firm is free to enter the market or to go out of market.
- 5. There is a **perfect knowledge**, on the part of Buyers and Sellers.
- 6. There are adequate facilities for the movement of goods from one center to another
- 7. All Firms individually are Price Takers. Because-

If he lowers the price

and if he increases the price

- 8. The goods are dealt on at a uniform price throughout the market
- 9. Buyers have no preference as between different Sellers
- 10. Sellers are indifferent as to whom they sell
- 11. There is **perfect mobility of factors of production**. Why?\_\_\_\_\_.
- 12. Perfect Competition is a **MYTH**

How Demand Curve is determined

- 1. In Perfect competition there is Uniform Market Price
- 2. All the firms are Price Taker and same price prevails in the market.
- 3. Price Elasticity of Demand is infinity.
- 4. Hence, the Equilibrium Price determined by Market Demand and Supply forces, constitutes the Demand Curve for the Firm. This Price is also the Average Revenue (AR).
- 5. and Marginal Revenue (MR) for the Firm, since the price is uniform in the market. So, in Perfect Competition, D = AR = MR = Price



Draw MC	Draw
curve	demand/Average
	Revenue/
	Marginal revenue
	curve
Draw	Draw short run
Average	equilibrium price
cost curve	curve in Market

# Short Run price determination, Optimum output/Equilibrium and profit Determination

For achieving Equilibrium, the conditions to be satisfied are -

- 1. MC = MR, and
- 2. MC Curve should cut MR Curve from below, i.e. MC should have positive slope.



#### For Profit determination

- 1. Merely being in **Equilibrium position does not mean** that the Firm is making **profits**. The actual position of profits can be known only on the basis of **AR** and **AC** Curves.
- 2. In the short run, a firm may earn <u>supernormal profits</u>, <u>normal profits</u> or <u>losses</u> depending upon its cost conditions.



In perfect competition firm, MC curve above AVC is considered the supply curve

# Long - run Equilibrium of a firm under Perfect Competition.



In the Long run the firms will be earning just NORMAL PROFITS.

In the above figure industry has decided the price 'P' and firm has taken over the same price at the same time firm is earning just normal profits.

In the long run, following conditions are satisfied: The Firm is called as Optimal Firm

- The output is produced at the minimum feasible cost or minimum LAC
- Consumers pay the minimum possible price which just covers Marginal cost = MC=AR=P
- Full utilization of plants is possible, MC = AC
- There is no wastage of resources. optimal allocation
- Firms earn only normal profits i.e. AC = AR.
- Firms maximize profits i.e. MC = MR, but level of profits will be normal.
- There are Optimum Number of firm in Industry
- In the long run LMC = LMR = P = LAR = LAC = SMC = SAC
- When LAC falls LAC> LMC and when LAC raises LMC > LAC.

# Long Run Equilibrium in the\_Industry

The Industry is said to have attained long—run equilibrium when —

- 1. All the Firms are earning normal profits only, i.e. all the Firms are in long—run equilibrium, and
- 2. There is no further entry or exit of Firms to / from the market.

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Chapter 4 : Price Determination in Different Markets

Question 1: What can be the profit/ loss condition in long run in Perfect competition? Answer:

#### Question 2: Why not Super- Normal profit?

**Answer-** Super profit will attract new firms>>>> Supply will increase>>>>>> Market Price will fall>>>>>> upward shift of Cost Curves>>>>> super profit will be wiped out

#### **Question 3: Why Not Losses?**

**Answer-** Existing Firms will leave the industry >>>>>reduction in supply>>>>> increase in Market Price>>>>>Cost Curves may fall>>>>>>loss will be recovered

#### Relationship between AR, MR, TR and Price Elasticity of Demand

It is to be noted that marginal revenue, average revenue and price elasticity of demand are uniquely related to one another through the formula:

MR = AR (e-1)/e

# e= elasticity

## Thus when

- i. e>1, MR is positive
- ii. e=1, MR = 0
- iii. e<1, MR is Negative



#### **Behavioral Principal**

- 1. Principle 1- A firm should not produce at all if its total variable costs are not met.
- 2. Principle 2 The firm will be making maximum profits by expanding output to the level where marginal revenue is equal to marginal cost.

#### D. Monopoly

# i. Features of Monopoly

- a) Single Seller
- b) Firm = Industry
- c) Entry Restrictions- (i) economic, (ii) institutional, (iii) legal, or (iv) artificial.
- d) No substitutes. Cross Elasticity of Demand for the Monopolist's Product and any other product is \_\_\_\_\_
- e) Elasticity of demand- Price Elasticity of Demand for Monopolist's Product is <u>less than</u> <u>one.</u>
- f) Monopolist is a Price—Maker, not a Price—Taker.
- g) Imperfect Mobility due to fewer substitutes.
- h) May or May not be optimal Firm

# ii. Why Monopoly exists?

Monopoly is caused by "barrier to entry". Some reasons for occurrence of Monopoly are -

- 1. Strategic Control over scarce resources
- 2. Control over a unique product.
- 3. Patents and Copyrights g
- 4. Governments granting exclusive rights
- 5. Substantial Goodwill
- 6. Natural Monopoly e.g. Natural Gas Supply, Electrical Power Distribution, etc.
- 7. Stringent Legal and Regulatory Requirements
- 8. Very high initial start—up costs
- 9. Use of Anti-Competitive Practices or Predatory Tactics.
- 10. Business Combinations or Cartels

#### iii. Note:

In the practical world, Monopolies are either regulated or fully prohibited. Hence, Pure Monopolies are not common. However, a single Producer may dominate the supply of a good or group of goods. In Public Utilities, e.g. Transport, Water, Electricity Generation, etc. Monopolistic Markets existed earlier in India, so as to reap the benefits of large scale production. But these markets have now been deregulated and opened to competition. In India, Indian Railways has monopoly in Rail Transportation. Government has monopoly in Nuclear Power production.



# *Chapter* 4 : Price Determination in Different Markets

- iv. Negative Effects of Monopoly-
- 1. Higher Prices for Consumers,
- 2. Loss of Consumer Surplus,
- 3. Inability of Consumers to substitute the goods or services, with a more reasonably priced alternative,
- 4. Transfer of Income from Consumers to Monopolists,
- 5. **Restriction of Consumer Sovereignty** and reduction in opportunities for Consumers to consume goods they desire,
- 6. **Payment of lower prices by Monopolies to their Suppliers** (of goods and services), i.e. lower Factor Payments,
- 7. Lower levels of Output, that what would be produced in a competitive environment,
- 8. Ability of Monopolist to influence political process and thereby obtain a favourable legislation,
- 9. Lack of Innovation,
- 10. Higher Costs of Output, the burden of which will be shifted to Consumers
- 11. Lack of Productive and Allocative Efficiency,
- 12. Possibility of misuse of scarce resources,
- 13. Earning of Economic Profits (above Normal Profits) in the long run, which is unjustifiable,
- 14. Use of Monopoly Power to create barriers to entry by undue means,
- 15. Scope for X—Inefficiency, i.e. the difference between efficient behaviour of businesses assumed or implied by economic theory and their observed behavior in practice caused by a lack of competitive pressure, etc.

Qty	Price	TR =	AR =	MR	Diagram
(Q)		PxQ	TR/Q		
1	22	22	22	22	Y L
2	20	40	20	18	
3	18	54	18	14	
4	16	64	16	10	
5	14	70	14	6	
6	12	72	12	2	
7	10	70	10	-2	Ouantity
8	8	64	8	-6	↓ MR
9	6	54	6	-10	
10	4	40	4	-14	

#### v. Determination of Demand/ Revenue curve

*Chapter 4* : *Price Determination in Different Markets* 

- It shall be noted that price elasticity of DD was infinite in Perfect competition thus the DD curve was parallel to Quantity axis.
- 2. In Monopoly, the monopolist in order to increase his sale may lower the price. Thus the elasticity exists. However since there is no Close substitute, the DD curve is Flatter as compared to that in Monopolistic competition
- 3. Firm's Demand Curve = Average Revenue (AR).
- 4. Relationship between AR & MR under Monopoly:
  - a) Both AR and MR are negatively sloped (downward sloping) curves.
  - b) MR Curve lies half—way between the AR Curve and the Y—axis, i.e. it cuts the horizontal line between Y axis and AR into two equal parts.
  - c) In other words, Slope of MR is twice of AR
  - d) AR cannot be zero, but MR can be zero or even negative.
- vi. Short Run price determination, Optimum output and profit Determination
  - a. For achieving Equilibrium, the conditions to be satisfied are-
  - 1. MC = MR, and
  - 2. MC Curve should cut MR Curve from below, i.e. MC should have positive slope.



- 1. Merely being in **Equilibrium position does not mean** that the Firm is making **profits**. The actual position of profits can be known only on the basis of **AR** and **AC** Curves.
- 2. In the short run, a firm may earn <u>supernormal profits</u>, <u>normal profits</u> or <u>losses</u> depending upon its cost conditions.

Short Ru	Long Run Positions	
Super profits:	Losses:	Only Super profit
• Here, AR >ATC.	• Here, AR <atc.< th=""><th>(LAR &gt; LAC):</th></atc.<>	(LAR > LAC):
• Here area PABC	<ul> <li>The Shaded area</li> </ul>	
denotes super profit.	PBAC denotes Loss	<ul> <li>Monopoly firm in the long run gets abnormal profits because, the new firms are not allowed to enter the market</li> <li>Under long-run a monopoly firm can produce at optimal or sub-optimal level.</li> <li>In other words it can</li> </ul>





#### **Price Discrimination**

#### 1. Meaning:

a) Price Discrimination occurs when a Producer sells a commodity to different Buyers, at different prices, for reasons not related to differences in cost.

#### 2. Objectives:

- a) To earn Maximum Profit
- b) To Dispose of Surplus stock
- c) To enjoy Economies of Scale
- d) To capture foreign markets
- e) To secure equity thorough pricing.
- 3. Examples:
  - a) **Doctors** may charge more from a rich patient than from a poor patient, for the same treatment.
  - b) Electricity Rates for home consumption are less than that for industrial use.
  - c) **Export Prices** of Products are cheaper than the domestic market selling price.
  - d) Railways charge different rates from different type of passengers e.g. AC, Non—AC, Tatkal, etc.

# 4. Conditions for Price discrimination

- 1. Full control over supply of commodity
- 2. Division of market into two or more sub-markets: A seller can practice price discrimination only when he is able to divide the markets into two or more sub-markets.
- 3. Different price elasticity under different markets: Monopolist charge <u>higher price</u> from that market whose price elasticity is less than one and can charge <u>lower price</u> from that market whose price elasticity is greater than one.
- 4. No possibility to resale: It should not be possible for the buyers of low-priced market to resell the product to the buyers of the high priced market

Prof. Pigou classified three degrees of price discrimination.

a. First degree price discrimination, the monopolist separates the market into each individual consumer and charges them the price they are willing and able to pay and thereby extract the entire consumer surplus.

Eg. Doctors, lawyers, consultants etc., charging different fees, prices decided under 'bid and offer' system, auctions, and through negotiations are examples of first degree price discrimination.

- b. Second degree price discrimination- different prices are charged for different quantities of sold. The monopolist will take away only a part of the consumers' surplus. The two possibilities are: a) Different consumers pay different price if they buy different quantity. b) Each consumer pays different price for consecutive purchases.
- c. Third degree price discrimination price varies by attributes such as location or by customer segment. Here the monopolist will divide the consumers into separate sub-markets and charge different prices in different sub-markets. Examples: Dumping, charging different prices for domestic and commercial uses, lower prices in railways for senior citizens, etc.

#### Equilibrium under price discrimination

- a. Under simple monopoly, a single price is charged for the whole output; but under price discrimination the monopolist will charge different prices in different sub-markets.
- b. First of all, the monopolist has to divide his total market into various sub-markets on the basis of differences in elasticity of demand.



In order to reach the equilibrium position, the discriminating monopolist has to make three decisions:

- i. How much total output should he produce?
- ii. How the total output should be distributed between the two sub-markets? And
- iii. What prices he should charge in the two sub-markets?

## E. Monopolistic Competition

- 1. Imperfect competition is found in the industry where there are a large numbers of
- small sellers, selling differentiated but close substitutes products. E.g. LUX, HAMAM, LIRIL etc. This market contains features of both competitive and monopoly markets.
- 2. Large number of sellers and buyers
- 3. Free entry and exit of firms.
- 4. Product differentiation:
- 5. Non price competition:
- 6. Every firm is price maker and price taker of his own product
- 7. Imperfect mobility:
- 8. AR and MR: In monopolistic competition AR/MR will be more elastic than monopoly market.

Determine Condition for Equilibrium

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2.

#### Short Run Equilibrium







# Chapter 4 : Price Determination in Different Markets

# Normal profit (LAR = LAC/ TAC)

- 1. In long Run the firm will earn normal profits, because there is free entry and exit of firms.
- 2. The AR curve in the long-run <u>is not tangent to</u> <u>the ATC curve at the lowest point</u>.
- This shows each firm produces at before the lowest TAC/LAC or produces less than the optimum output and Charges from the customers a price higher than the competitive price.
- 4. A firm under monopolistic petition has always excess capacity and thus is never an optimum firm, but <u>perfect competition never has excess</u> <u>capacity and monopoly mayor may not be</u>



## F. OLIGOPOLY MARKET

Meaning- An oligopoly is a market in which there are <u>few producers (two to ten)</u> of a product.

- ✓ Oligopoly is an important form of imperfect competition.
- Sellers sell homogeneous or differentiated but close substitutes products
- ✓ Example- cold drinks industry or automobile industry.
- ✓ It shows the concept of group behaviour
- ✓ There is large entry barrier

#### Types of Oligopoly

- 1. Pure / Perfect oligopoly deals in homogeneous products- Aluminum industry
- 2. Differentiated / imperfect oligopoly deals in product differentiated.
- 3. Open oligopoly New firms can enter the market and compete with existing firms
- 4. Closed oligopoly new entry is restricted.
- 5. Collusive oligopoly common understanding or collusion in fixing price and output
- 6. Competitive oligopoly Lack of understanding and compete with each other.
- 7. Partial oligopoly when industry is dominated by one large firm i.e. price leader
- 8. Full oligopoly absences of price leadership.
- 9. Syndicated oligopoly- Firms sells their products through centralized syndicate/ channel
- 10.**Organized oligopoly:** Firms organize into a central association for fixing price, output etc.



- Few sellers
- Interdependence: In oligopoly, firm must consider the market demand and the reactions of the firms in the industry to any major decision it takes.
- Advertising and selling costs (Non price competition): There is a great importance advertising and selling costs in an oligopoly market. They avoid price cutting and try to compete on non-price basis
- There is no generally accepted theory of group behaviour. In oligopoly, the members of a group agree to pull together in promotion of common interest or they fight to promote their individual interests.
- Substantial barriers to entry: In oligopoly there is no free entry and no blocked entry, we can say that there is substantial barriers to the entry.

Kinked demand curve / Indeterminateness of demand curve-

 Because <u>interdependence of the firms</u> in oligopoly and because of <u>inability of a particular firm to pre the</u> <u>behaviour</u>, the demand curve facing an oligopolist may have a 'kink' at the level of the prevailing suggesting stickiness in the price level.



- 2. The kink is formed at the prevailing price level at because the segment of the demand <u>curve above the 'K' is highly</u> elastic and the below the 'K' is inelastic.
- 3. Price rigidity:
  - a) When an oligopolist lowers the price- its competitors will feel that, if they do not follow the price cut their customers will run away and buy from the firm, which has lowered the price. Thus in order to maintain their customers they will also lower their prices. Thus the upper portion of the demand curve is price elastic.
  - b) When firm increases the price- there will be a substantial reduction in its sales because as a result of the rise in its price, its customers will withdraw from it and go to its competitors, which will welcome the customers and will gain in sales. These happy competitors will have, therefore, no motivation to match the price rise.

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*Chapter 4 : Price Determination in Different Markets* 

# Summary of Different Market

Aspect	Perfect Competition	Monopoly	Monopolistic Competition	Oligopoly
Number of Sellers	Very large	Only One	Large	A Few
Nature of Product	Homogeneous / Identical Product. No differentiation.	Highly differentiated / specialized product.	Slightly differentiated / specialized product.	Nature of Differentiation varies.
Product	None	Extreme	Slight	None to
differentiation				substantial
Ease of Entry /	Ence Entry / Exit	Only One	Erec Entry / Exit	Only Few
Exit	Thee Linity / Lan.	Seller.		Sellers.
		Total	Each Firm is a	
Control over	Nil		Price-Maker for	Reasonable
Price			its own	Reusonuble.
			product.	
Elasticity of Demand	Infinity.	Less Elastic.	More Elastic.	Kink
Domend Curry	Horizontal	Negatively	Negatively	Kinked Curve
Demana curve	Line.	Sloped	Sloped.	KINKEU CUIVE.
	Foodgrains,	Railways,	Cars, Soaps,	Pharma, Cold
Examples	Vegetables, etc.	Electricity	Toothpaste, etc.	Drinks, etc.
		Supply.		
Profit in Long-	Normal Profits	Super—Normal	Normal Profits	_
Run	Only.	Profits	Only.	
Optimality in	Each Firm is an	Can operate at	Idle Capacity. Not	—
Long-	Optimal Firm.	sub-optimal	an	
Run		level also.	Optimal Firm.	



#### A. Meaning, Phases of Business cycle

Chapter 5- Business Cycle

- Fluctuations in aggregate economic activity that an economy experiences over a period of time, i.e. periods of prosperity alternating with periods of economic downturns, are called Business Cycles or Trade Cycles.
- Business Cycles refer to <u>alternate expansion and contraction of overall business</u> <u>activity</u> as reflected in fluctuations in measures of aggregate economic activity, like Gross National Product, Employment and Income.
- Phases: The four distinct phases of the Business Cycle are
  - a) Expansion / Boom / Upswing),
  - b) Peak / Prosperity,
  - c) Contraction / Downswing / Recession), and
  - d) Trough / Depression).
- A Trade Cycle is composed of periods of
  - a) Good trade characterized by rising prices and low unemployment levels.



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b) Bad trade characterized by falling prices and high unemployment levels.

#### B. Features of Business cycle

- a) Business cycles occur periodically
- b) Do not exhibit the same regularity.
- c) The duration of these cycles vary.
- d) The intensity of fluctuations also varies.
- e) The length of each phase is also not definite.
- f) Business cycles are exceedingly complex phenomena;
- g) Business cycles generally originate in free market economies\*\*\*\*\*.
- h) They are pervasive as well. Disturbances in one or more sectors get easily transmitted to all other sectors.
- i) Although all sectors are adversely affected by business cycles, some sectors such as



Features

# Chapter 5- Business Cycle

capital goods industries, durable consumer goods industry etc, are disproportionately affected.

- j) Moreover, compared to agricultural sector, the industrials sector is more prone to the adverse effects of trade cycles.
- k) It is difficult to make an accurate prediction of trade cycles before their occurrence.
- 1) Repercussions of business cycles get simultaneously felt on nearly all economic variables
- m) Business cycles have serious consequences on the well-being of the society.
- n) Business cycles are contagious and are international in character.

# C. Phases of Business cycle

# 1. Expansion: Features

- a) Increase in *national output*, *employment*, aggregate demand, capital and consumer expenditure, sales, profits, rising stock prices and bank credit.
- b) This state continues till there is full employment of resources and production is at its maximum possible level using the available productive resources.
- c) Involuntary unemployment is almost zero and whatever unemployment is there is either frictional or structural Prices and costs also tend to rise faster. Good amounts of net investment occur.
- d) Increasing prosperity and people enjoy high standard of living due to high levels of consumer spending, business confidence, production, factor incomes, profits and investment.
- e) The growth rate eventually slows down and reaches its peak.

# 2. Peak:

- a) Peak refers to the top or the highest point of the business cycle.
- b) Output prices also rise rapidly leading to increased cost of living and greater strain on fixed income earners.
- c) Actual demand stagnates.
- 3. Contraction:
  - a) During contraction, there is fall in the levels of investment and employment.
  - b) Supply far exceeds demand. Initially, this happens only in few sectors and at a slow pace, but rapidly spreads to all sectors.
  - c) Producers holds back future investment plans, cancellation and stoppage of orders for equipment and all types of inputs including labour.
  - d) Decrease in input demand pulls input prices down; incomes of wage and interest earners





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# Chapter 5- Business Cycle

gradually decline resulting in decreased demand for goods and services.

e) The process of recession is complete and economy into the phase of depression.

# 4. Trough and Depression:

- a) Depression is the severe form of recession and is characterized by extremely sluggish economic activities.
- b) During this phase of the business cycle, growth rate becomes negative
- c) National income and expenditure declines rapidly.
- d) Demand for products and services decreases, prices are at their lowest and decline rapidly forcing firms to **shutdown several production facilities**.
- e) A typical feature of depression is the fall in the interest rate.
- f) Large number of bankruptcies and liquidation significantly reduce the magnitude of trade and commerce.
- g) Greatest depression occurred in 1929- 1933 Reason lower aggregate Expenditure

## D. Question: How does the economy recover?

The economy cannot continue to contract endlessly. Economic activity reaches Trough and then starts **recovering** >>>> marks the end of pessimism and the beginning of optimism>>>> Reversal is first felt in the **Labour Market** >>>> workers accepts wages lower than the prevailing rates. >>>> **Business Confidence** slowly increases, >>>> spurring of investment causes **recovery** of the economy. >>>> **Banking System** now slowly starts expanding credit, matching with the business confidence.

>>>>> Employment, Factor Payments, Disposable Incomes, Consumer Spending, Aggregate Demand, etc. all rises

# E. Indicators- 3 Indicators (Leading, Lagging, concurrent)

# Leading Indicators:

- It is a measurable economic factor that changes before the economy starts to follow a particular pattern or trend. Variables that change before the Real Output changes
- However, Indicators are not always accurate and Experts disagree on the timing of these Leading Indicators.
- # Eg. -Change in stock price, profit Margin, Indices, housing interest rate, prices, value of new orders of plant and machinery/ consumer goods, building permits of private house









#### Chapter 5- Business Cycle

#### Lagging Indicators:

- Changes in these indicators are observable only after an economic trend or pattern has already occurred. variables that change after the Real Output changes
- **#** E.g. Unemployment, corporate profit, labour cost per unit, interest rate, Consumer price index, Commercial Lending

#### Source Concurrent Indicators:

- **#** It coincides or occurs simultaneously with the business—cycle movements.
- It gives information about the rate of change of the expansion or contraction of an economy more or less at the same point of time it happens.
- **#** It describes current state of Economy
- # E.g. GDP, Industrial productions, Inflation, personal Income, Retail Sales, Stock Market prices

#### F. Role/ Importance of Business cycle in Business Decision making

- 1. Demand Impact: Business Cycles affect demand of the products.
- 2. Decision regarding Expansion of business.
- 3. **Policies:** Knowledge of Business Cycles and their inherent characteristics is important for a Business Firm to frame appropriate policies.
- 4. **Production Aspects:** Businesses have to properly respond to the need to alter production levels relative to demand.
- 5. Market Entry / Product Launch: The phase of the Business Cycle is important for a new business to decide on entry into the market.
- 6. Cyclical Businesses:
  - Some businesses are more vulnerable to changes in the Business Cycle than others.
  - Businesses whose fortunes are closely linked to the rate of economic growth are called "Cyclical" Businesses. Examples: House—Builders, Construction, Infrastructure, Restaurants, Advertising, Overseas Tour Operators, Fashion Retailers, etc.
  - During a boom, such businesses see a strong demand for their products but during a slump, they usually suffer a sharp drop in demand.
  - Some Businesses may actually benefit from an economic downturn, e.g. when their products are perceived by Customers as representing good value for money, or a cheaper alternative compared to more expensive products.





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# G. Causes of Business Cycle

H. Internal causes- Endogenous factor	I. External Causes- Exogenous factor
Internal causes of Business Cycle are those	External causes of Business Cycle are those
cause which are generated <u>within the</u>	cause which are generated <u>out of the</u>
NATION itself and are not international in	NATION and are international in character
<u>character</u>	
# Fluctuations in Effective Demand	# Wars
# Fluctuations in Investment- According to	# Post War Reconstruction
some economists this the primary cause	
of Business Cycle	
# Variations in government spending	# Technology shocks
# Macroeconomic policies	# Natural Factors
# Money Supply	# Population Growth
# Psychological factors	

#### 5. Some important Points for MCQ

- a) According to Pigou, modern business activities are based on the anticipations of business community and are affected by waves of optimism or pessimism.
- b) According to Schumpeter's innovation theory, trade cycles occur as a result of innovations which take place in the system from time to time.
- c) The cobweb theory propounded by Nicholas Kaldor holds that business cycles result from the fact that present prices substantially influence the production at some future date.
- d) According to Hawtrey, trade cycle is purely Monetary Phenomenon

#### National Income: Basics

- a) National Income measure short-run performance of an economy.
- b) National income gives us an idea of the working of an economy .
- c) National income accounts provide a comprehensive, conceptual and accounting framework.
- d) National Accounts help us to understand how the various transactions from the stage of production of goods and services to the stage of their final disposal are interrelated.
- e) It helps to meet the needs of Government, private analysts, policy makers and decision takers.
- f) National Income Accounting was pioneered by the Nobel prize-winning economists Simon Kuznets and Richard Stone
- g) The task to measure National Income is undertaken by **Central Statistical Organization** (CSO), a department of The Ministry of Statisticsand Programme Implementation (MoSP&I)
- h) At the State level, **State Directorates of Economics and Statistics (DESs)** have the responsibility of compiling their State Domestic Product and other aggregates.

#### Distinguish between Non-economic activities and economic activities

- 1. Economic Activities- Goods and services that can be purchased / exchanged with money.
- 2. Non-economic activities are those which produce goods and services but are not exchanged in a market.

#### What is the national Income ?

National Income is defined as money value<sup>1</sup> of final goods and services<sup>2</sup> produced by the normal residents<sup>3</sup> of a country, whether operating within the domestic territory<sup>4</sup> of the country or outside produced within in an accounting year<sup>5</sup>.

#### a. Expressed in Money Value-

- \* It becomes necessary to measure their value against some commonlyaccepted denominator.
- \* Thus, money being the measuring rod.

#### b. Final Value of Goods and services-

- 1. Value final goods and services are included to avoid double counting.
- 2. Intermediate goods are those goods and services which are used by producers as input into further stage of production

The final products are of two types- Consumer Goods and Services and Producer Goods-

1. Consumer Goods- Where the goods and services are used for final consumption by the consumer, it is called as Consumer Goods and services.

E.g. - TV, Food, Home appliances.

2. Producers Goods- Where the final product is used in production of othergoods/ service in future, it is called as Producers goods.

E.g. Computer used for developing programs or software, Plant and Machinery used in manufacturing of goods

#### c. Normal resident-

- 1. Normal resident of a country refers to an individual or an institution who ordinarily resides in the country and whose center of economic interest also lies in that country.
- 2. Normal residents include both, individuals and institutions.
- 3. Here the word 'Resident' is used and not the word 'Citizen'. Hence, they may or may not be citizen of that country

#### d. Domestic territory:

- 1. Domestic territory refers to geographical or political boundary of country.
- 2. It however does not include- international institutional (United nations, WHO, WTO) and foreign embassies located within geographical territory but includes embassies of this country located outside itsgeographical territory
- 3. Indian Ship and Indian aircrafts performing operations outside country is also included in domestic territory.

#### e. Current output:

While calculating National income value of only current production is included, this is because the value of previous year's production is included in Previous year's National Income.

#### National income does not include the following transactions:

- Pure purchase transaction such as sale and purchase of used goods/ second- hand goods, this is because nothing new is produced in the current year. However, where the goods are refurbished the added value must be taken in calculation of National
- 2. Sale, purchase of securities is also excluded because it is just a change of ownership.
- **3.** Transfer payments are included as there is no economic activity involved. E.g Pocket money by Parents, Gift to Son in law.

#### Transfer Payment-

Income.

- 1) Transfer payments are unilateral payments for which no productiveservices are rendered in return in the *current year*.
- 2) The recipient of this transfer payment does not make any contribution to current production in return for these payments
- 3) E.g Pension is given to a person in C.Y for rendering services in past, Unemployment allowance.

#### There are two types of transfer payments Viz. Current transfer and Capital transfer

- 4) Current transfer refers to the transfer made out of current income of payer and is added to current income of payee.
- 5) Capital transfer refers to transfer made out of the wealth of the payer and added to wealth of the receiver. (not in our syllabus).

#### Flow concept vs stock concept

Flow concept: - National income is a flow concept because it is measured over a period of time.

#### USEFULNESS OF NATIONAL INCOME ESTIMATES

- > It is helpful in many ways such as
- a) Helps business Businesses to forecast the future demand for their products.
- b) shows the composition and structure of different sectors and the broad sectoral shifts in an economy over time.
- a) Shows income distribution and the possible inequity in the distribution among different income categories .
- b) Helps government to make <u>various sector-specific development policies</u>, <u>make macroeconomic</u> <u>modeling</u>, comparisons of structural statistics and analysis to increase growth rates.
- c) Policy Formulation -Combined with financial and monetary data, national income data provides a guide to makepolicies for growth and inflation.
- c) International comparisons in respect of incomes and living standards assist

#### Limitation of National Income

- 1. Income Distribution is not clearly reflected: implies that the gap between richand poor is widening
- 2. If the increase in GDP is on account of long working hours, Employment of child labour, and polluted working environment, exclusion of leisure such increase in GDP is not the real sign of welfare.
- 3. 'How much is produced' determines GDP. It does not reflect 'what is produced'.
- **4.** If more of capital goods are produced the GDP will rise but the welfare may not increase in same manner.
- 5. Avoids importance of Non-Market Transaction- Example, Such as providing music class to society children for fun and other similar activity.

Explain the conceptual difficulties or challenges in measurement of national Income

The conceptual difficulties or challenges in measurement of national Income are:

- 1. Lack of an agreed definition of National Income. (like GDP, GNP, NDP, NNP etc)
- 2. Non-availability of accurate distinction between final and intermediate goods.
- 3. Issue of transfer payments.
- 4. Service of durable goods.
- 5. Valuation of New goods at constant price
- 6. Valuation of Government services -
- 7. Data available are either inadequacy or unreliable for calculation of national Income
- 8. Presence of non-monetize sector
- 9. Production for self-consumption

#### 6: GDP AND WELFARE

Can the GDP of a country be taken as an index of the welfare of people in that country? Answer:

#### GDP is the sign of welfare increase in GDP Increases welfare yet.

- Countries may have Same national income and per capital income but their welfare may vary significantly.
- Welfare may increase many times but not GDP.
- GDP may increase many times but not Welfare -

### THE SYSTEM OF REGIONAL ACCOUNTS IN INDIA

- 1. All the states and union territories of India compute state income estimates and district level estimates.
- 2. Regional accounts provide an integrated database on the many transactions taking place at state level.
- 3. State Income or Net State Domestic Product (NSDP)- volume of all goods and services produced in the state.
- 4. The state level estimates are prepared by respective State Directorates of Economics and Statistics (DESs) with assistance of The Central Statistical Organization assists the States.
- 5. Per Capita State Income = NSDP (State Income) / midyear projected population of the state
- 6. Certain activities such as are railways, communications, banking and insurance and central government administration, gives services to many states and their economic contribution cannot be assigned to any one state directly are known as the 'Supra-regional sectors' of the economy. The estimated value in these cases calculated and distributed to the states on the basis of relevant indicators

#### CIRCULAR FLOW OF INCOME



- Circular flow of income refers to the continuous circulation of production, income generation and expenditure involving different sectors of the economy.
- There are three different interlinked phases in a circular flow of income, namely: production, distribution and disposition.
- 1. In Production phase- firms produce goods and services with the help of factor services.
- 2. In Income or distribution phase, the flow of factor incomes in the form of rent, wages, interest and profits from firms to the households occurs
- 3. In Expenditure or disposition phase, the income received by different factors of production is spent on consumption of goods and services and investment goods. This expenditure leads to further production of goods and services and sustains the circular flow.

Circular flow of income can be viewed from two different angles-

- 1. What is Real Flow? Real flow consists of flow of factor service and flow of goods and services among different sector of economy- Yellow Arrows
- What is Money flow? Money flow consists of flow of money for factor services in form of wages, rent, dividend (Green arrow) and money expenditure incurred on purchase of goods and services (Blue arrow/green).

# ECONOMIC SECTORS OF AN ECONOMY

- 1. Household Sector:
- 2. Business Sectors/ Firm/ Producer:
- 3. Government Sector:
- 4. Foreign Sector/ Rest of the World

## Models of circular flow of Economy

2 Sector	3 Sector	4 Sector
Household Sector	Household Sector	Household Sector
Firm Sector	Firm Sector	Firm Sector
	Government	Government
		Rest of the world
	Closed Economy	Open economy

Two Sector Model without savings- Refer Diagram below Assumptions:

- 1. There are only two sectors in an economy. Householdsand the firms.
- 2. No savings is made by either by Household or by Firm.
- 3. Households spend entire income on goods and services and firm distributes entire proceeds in the form of factor payments.

In this two-sector model without investment it is assumed that all the income earned by the Household is spent on buying Consumer Goods from the firm, while all the proceed are distributed as factor payments to households. Thus, the equilibrium will be achieved.

In other words, there is no leakage in income and the below mentioned equations hold good-

- 1. <u>Total production of Goods and services by firm= Total consumption of goods and services by households.</u>
- 2. Factor Income of household= Total factor payments.
- 3. Income of the firm= Expenditure of the households.
- 4. Real flow = Money flow

# Two Sector Model with Savings and Investment

# Assumptions

- 1. We have assumed that savings is done only by Households and not firms.
- 2. All the savings made by the households are invested in capital Market.

Savings, Leakage, reduction in flow of income and investment S=I

Savings made by the households and the investments may not be equal in all the time. There are three

possible situations mentioned below-

- i. If Savings= Investment, equilibrium is achieved
- ii. Is Savings > Investment, the flow of income declines
- iii. Is Savings < Investment, the flow of income rises

#### Three Sector Model of circular flow of income

The three-sector model consists of Households, Firmsand Government.

- The equilibrium condition of circular flow of income in 3 sector economy model is: S+T = I+G.
- 2. If (S+T)> (I+G)- Decline in flow of income
- 3. If (S+T)< (I+G)- Increase in flow of income

#### Four Sector Model of circular flow of income

It is also called as open economy model as it is engaged in international operations too.

Explanation:

\* Export is denoted by X while Import is denoted by M.

Thus, it can be said that X constitutes injection while M creates leakage into circular flow of income.

- 1. At equilibrium = S+T+M = I+G+X
- 2. If S+T+M > I+G+X, there is decline in flow of income.
- 3. If S+T+M < I+G+X, there is increase in flow of income

Distinction between three and four sector Economy model:

#### Importance of Circular Flow of Income

- 1. Easy to view the entire system as circular flow of income.
- 2. Circular flow of income pinpoints the condition of macroeconomics equilibrium.
- 3. It gives an idea as to how different sectors of economy interacts
- **4**. It shows how different sectors of economy (Household sector, Business sector, Government and Rest of the world) are interdependent and are interrelated.
- 5. It helps in determining size of income. We can estimate national income with the help of output, income and expenditure phases of circular flow of income

#### Thus,

National Income refers to -

- 1. Money Value of all the final goods and services produced by a country during a year. (Production Phase)
- 2. Total Flow of Earnings of the Factor Owners, in the form of Wages, Salaries, Rent, Interest and Profits, which they receive through the production of goods and services. (Income Generation Phase)

#### Unit 2- National Income Aggregates

Nomactic Product and National Product (	(Domostic income and National Treame)	
Domestic Product and National Product	Domestic income and inational fucome)	

Particulars	Domestic Products	National Products
Meaning	Money value of Final Goods and service produced by both, nationals of the country as well as foreign national located within domestic territory of a country during a year	Money value of Final Goods and service produced by Normal Resident of a country whether operating within domestic territory of a country or outside.
Basis of differentaition	<ul> <li>Addressed with the question of where theincome is generated.</li> <li>It is geography or territory oriented</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>It can be addressed with the question of who generates the income.</li> <li>It is Nationality Oriented.</li> <li>It excludes foreign national</li> </ul>

Net factor Income Earned from Abroad

Net factor Income Earned from Abroad or **NFIA** is the difference between the factor income received and the factor income accruing to rest of the world

National Product at Market Price and National Product at Factor Cost

- 1) Factor cost refers to factor payment made by the business to the owners of factor of production in the form of rent, wages, interest and profit
- National product at Market price = National Product at factor cost + Indirect tax\*-Subsidies, or
- 3) National product at Market price = National Product at factor cost + Net Indirect tax\*\*

#### Factor Cost vs Basic Price vs Market Price

- 1) Factor cost = Sum total of factor income in form of rent, wages, interest and profit
- 2) Base Price: = Factor cost + Production tax (License, Stamp duty, municipal tax, property tax)
   Production subsidies
- 3) Market price = base price + Product tax (Indirect tax/ GST) product subsidy
- 4) Market Price: Basic Price + Product tax Product Subsidy = Market Price.
- 5) MP = FC + Net Indirect tax (when production tax and production subsidies are not given)

#### Gross Vs Net

Net domestic Product = Gross domestic Product - Depreciation Net national Product = Gross national Product - Depreciation

1- Gross Domestic Product at Market Price - GDP<sup>MP</sup>

2- Gross National Product at Market Price - GNPMP

3- Net Domestic Product at Market Price - NDPMP

- 4- Net National Product at Market Price NNPMP
- 5- Gross Domestic product at Factor cost GDPFC
- 6- Gross National product at Factor cost GNPFC
- 7- Net Domestic product at Factor cost NDPFC
- 8- Net National product at Factor cost NNPFC

Why NNP at factor cost is better measure of National Income than NNP at Market Price? Answer: NNP at Market price is affected by factor called as Net indirect tax. If there is change in tax rate and subsidy then NNP at market price figure will change accordingly without actual increasein Factor cost. Also, different countries have different tax rate and thus for internationalcomparison of relative income level.

	Types of Income:		
Disposable	Income available for disposable and it includes transfer payments.		
income	Example, Income may be 10,000 but one may also receive transfer payment which will increase the money received by him to the extent of transfer payment say 2000. Therefore, Income is 10000 while Disposable income is 12000 Thus, Disposable income = Income + Net Transfer payment** Disposable income may be more or less depending upon whether Net transferpayment is positive or negative		
National	National Disposable income is the sum total of National Income	at Market	
Disposable	priceand net of Current transfer received from rest of the world		
Income	$GNDI = GNP_{MP} + Net$ transfer Payments received from rest of the world		
	NNDI = NNP <sub>MP</sub> + Net transfer Payments received from rest of the world NNDI = $GNP_{MP}$ + Net transfer Payments received from rest of the world- depreciation		
Disposable	There are three disposable income appreciates namely.		
income of	1 Private Income		
Private	2 Personal Income		
sectors	2. Personal Disposable income		
5001015			
	Less Miscellaneous receipts of Govt. department. Fines, fees etc.	30	
	Less Personal taxation	60	
	Personal Income	640	
Per	a) It serves as an indicator of the standard of living of a country.		
Capital	b) Per capita income = <u>NNP<sub>FC /</sub></u> Population		
Income			

Summary

GNDI = GDP<sub>MP</sub> + Net transfer payment received from rest of the world

**NNDI** = NDP<sub>MP</sub> + Net transfer payment received from rest of the world

 $\label{eq:private Income = NNP_{FC} - Income from property and entrepreneurship accruing to govt. commercial$ 

enterprises and admin department- Savings of non- Departmental enterprises of government

+Interest on national debt +Net Current Transfer payment received from Govt. dept

+Net transfer payment received from rest of the world

**Personal Income** = Private Income - Undistributed profits- Corporate taxes

**Personal disposable income** = Personal income- Personal taxes- Miscellaneous receipts of Govt. department.

\*Interest that Govt. pays on National debt: Sometimes govt. borrows fund from private institutionand pays the interest on the same. The interest shall be included in factor payment by it is argued that the monies are utilized for welfare purpose and thus shall be treated as Transfer payment.

\*\*The private sector receives transfer payment both from Govt. and rest of the world. Reverse is also true in many cases.

	Nominal GDP	Real GDP
Also known as	GDP at Current price	GDP at Constant price
Meaning	GDP at Current price is the value of all	GDP at Constant price is the value of all final
	final goods and services produced within	goods and services produced within the
	the domestic territory of a country by	domestic territory of a country by normal
	normal residents, whether nationals or	residents, whether nationals or non- nationals,
	non- nationals, inclusive of depreciation	inclusive of depreciation during a year at
	during a year at market price prevailing in	market price prevailing in base year
	that year	
		GDP at constant price =
		<u>GDP at Current price</u> × 100
		Price index of current year

**GDP Deflator:** It is the ratio of Nominal GDP (at Current Prices) to Real GDP (at Constant price) **GDP Deflator:** <u>Nominal GDP</u>

Real GDP

- a) GDP Deflator takes out the Inflation out of Nominal GDP. It deflates the GDP.
- b) It converts Nominal GDP to Real GPD

Inflation:

- a) Using the GDP deflator, the inflation rate between two consecutive years can be compute using the following procedure:
- b) Inflation rate in year 2 = <u>GDP deflator in year 2 - GDP deflator in year 1</u> × 100 <u>GDP deflator in year 1</u>

# Methods of Measuring National Income

There are three ways to measure National Income

- 1. Product method or Value-added method- Flow of Goods and services
- 2. Income Method- Flow of income generated
- 3. Expenditure Method- Flow of Expenditure on Goods and services

## Net product or Value-Added Method

Meaning	National income by value added method is the sum total of net value added at				
	factor cost across all producing units of the economy less intermediate purchases from all other industries.				
Steps 1	Identifying the producing enterprises and classifying them into different				
	sectorsaccording to the nature of their activities				
	(i) Primary sector- production units which produces goods and commodities by exploiting natural resources. Examples- farming, Mining, Fishing, etc.				
	(ii) Secondary sector- This sector transforms one for of commodity into other				
	formsuch as manufacturing				
	(iii) Tertiary sector or service sector- Provides services which are intangible in nature.				
Step 2	Estimating the gross value added (GVA <b>MP</b> ) by each producing enterprise.				
	Gross value added (GVA MP)				
	= Gross Value of production - value of Purchase				
	= Value of output - Intermediate consumption				
	= (Sales + change in stock) -Intermediate consumption. This will Give us GDPMP				
Step 3	Conversion:				
	• GDP <sub>MP</sub> - depreciation= NDP <sub>MP</sub>				
	<ul> <li>NDP<sub>MP</sub>- Net indirect tax = NDP<sub>FC</sub></li> </ul>				
	NDP <sub>FC</sub> + NFIA= NNP <sub>FC</sub>				
Inclusion and	Precaution in Estimation of National Income by Value-added Method-				
exclusions	1. Production for self- consumption				
	2. Own account production of fixed assets.				
	3. Imputed rent of owner-occupied houses.				
	4. Service of House wives shall.				
	5. Sale and purchase of existing commodities or second-hand goods shall not beincluded. However.				
	6. Sale and purchase of Share and Bonds				

#### Income Method/ Factor Payment Method/ Distributed Share Method

Meaning	National income is calculated by summation offactor incomes paid out by all production unitswithin the domestic territory of a country as wages and salaries, rent, interest, and profit.	
Steps 1	Classify the income into appropriate income categories namely,	
	1. Labour Income or Compensation to employees	
	2. Capital or Property income or Operating surplus	

		1		
5tep 3	The above exercise will give NDP <sub>FC</sub> . The adjustment of NFIA will give National Income			
Labour	> This is the compensation paid to	the labour/ employee for the		
Income	<ul> <li>servicerendered by them.</li> <li>&gt; It is the payment made by the producer to employees or labour, for the services rendered by them, in cash, kind and social security benefits.</li> </ul>			
	Included	Excluded		
	Salaries and wages in cash including Bonus, DA, HRA	Old age pension shall not be considered while calculating Labour income as it is a transfer payment		
	Current year pension provision shall be considered.	TA shall be excluded if it is for business work or on reimbursement basis.		
	Travelling allowance shall be included if it is for travel form office tohome and home to work	Contribution of employee to social security fund shall not be added as it is already part of salary.		
	Contribution of employer to social security fund shall be added. E.g. Provident fund	Interest free loan given to employee		
	Commission paid to sales staff	Old age pension		
	Payment in kind- Rent free	Income tax of employee		
	accommodation, Free Meal coupon			
	LIC premium paid by employer	Old age pension shall not be considered while calculating Labour income as it is a transfer payment		
Operating Surplus	Operating Surpl	has		
	Royalties Rent- including self-occupied house, in the form of imputed rent Interest- Interes- paid by govern debt and inter paid by consu on tincluded because these treated as tran payment	est est ment est are are Dividends Taxatio Undistributed profits		
	It is the income earned from <b>ownership</b> is alsoknown as income from <b>property</b> an	and control of Capital. Therefore, it nd entrepreneurship.		

Mixed Income	<ul> <li>It includes <ul> <li>Rent- including self-occupied house, in the form of imputed rent</li> <li>Interest</li> <li>Royalties for</li> <li>Profit before tax</li> </ul> </li> <li>Note: <ul> <li>If the question mentions about Profit before tax than Undistributed profit, dividend and corporate taxes shall be ignore.</li> <li>If the question does not mention about the profit before tax- add all three</li> <li>If nothing if prefixed to profit, assume it to be PBT</li> <li>Interest paid by government debt and interest paid by consumer on borrowingsare not included because these are treated as transfer payment</li> </ul> </li> <li>Mixed income is the income generated by own account workers and income of unincorporated enterprises.</li> <li>Example of such mixed income are legal service, agriculture, trading,</li> </ul>				
	proprietorship, Plumber, carpenter	etc.			
	<ul> <li>Mixed income contains both components of income namely capital income</li> </ul>				
	and labour income of those who provides capital and labour service in				
	production process.				
	<ul> <li>It is the composite of both labor income and capital income and arises</li> </ul>				
	in case where it is difficult to differentiate between labour element and				
	capital element I factor of production.				
	Example of such incomes are own account workers like CA, Lawyer,				
	Shopkeeper etc.				
Inclusion	Include	Exclude			
and exclusion	Imputed rent of self-occupied	Transfer payment- Refer earlier			
	house by owner of this house	part of the chapter			
	consumption	Lllegal Income like, smuggling, drug dealing etc.			
	Imputed value of service provided	Interest on loan taken for meeting			
	byowner of production unit	consumption expenditure- eg. Loan			
		to buy house, loan to buy car, etc.			
	Interest on loan taken for meeting business needs	Interest on national debt- refer earlier discussion			
	Brokerage service in facilitating the transaction of second-hand goods	Income in respect of second-hand commodities			
	Income tax and TDS to show gross	Income arising from transfer of			
	income shares and other securities.				
Difficultion	1 The young difficult to patimeter	Mixed income in yest country with			
DITTICUITIES	1. It is very attricuit to estimate	mixed income in vast country with			
	<ul> <li>2 Many aconomists criticize the new inclusion of interact on notional debt in</li> </ul>				
	calculation of national Income				
	3 The data collected for calculation of NIT is highly unreliable and				
		in state of highly an chable and			

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#### understated.

	understated.				
Expenditure Metl	nod/ Income disposal Method				
Meaning	In the expenditure approach, national income is the aggregate final expenditure in an economy during anaccounting year.				
Explanation:	<ul> <li>This approach gives GDP at market price.</li> <li>Expenditure on final goods and services in the economy is divided into four broad categories, namely</li> <li>1. Private final consumption expenditure- Consumption expenditure done by households.</li> <li>2. Investment Expenditure- Investment expenditure done by producers and Government in an economy.</li> <li>3. Government final consumption expenditure- Consumption expenditure done</li> </ul>				
	<ul> <li>4. Net exports- foreign component of expenditure in the form of net exports.</li> </ul>				
Private Final	The volume of final sales of goods and services to consumer households and				
consumption	nonprofit institutions serving households acquired for consumption (not for use				
expenditure	e in production) are multiplied by market prices and then summation is do				
Denoted By C	It also includes the value of primary products which are produced for own consumption by the households, payments for domestic services which one household renders to another.				
Government	Government means general government and not the government enterprises Since				
final	the collective services provided by the governments such as defense, education				
consumption	healthcare etc. are not sold in the market, the only way they can bevalued in				
expenditure	money terms is by adding up the money spent by the government in theproduction of these services. This total expenditure is treated as consumption expenditure				
Denoted	of the government				
By G	Government expenditure on pensions, scholarships, unemployment allowance et should be excluded because these are transfer payments.				
Investment	Gross domestic fixed capital formation includes final expenditure on machinery and				
Expenditure	equipment and own account production of machinery and equipment, expenditure on construction, expenditure on changes in inventories, and expenditure on the				
Denoted	acquisition of valuables such as iswelry and works of art				
By T	acquisition of valuables such as, jeweil y and works of all.				
Бу 1	<ul> <li>It comprises of-</li> <li><b>1. Gross fixed investment</b>-</li> <li>Expenditure on machinery and equipment, expenditure on construction, and expenditure on the acquisition of valuables such as, jewelry and works of art.</li> <li><b>2. Inventory Investment</b>-</li> <li>This means change in inventory.</li> <li><b>3. Expenditure on residential investment</b>-</li> </ul>				
	Expenditure on purchase or construction of new houses. Own account production of houses, expenditure on major repairs and renovation are to be included in				

	expenditure on residential houses				
Net Export	Net exports are the difference between exports and imports of a country during the accounting year. It can be positive or predetive				
X-M	The accounting year. It can be positive of negative.				
Formula	$GDP_{MP} = C + I + G + (X - M)$				
Therefor National Income					
	Y = C + I +G + (X-M) +NFIA- Depreciation- NIT				
Precautions	<ol> <li>Goods meant for self-consumption shall be added and proper value shall beassigned in that case.</li> <li>Own account production of machinery and equipment shall be added to calculatefinal expenditure on machinery and equipment.</li> <li>Transfer payments shall be excluded.</li> <li>Expenditure on second-hand goods should be excluded.</li> </ol>				
	5. Expenditure on intermediate products should be excluded.				

Question: Why are net exports added when computing national income by expenditure Method?

#### Choice of Different method

In many economies, it may not be possible to estimate National Income using any one method exclusively.

- a) Income Method is more suitable in Developed Economies.
- b) If Commodity Flow and Expenditure then Expenditure Methodcan be used.
- c) An effective procedure is to arrive at National Income using all these three approaches / methods, which serves the following purposes
  - i. to permit cross-checking of different methods, ensuring greater accuracy of data,.
  - ii. to provide more details and insights e.g. Sectoral Contribution to Production, Income Group Distribution, Consumption and Investment Patterns, etc .

In India, a combination of the three methods is used, e.g. Production Method is used for Agricultural Sector, Income Method is used for Small Scale Sector and Expenditure Method is used for Construction Sector, to determine Net Value Added in that Sector.

# Keynesian Theory of Income determination

#### Background:

- The Great Depression of the 1930's, was the greatest economic crisis the western world had experienced.
- Many economists then recommended government spending as a way of reducing unemployment, but they had no macroeconomic theory by which to justify their recommendations.
- A comprehensive theory to explain Income determination was first put forward by the British economist John Maynard Keynes in his masterpiece 'The General Theory of Employment Interest and Money' published in 1936.

- **4** The Keynesian theory of income determination is presented in two sector model, three sector model and four sector mode.
- Equilibrium output occur when the desired amount of output demanded by all the agents in the economy exactly equals the amount produced in a given time period. In other words, an economy is said to be in equilibrium when the production plans of the firms and the expenditure plans of the households match.

Key Words:

Consumption	1. Functional relationship between aggregate consumption expenditure and aggregate				
Function	disposable income, expressed as $C = f(Y)$ . shows the level of consumption (C)				
	corresponding to each level of disposable income (Y).				
	2. The consumption function describes the functional relationship between				
	consum	ption spending o	and disposable inco	ome.	
Savina	Income not spent on consumption is saved. Thus, saving function denotes the balance				
Function	after impact of consumption				
Marginal	The concept of MPC describes the relationship between change in consumption ( $\Delta C$ ) and				
Propensity to	the change	the change in income ( $\Delta Y$ ). The value of the increment to consumer expenditure per unit			
consume	of increment	of increment to income is termed the Marginal Propensity to Consume (MPC).			
	MPC = Consumption / Income				
Marginal	(1 - b) is called (Marginal Propensity to Save) MPS.				
propensity to	MPS = S/Y				
Save (MPS)					
Average	The averag	e propensity to	consume is a ratio	of consumption defi	ning income consumption
propensity to	relationship. The ratio of total consumption to total income is known as the average				
consume	propensity to consume (APC)				
	APC = Total consumption/ Total income				
	Income	Consumption (C)	APC (C/Y)	ΜΡС (ΔС /ΔΥ)	ΜΡ5 (Δ5/ΔΥ)
	(Y)				=(1-MPC)
	0	500	500/0 =∞	-	-
	1000	1250	1250/1000 = 1.25	750/1000 = 0.75	0.25
	2000	2000	2000/2000 = 1.00	750/1000 = 0.75	0.25
	3000	2750	2750/3000 = 0.92	750/1000 = 0.75	0.25
	6000	5000	5000/6000 = 0.83	1500/2000 = 0.75	0.25
	10,000	8000	8000/10,000 = 0.80	3000/4000 = 0.75	0.25
Autonomous	Autonomou	s consumption	expenditure is t	he minimum exper	nditure to sustain life
Expenditure	irrespectiv	e of size of inc	ome, thus it is inco	me inelastic. The e	xpenditure which do not
	vary with t	he level of incor	ne. They are deter	mined by factors ot	her than income such as
	business expectations and economic policy. They are generally made by in the public sector with a view to provide public utilities & to make maximum social benefit.				nade by
					nake maximum social
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Keynesian theory of determination of National Income in two Sector Model.

i.	According to Keynes AD=AS	(1)
ii.	AD = C + I	(2)
iii.	Aggregate Supply in terms of Money = Quantity Produced × Price.	
iv.	Value of Aggregate Supply = National Income	(3)
۷.	Income (Y) = C+ S	(4)
vi.	Therefore from (1), (2), (3) & (4)	
vii.	C+S = C+I	
viii	. S=I	
ix.	C = a + by	
♦ W	'hy any other point cannot be Equilibrium NI?	
* Co	nse 1: $AS > AD$ i.e $C+S > C+I$	
A	ns: The firm will not be able to sell its stock & firm will reduce the production	and cut down on
e×	xpenditure, as a result demand for factor of production will decrease, in case of	Factor will
👍 re	duce and thus spending will fall. This process will continue till equilibrium is reac	hed
+		
* Co Al	ase 2: AS <ad <="" c+i<br="" c+s="" i.e="">ns: Here Demand is areater than supply and hence producer will increase the pr</ad>	oduction leading
to	b higher National income. This will cause upward moment along the line to achieve	the equilibrium
Keyne	esian theory of determination of National Income in three Sector Model.	
<b>Y</b> =	AS = C + S + T	(2)
4	Ad = C + I + G	(3)
∴ <b>C</b> o	pnsumption will be- $C = a + b$ (Yd)	
Keynes	sian theory of determination of NI in Four Sector Model.	
In 4	Sector Economy	
AS =	AD	
C + S	G + T = C + I + G + (x - m)	
S + T	= I + G + (x - m)	
ORS	$+\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{m} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{G} + \mathbf{x}$	
Investr	nent Multiplier:	_
1. The	e multiplier refers to the phenomenon whereby a change in an injection of exp	enditure wil
lea	dto a proportionately larger change (or multiple change) in the level of national	income.
2. Mu	Itiplier explains how many times the aggregate income increases as a result of ar	increase in
inve	estment.	
3. The	e ratio of $\Delta  extsf{Y}$ to $\Delta  extsf{I}$ is called the investment multiplier, k.	
4. 🛆 🕽	$\ell = \mathbf{k} \Delta \mathbf{I}.$	

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- 5. The value of the multiplier is found from the equation k = 1/(1 MPC). Or K = 1/MPS
- 6. The multiplier shows how shocks to one sector are transmitted throughout the economy.

#### Effect of Changes in Autonomous Investment

- 1. an increase in autonomous investment by  $\Delta I$ shifts the aggregate demand schedule fromC+I to C+I+ $\Delta I$ .
- 2. Correspondingly, the equilibrium shifts from E to E<sup>1</sup> and the equilibrium income increases more than proportionately from Yo to Y 1.

Till how long these processes go?

- 1. The more powerful these leakages are, the smaller the value of the multiplier. The leakages are caused due to:
  - a) Progressive rates of taxation
  - b) High liquidity preference and idle saving or holding of cash balances
  - c) Demand met out of the existing stocks or through imports.
  - d) Additional income spent on purchasing existing wealth or purchase of government securities and shares from shareholders or bondholders, income used for payment of debts
  - e) case of full employment additional investment will only lead to inflation, and scarcity of goods and services despite having high MPC

In underdeveloped countries value of multiplier is low, due to structural inadequacies, increase in consumption expenditure is not generally accompanied by increase in production.

#### Relationship between Investment Multiplier and Marginal Propensity to consumer

Higher the MPC, Higher will be the Value of Multiplier, and Vice versa. Maximum Value of Multiple will be

Infinite when MPC is 1. We conclude that value of Multiplier is reciprocal of MPS (1-MPC)

#### **Deflationary Gap**

- 1. If the aggregate demand is for an amount of output less than the full employment level of output, then we say there is deficient demand.
- 2. Deficient demand gives rise to a 'deflationary gap' or 'recessionary gap'.
- 3. Recessionary gap also known as 'contractionary gap' arises in the Keynesian model of the macro economy when the equilibrium level of aggregate production achieved in the short-run falls short of what could be produced at full employment.
- 4. Recessionary gap occurs when the economy is in a business- cycle contraction or recession.

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Public finance – Market Failure and Government Intervention				
2.1.1 Marke	t Failure			
<ul> <li>Economists personal b</li> <li>Prices pro</li> <li>The term market doe</li> <li>Market f</li> <li>underprod</li> <li>There are         <ol> <li>Cornot</li> <li>Part</li> <li>the</li> </ol> </li> </ul>	s presume that people will make choices in their own self-interest, in their greatest enefit and behave rationally. vide the accurate signals for right quantity and right price. "market failure" does not mean the market is not working at all, it only means that the es not function in the way that it should. ailure - misallocation of society's scarce resources - either overproduction or uction. two types of market failure namely; nplete market failure. This is a case of "missing markets" and occurs when the market does supply products at all. tial market failure occurs when the market does actually function, but it produces either even guantity of a product or at the wrong price			
2.1.2 Four m	ajor reasons for Market Failure			
Market p	ower Externalities Public Goods Incomplete Info			
Market Power				
Point	Explanation			
Meaning Techniques	<ol> <li>Market power or monopoly power is the ability of a firm to profitably raise the market price of a good or service over its marginal cost and can charge a price that gives them positive economic profits.</li> <li>These profits are not achieved due to operating efficiency, but due to market power and dominance.</li> <li>For Buyers: Market Power is the ability of Buyers to influence the Seller into the production of certain goods and services, over and above optimum levels of consumption. (Generally, Market Power is viewed from the Sellers' Perspective)</li> <li>Lower output: (artificial scarcity)</li> </ol>			
	2. Higher Price:			
	3. Missing Markets:			
•				
Externalities	Spillover effects   Neighborhood effects   Third-party effects   side-effect			
(Kare koi aur l	ohare koi aur)			
Point	Explanation			
Meaning and	1. When actions of either Consumers or Producers result in costs or Benefits			
concept	that do not reflect as part of the Market Price, such costs or Benefits which are not recognized by, and accounted for, <mark>by the Market Price</mark> are called "Externalities"			

Chapter /		Public Financ			
Consequences of Negative	<ol> <li>An Externality occurs, when a Consumption <u>effect on other's consumption or Product</u> reflected directly in Market Prices.</li> <li>Externalities are costs (negative e externalities), which are not reflected in f</li> <li>In Case of Negative Externalities- Marginal</li> <li>In Case of positive Externalities- Marginal</li> </ol>	n or Production Activity has an <u>indirect</u> <u>tion activities</u> and such effect are not externalities) or benefits (positive ree market prices. al Social Cost> Marginal Private Cost. Social Cost< Marginal Private Cost.			
Externalities					
Unidirectional	Unidirectional Externalities	Reciprocal Externalities			
and	Occurs when Originator imposes costs or	It occurs when 2 persons impose			
reciprocal	al Benefits on another (Recipient) and there is there is costs or on one anothe lities no externality imposed by the Recipient				
Externalities					
	back on the Originator.				
Production	Production Externalities	Consumption Externalities			
Externalities	Production externality initiated in	Consumption externalities initiated			
&	production which imposes an external cost/	in consumption which produce			
Consumption	benefit on others may be received by	external costs/ benefits on others			
Externalities	another in consumption or in production.	may be received in consumption or in			
		production.			
Externalities	Positive externalities	Negative externalities			
can be	occur when the action of one party confers	occur when the action of one party			
positive or	benefits on another party	imposes costs on another party.			
negative.	It is socially desirable	It is socially undesirable			

#### 2. Goods

**Characteristics of Private goods:** Private goods refer to those goods that yield utility to people. Anyone who wants to consume them must purchase them.

A few examples are: food items, clothing, movie ticket, television, cars, houses etc.

Properties of Private goods:

- 1. Property Right:
- 2. Rivalrous:
- 3. Excludable:
- 4. No Free riding problem:
- 5. Rejectable:
- 6. Additional resource costs
- 7. Efficient Allocation-
- 8. There is no Market Failure.

**Public Goods** - Paul A. Samuelson who introduced the concept of 'collective consumption good' in his pathbreaking 1954 paper 'The Pure Theory of Public Expenditure' is usually recognized as the first economist to develop the theory of public goods.

- a) Characteristics of Public Goods:
- 1. Collective in nature:

- 2. No direct payment
- 3. Non-rival in consumption.
- 4. Public goods are non-excludable.
- 5. Public goods are characterized by indivisibility.
- 6. Free Riding Problem & Externalities:
- 7. **Example:** Defence, Highways, Education, Scientific Research, Law Enforcement, Lighthouse, Fire Protection, Disease Prevention, Public Sanitation etc. **[Note:** Public Goods are divided into Public Consumption Goods and Public Factors of Production.]

#### Pure and Impure Public Goods

sn	Pure Public Goods	Impure Public goods
1.	A pure public good is non-	There are many hybrid goods that possess some features of
	rivalrous and non-excludable.	both public and private goods. Impure public goods are
		partially rivalrous or congestible.

#### Free Riding

- 1. Free riding is 'benefiting from the actions of others without paying'.
- 2. Consumers can take advantage of public goods without contributing sufficiently to their production.
- 3. The absence of excludability in the case of public goods and the tendency of people to act in their own self-interest will lead to the problem of free riding.
- 4. If every individual plays the same strategy of free riding, the strategy will fail because nobody is willing to pay and therefore, nothing will be provided by the market. Then, a free ride for any one becomes impossible.
- 1. No public good will be provided in private markets
- 2. Private markets will seriously under produce public goods even though these goods provide valuable service to the society.

## Information failure

- a) Complex nature:
- b) Information not available quickly and cheaply:
- c) Ignorant Buyer/seller:
- d) Inaccuracy:
- e) Misunderstanding:

#### Asymmetric information

- a) Asymmetric information occurs when there is an imbalance in information between buyer and seller i.e. when the buyer knows more than the seller or the seller knows more than the buyer can distort choices.
- b) This lead to Problem of Adverse Selection wrong product selected

#### 'Lemons problem' developed by George Akerlof in relation to the used car market

- a) Second-hand cars may be good quality cars or poor quality cars defined as "lemons". The owner of a car knows much more about its quality than anyone else & he may not disclose all the mechanical defects of the vehicle.
- b) Based on the probability that the car on sale is a 'lemon', the buyers' willingness to pay for any particular car will be based on the 'average quality' of used cars. Since there is quality uncertainty, to account for this risk, the price offered for any used car is likely to be less.



Ad	Adverse Moral Hazard - seen in case of Insurance				
1.	Moral Hazard is opportunism characterized by an informed person's taking advantage of a less-				
	informed person through an unobserved action.				
2.	It arises from lack of information about someone's future behavior.				
3.	Moral hazard occurs when there is distortion of incentives to take care or to exert effort when				
	someone else bears the costs of the lack of care or effort.				
Ro	le of Government				
	Objectives of Government Interventions:				
1.	To control potential rise in prices. (MRTP Act)				
2.	To bring in welfare to the under privileged sections of the Society by ensuring equity and fairness.				
	(Subsidy)				
3.	To provide Incentives to promote production / use of Resources in a socially desirable direction etc.				
	(Organic vegetable).				
4.	One of the most important activities of the government is to redistribute incomes so that there is				
	equity and fairness in the society.				
	Argument in favor of Government Interventions:				
1.	The role of government <i>improves the wellbeing of individuals and households</i> .				
2.	Under production of certain goods & higher prices than would exist under conditions of				
	competition( Generic Medicine)				
3.	Non-production of public goods (or collective goods) in sufficient quantities by the market. (Parks				
	and Playground)				
4.	Production and Consumption of a Good or Service affects People and they cannot influence through				
	Markets decision about how much of the Good or Service should be produced e.g. Pollution				
5.	Reduction or Distortion in choices available to consumers, and consequently lower welfare. (Only				
	Private mode of Transport)				
6.	Equity and Fairness- to Curb Inequalities in the distribution of Income and Wealth.				
7.	Instabilities caused by Business cycles and fluctuations which lead to recession, inflation, etc. for				
	prolonged periods, and cannot be corrected by Market system as such.				
8.	Market's inability to rectify "Stagflation" i.e. a State of affairs in which inflation and				
	Unemployment co-exist,				
9.	Market's inability to rectify "Contagious Effect" i.e. forces of instability transmitted from one				
	country to other countries, due to increased international interdependence				
	Arguments against government interventions:				
•	Government intervention does not imply that Markets are replaced by Government action. Government				
	can act only as complement rather than as a substitute to the Market System in an economy,				
•	Governments may not always be unbiased and benevolent.				
•	Individuals may use Government as a Mechanism for maximizing their self interest				
•	In certain cases, the <b>cost</b> incurred by Government to deal with some Market failure could be greater				
	than the cost of Market Failure itself.				
•	Government intervention may produce fresh and more serious problems that the ones sought to be				
	rectified.				
•	Government intervention is ineffective if it causes wastage of resources expended for the				
	intervention				
•	Governments are likely to commit serious errors in its attempt to correct Market failure.				

#### Types of Government interventions

Government interference can be-

- $\partial$  **Direct** as a buyer or supplier of public goods / information
- Indirectly in the form of subsidies / taxes and regulation / influence to correct distortion in the market which occurs when there are deviations from the ideal perfectly competitive state.

#### Market Power- Government control

- 1. Setting maximum prices that firms can charge.
- 2. Price regulation is most often used for natural monopolies.
- 3. Rate-of-return regulation. Another approach to regulation is setting price-caps.
- 4. Market liberalization by introducing competition in previously monopolistic sectors such as energy, telecommunication etc.
- 5. Controls on mergers and acquisitions if there is possible market domination
- 6. Price capping and price regulation
- 7. Profit or rate of return regulation
- 8. Patronage to consumer associations
- 9. Tough investigations into cartelization and unfair practices such as collusion and predatory pricing
- 10. Restrictions on monopsony power of firms
- 11. Reduction in import controls and
- 12. Nationalization

#### Government intervention to Correct Externalities

A. Direct Control: (also known as command solutions) - Direct controls *prohibit* specific activities that explicitly create negative externalities or require that the negative externality be limited to a certain level.

Examples Include:

- Smoking is completely banned in many public places.
- Stringent rules are in place in respect of tobacco advertising, packaging and labeling etc.
- fix emissions standard which is the legal limit on how much pollutant a firm can emit
- Licensing, production quotas and mandates regarding acceptable production processes are other examples of direct intervention by governments.

#### B. Indirect/ market-based Control:

- ✓ These provide economic incentives to Market Participants, to achieve the socially optimal solution.
- ✓ In other words, the government tries to alter the prices of goods through taxes and subsidies and thus change the behaviour of market participants.
  - 1. Setting the price directly through a pollution tax. These taxes are named Pigouvian taxes after A.C. Pigou.
  - 2. Setting the price indirectly through the establishment of the cap-and-trade system.

#### a) The second approach to establishing prices indirectly is 'tradable emissions permits'.

You might have heard of 'carbon credits'. The use of tradable permits to limit emissions is often called 'cap and trade'.

a) Marketable Licenses (called permits) to emit limited quantities of pollutants can be bought at a specified price from the Regulatory Agency, by Polluters





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- b) A high polluter has to either- i) pay monetary penalties, or ii) buy more permits both leading to increase in costs and decrease in profits.
- c) A low polluter can- i) avoid Monetary Penalties, and ii) sell permits and earn revenue, both making such firm profitable.
- i. Problems in administering an efficient pollution tax.
  - **∂** Difficult to Administer-
  - $\partial$  Complex-
  - ∂ No Genuine solution-
  - $\partial$  Failure in case of inelastic demand-
  - $\partial$  Adverse effect on employment-

Government Intervention to correct externalities Positive externalities:

Though positive externality is associated with **external benefits**, we still call it a **market failure** because, left to market, there will be less than optimal output.

- A. Direct Control:- Production & Supply
  - a) Government enters the market directly as an Entrepreneur, to produce items whose externalities are vastly positive & pervasive.
  - b) Examples: R&D, afforestation, Sewage Treatment, Cleaning up Rivers etc.
- B. Indirect control:- Subsidies:
  - a) Subsidies given by Government reduce the Production Costs of firms.
  - b) This leads to higher output and supply.
  - c) Thus, such goods will be produced in higher quantities i.e. socially optimum level of output

# Government intervention in case of Merit Goods

## Meaning and Example

1. Merit Goods- a) are socially desirable, b) involve substantial positive

externalities in their consumption.

# Need for Intervention

- 1. <u>Lower Output:</u>
- 2. <u>Equity Fairness</u>:
- 3. <u>Uncertainty in consumption:</u>
- 4. Imperfect information:

# Government can regulate the supply of merit goods in following manner

- 1. Direct government provision:.
- 2. Regulation:.
- 3. Subsidies:
- 4. Governments also engage in direct production of environmental quality.

# Government intervention in De-merit Goods

## Meaning and Example

- 1. Demerit goods are goods which are believed to be socially undesirable and involve high level of negative externalities.
- 2. However, it should be kept in mind that all goods with negative externalities are not essentially demerit goods; e.g. Production of steel causes pollution, but









steel is not a socially undesirable good.

- 3. More than optimal production and consumption.
- 4. Misallocation of society's scarce resources.
- 5. Consumers overvalue demerit goods because of imperfect information.

# ways for Intervention

- 1. Complete ban:.
- 2. Persuasion.
- 3. Through legislations
- 4. Strict regulations \.
- 5. Regulatory controls.
- 6. Imposing unusually high taxes

Reason why Govt. fails to provide such measures -

- 1. Addiction level
- 2. Inelastic nature of demand.
- 3. Sellers can always shift the taxes to consumers without losing customers.
- 4. Banned goods are secretly driven underground and traded in a hidden market.

# Government intervention in other areas Goods

Reason why certain goods are produced by government despite the fact that it can be produced by Private sector

- 1. Left to the markets and profit motives, these may prove dangerous to the society.
- 2. In the case of such pure public goods where entry fees cannot be charged, direct provision by governments through the use of general government tax revenues is the only option.



# Price intervention: non-market pricing

- 1. Very often, there is strong political demand for governments to intervene in markets for various goods and services on grounds of fairness and equity.
- 2. Price floor (a minimum price buyer is required to pay). Price floor means the lowest price fixed by government for a product. The Government fixes floor price for farm products. This regulates income of the farmers.
- 3. Price ceiling (a maximum price seller is allowed to charge for a good or service). When prices of certain essential commodities rise extremely, government may resort to controls in the form of price ceilings for making a resource or commodity available to all at reasonable prices.
- 4. In the case of many crops the government has initiated the Minimum Support Price (MSP) programme as well as procurement by government agencies at the set support prices. The objective is to guarantee steady and assured incomes to farmers. In case the market price falls below the MSP, then the guaranteed MSP will prevail.

# Government Intervention for Incomplete Information

For combating the problem of market failure due to information problems following interventions are resorted to:

- Government makes it mandatory to have accurate labeling and content disclosures.
- Mandatory disclosure of information,
- Regulation of advertising and setting of advertising standards to make advertising more responsible, informative and less persuasive.

# FISCAL FUNCTIONS: AN OVERVIEW CENTRE AND STATE FINANCE

- 1. The governments of all nations have important economic functions even where markets constitute the basic resource allocation mechanism.
- 2. There are three main macroeconomic goals for any nation.
  - a. The first is economic growth.
  - b. The second goal is high levels of employment
  - c. third macroeconomic goal is stable price levels.

## View of Economists

## Adam Smith

Adam Smith is often described as a bold Advocate of Free Markets and Minimal Governmental Activity except in areas of-

 National Defense, Establishment and Maintenance of Highly beneficial Public, Maintenance of Justice, Public Works

#### **Richard Musgrave**

Richard Musgrave, in his classic treatise "**The Theory of Public Finance**" (1959) introduced the threebranch taxonomy of the role of Government functions in a Market Economy. -

- 1. Allocation Function (Efficiency Focus)- Aims to correct the sources of inefficiency in the Economic System
- 2. Distribution Function (fairness focus)- Ensures that the Distribution of Wealth and Income is fair and equitable.
- Stabilization Function (to ensure price stability)- Covers Monetary and Fiscal Policy, ensuring Macro-economic stability, Maintenance of High Levels of Employment and Price Stability etc.
   The allocation and distribution functions are primarily microeconomic functions, while stabilization is a macroeconomic function.

#### Allocation Function

- 1. Meaning: Optimal or efficient allocation of scarce resources means that the available resources are put to their best use and no wastages are there.
- 2. The private sector resource allocation is characterized by market supply and demand and price mechanism as determined by consumer sovereignty and producer profit motives.
- 3. The state's allocation, on the other hand, is accomplished through the revenue and expenditure activities of governmental budgeting.
- 4. In its allocation role, the government acts as a complement rather than as a substitute to the market system in an economy.

## Reason for Government Intervention in allocation:

- 1. Public goods will not be produced in sufficient quantities by the market.
- 2. Nonexistence of markets in a variety of situations.
- 3. Government intervention will improve in social welfare.

Market failures which hold back the efficient allocation of resources

- 1. Imperfect competition and presence of monopoly power
- 2. Incomplete markets
- 3. Externalities Factor
- 4. Imperfect information
- 5. Inequalities in the distribution of income and wealth

A variety of allocation instruments are available by which governments can influence resource allocation in the economy.

- 1. Government may directly produce the economic good
- 2. Government may influence private allocation through incentives and disincentives
- 3. Government may influence allocation through its competition policies,
- 4. Government sets legal and administrative frameworks, and

## **Re-distribution Function**

- 1. The distributive function of budget is related to the basic question of 'for whom' should an economy produce goods and services.
- 2. Governments can redistribute income and wealth either through the expenditure side or through the revenue side of the budget.
- 3. On the expenditure side, governments may provide free or subsidised education, healthcare, housing, food and basic goods etc. to deserving people.
- 4. On the revenue side, redistribution is done through progressive taxation.

The distribution function of the government aims at-

- 1. Equitable Distribution ensuring increased overall social welfare
- 2. Well-being of those members of the society who suffer from deprivations of different types
- 3. Providing equality in income, wealth and opportunities
- 4. Providing security for people who have hardships, and
- 5. Ensuring that everyone enjoys a minimal standard of living.

Redistribution function/ market intervention for socio- economic reasons performed by governments are:

- 1. Progressive taxation policies of the government
- 2. Proceeds from progressive taxes used for financing public services, especially those that benefit lowincome households
- 3. Employment reservations
- 4. families below the poverty line are provided with monetary aid and aid in kind
- 5. Special schemes for backward regions and for the vulnerable sections of the population

However, Redistribution measures should be accomplished with minimal efficiency costs by carefully balancing **equity and efficiency** objectives-comment

## Stabilization Function

- 1. Macroeconomic stability is said to exist when:
  - a) an economy's output matches its production capacity,
  - b) the economy's total spending matches its total output
  - c) the economy's labour resources are fully employed, and
  - d) Inflation is low and stable.

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- 2. Stabilization function of the government is derived from the Keynesian proposition that a market economy does not automatically generate full employment and price stability and therefore the governments should pursue deliberate stabilization policies.
- 3. Business cycles are natural phenomena & market mechanism is limited in its capacity to prevent it.
- 4. In the absence of appropriate corrective intervention it may be *prolonged for longer periods*.
- 5. The stabilization issue also becomes more complex as the increased international interdependence ("Contagion effect").
- 6. Thus, The stabilization function is one of the key functions of fiscal policy and **aims at eliminating** macroeconomic fluctuations arising from suboptimal allocation.
- 7. The stabilization function is concerned with the performance of the aggregate economy in terms of:
  - a) labour employment and capital utilization,
  - b) overall output and income,
  - c) general price levels,
  - d) balance of international payments, and
  - e) the rate of economic growth.
- 8. Monetary policy works through controlling the size of money supply and interest rate in the economy.
- 9. Fiscal policy by means of its expenditure and taxation decisions.

## Centre and State Finance

- 1) Fiscal federalism, a term introduced by Richard Musgrave, deals with the division of governmental functions and financial.
- 2) Musgrave argued that the federal or central government should be responsible for economic stabilization and income redistribution, and the allocation of resources should be the responsibility of the state and local governments.
- 3) India is a federation of 28 states and 8 union territories.
- 4) The constitution of India has provided for the division of powers between the central and the state governments.
- 5) Article 246 of the Constitution demarcates the powers of the union and the state by classifying their powers into three lists, <u>namely union list</u>, <u>state list and the concurrent list</u>.
  - i. The union list contains items on which the union parliament alone can legislate
  - ii. The state list has items on which the state legislative assemblies alone can legislate
  - iii. The concurrent list, on which both the parliament and the legislative assemblies can legislate. In the event of conflicting legislation in concurrent list, the law passed by the centre prevails.
- 6) The central government has greater revenue raising powers. The union government can levy taxes such as <u>tax on income, other than agricultural income, customs and export duties, excise duties</u> <u>on certain goods, corporation tax, tax on capital value of assets excluding agricultural land,</u> <u>terminal taxes, security transaction tax, central GST, union excise duty, taxes other than stamp</u> <u>duties etc.</u>
- 7) The state governments can levy taxes <u>on agricultural income, lands and buildings, mineral rights,</u> <u>electricity, vehicles, tolls, professions, collect land revenue and impose excise duties on certain</u> <u>items.</u>
- 8) The property of the union is exempt from state taxation. The property and income of the states are not liable to be taxed by the centre.
- 9) Articles 268 to 281 of the constitution contain specific provisions in respect of distribution of finances among states.

Ch	apter 7 Public Finance
N:.	etaile stimulation of menormal between the union and states is besed on the constitutional menoisions of follows
DIS	The Finance Commission is a constitutional states is based on the constitutional provisions as follows:
1)	The Finance Commission is a constitutionally mandated body that is at the centre of fiscal federalism.
2)	The Finance Commission helps in maintaining fiscal federalism in India by performing following
	functions:
	(a) The distribution between the union and the states of the net proceeds of taxes.
	(b) Determination of principies and quantum of grants-in-aid to states which are in heed of such
	assistance.
	consolidated fund of a state.
2	
O	The Fifteenth Finance commission was constituted on 27, November 2017 against the background of
	the abolition of Planning commission and the introduction of the goods and services tax (GSI). The
	commission recommended the share of states in the central taxes (vertical devolution) for the 2021-26
a	to be 41%, which is the same as that for 2020-21.
0	The criteria for distribution of central taxes among states for 2021-26 period are same as that for
	2020-21. They is income Distance The distance of a state's income from the state with the
4 10	nignest income.
+h	ea, ropulation (2011), Demographic performance (to reward efforts made by states in controlling
TN	er population), Forest and ecology, Tax and fiscal efforts:
	GST: - Background and facts
1.	The introduction of GST, which was rolled out across the country on 1 July 2017.
2.	The GST subsumes the majority of indirect taxes - excise, services tax, sales tax, octroi (entry
	tax). The GST has made India's indirect tax regime unitary in nature.
3	The states levy and collect state GST (SGST) and the union levies and collects the central GST
	(CGST).
4	For any particular good or service or a combination of the two the SGST and CGST rates are
	equal An integrated GST (IGST) is applied on inter-state movement of goods and services and on
	imports and exports
5	During the five-year transition period the top five GST compensation-receiving states were
0.	Maharashtra Karnataka Gujarat Tamil Nadu and Punjah
6	As per the supreme court verdict in May 2022, the Union and state legislatures have "equal
0.	simultaneous and unique nowers "to make lows on Goods and Services Tax (GST) and the
	recommendations of the GST Council are not binding on them
	recommendations of the COT council die not binding on them.
	THE PROCESS OF BUDGET MAKING:
	SOURCES OF REVENUE, EXPENDITURE MANAGEMENT AND
	MANAGEMENT OF DUDI IC DEPT
	MANAGEMENT OF FUDLIC DEDI
1.	A Budget is a statement that presents the details of 'where the money comes from' and 'where the

- money goes to'.2. The government budget is a document presented for approval and legislation by a government.
- 3. The budget also contains estimates of the government's accounts for the next fiscal year called **budgeted estimates**.
- 4. Need for Government Budget: Budget is required
  - a) To efficiently allocate limited resources to ensure maximum social welfare.

- b) To reallocate resources in accordance with its declared priorities.
- c) To ensure redistribution of Income and Wealth.
- d) For Reduction/ elimination of economic fluctuations to bring in stability, sustainable increase in real GDP and reduction in regional Disparities.

#### THE PROCESS OF BUDGET MAKING

- 1. The budget is prepared by the Ministry of Finance in consultation with NITI Aayog and other relevant ministries.
- 2. Despite the fact that the union budget is presented on1st February, the process of budget preparation commences in August-September of the previous year.
- 3. Annual Financial statement:.
- 4. The budgetary procedures are
  - a. Preparation of the budget
  - b. Presentation and enactment of the budget and
  - c. Execution of the budget
- 5. The budget process mainly consists of two types of activities:
  - a. The administrative process,;
  - b. The legislative process.

The budget speech of the Finance Minister is usually in two parts.

The finance minister makes a detailed budget speech at the time of presenting the budget before the Lok-Sabha.

- A. Part A of the budget speech gives an outline of the prevailing macro economic situation of the country and the budget estimates for the next financial year
- B. Part B of the budget speech details the progress
- C. The Annual Financial Statement shows the receipts and expenditure of government in three separate parts under which government accounts are maintained, namely:
  - a. Consolidated Fund of India
  - b. Contingency Fund of India, and the
  - c. Public Account.
- D. The expenditures of certain categories (e.g. the emoluments and allowances of the President of India and his/her office, and emoluments of Judges of supreme courts and high ranking personnel of constitutional bodies across India) are 'charged' on the Consolidated Fund of India and are not subject to the vote of parliament, are also indicated separately in the budget.
- E. By convention in an election year, the budget may be presented twice. The first one is to first to secure a Vote on Account for a few months. This is followed by the Annual financial statement for that year or the full-fledged Budget.
- F. The Parliament has to pass the Finance Bill within 75 days of its introduction.

#### SOURCES OF REVENUE

The broad sources of revenue are:

1. The <u>Department of Revenue</u> of the Ministry of Finance exercises control in respect of the revenue matters relating to <u>direct and indirect union taxes</u>. The department is also administering <u>goods and</u> <u>services tax (GST)</u>, central sales tax, stamp duties too.

- 2. The Department of Revenue exercises control in respect of matters relating to all the direct and indirect union taxes through two statutory boards, namely,
  - a) the Central Board of Direct Taxes (CBDT) Matters relating to the levy and collection of all direct taxes
  - b) the Central Board of Indirect Taxes and Customs (CBIC). Matters relating to the levy and collection of all indirect taxes (GST, Customs and central excise duties, service tax)

3.	3. Government receipts are classified under two categories:						
	a) Revenue receipts			b) Capital receipts			
	Tax revenue		Non tax revenue.		debt capital receipts		non debt capital
							receipts
1.	Corporation tax	1.	Interest receipts,	1.	Market loans for	1.	Recoveries of
2.	Taxes on income	2.	Dividends and		different purposes		loans and advances
3.	Wealth tax		profits from public	2.	Short term /Treasury	2.	Miscellaneous
4.	Customs duties		sector enterprises		bill borrowings		capital receipts
5.	Union excise duties		and surplus	3.	Securities issued		(disinvestments
6.	Goods and services		transfers from		against small savings,		and others)
	tax including GST		Reserve Bank of	4.	State provident fund		
	compensation cess		India		(Net)		
7.	Taxes on union	3.	Other Non-tax	5.	Net external debts		
	territories		revenues and	6.	Other receipts (Net)		
		4.	Receipts of union				
			territories				

- Debt capital receipts Comprise of market loans and short term borrowings by the government, borrowing from the Reserve Bank of India and loans taken from foreign governments/institutions.
- Non debt capital receipts include recoveries of loans advanced by the government to PSEs, state governments, foreign governments and union territories and sale proceeds of government assets, including those realized from divestment of government equity in public sector undertakings (PSUs).

## PUBLIC EXPENDITURE MANAGEMENT

- 1. The **Department of Expenditure of the Ministry of Finance** is the nodal department for overseeing the public financial management system. It is responsible for
  - a. the implementation of the recommendations of the Finance Commission,
  - b. monitoring of audit comments/observations, and preparation of central government accounts.
  - c. Additionally, it also assists central ministries/departments in
  - d. controlling the costs and prices of public services,
  - e. reviewing systems and procedures to optimize outputs and outcomes of public expenditure.

In Expenditure budget, the Central government expenditure is classified into six broad categories as below:

- A. Centre's Expenditure:
  - a) Establishment Expenditure of the Centre- includes establishment-related expenditure of the ministries/departments, and attached and subordinates offices.
  - b) Central sector schemes- include those schemes which are entirely funded and implemented

by the central agencies under union government ministries/departments.

- c) Other central expenditures including those on CPSEs and Autonomous Bodies
- B. Centrally Sponsored Schemes and other Transfers: The transfers include
  - a) Centrally sponsored schemes
  - b) Finance Commission transfers and
  - c) Other transfers to states

#### PUBLIC DEBT MANAGEMENT

- 1. In emerging market and developing economies, the government is generally the largest borrower.
- 2. Government debt from internal and external sources contracted in the Consolidated Fund of India is defined as Public Debt.
- 3. Public debt management refers to the task of determining and implementing the strategy, by the fiscal and monetary authorities, the size and composition of debt, the maturity pattern, interest rates, redemption of debt etc
- 4. Debt management strategy is based on three broad pillars namely, <u>low cost of borrowing, risk</u> <u>mitigation and market development.</u>

5. The institutions responsible for public debt management are:

- a) Internal Debt Management Department (IDMD) (28 states and 2 UT) Division of RBI
- b) External Debt Department of Economic Affairs in Ministry of Finance (MOF)
- c) Ministry of Finance; Budget Division and Reserve Bank of India Other liabilities such as small savings, deposits, reserve funds etc.
- 6. The Fiscal Responsibility and Budget Management (FRBM) was passed in 2003 to provide a legislative framework for reduction of deficit and thereby debt of the central government. The objectives of the act are:
  - a) inter-generational equity in fiscal management,
  - b) long run macroeconomic stability,
  - c) better coordination between fiscal and monetary policy, and
  - d) Transparency in fiscal operation of the government.

Budget concepts (Type of budgets)				
surplus budget	• When estimated government receipts are more than the estimated government			
	expenditure it is termed as surplus budget.			
deficit budget	• When estimated government receipts are less than the government expenditure.			
Balanced	• A balanced budget is a budget in which revenues are equal to expenditures.			
budget				
Unbalanced	The budget may either be surplus or deficit.			
budget				
Capital	• Capital receipts are those receipts that lead to a reduction in the assets or an			
Receipts	increase in the liabilities of the government.			
Revenue	• Revenue receipts can be defined as those receipts which neither create any			
Receipts	liability nor cause any reduction in the assets of the government.			
	• There are two sources of revenue receipts for the government — tax revenues			
	and non-tax revenues.			
Capital	• There are expenditures of the government which result in creation of physical			

Public Finance

Expenditure	or financial assets or reduction in financial liabilities.
Revenue	• Revenue expenditure is expenditure incurred for purposes other than creation of
Expenditure	physical or financial assets of the central government.
Revenue	• The revenue deficit refers to the excess of government's revenue expenditure
Deficit	over revenue receipts.
	Revenue deficit = Revenue expenditure - Revenue receipts
Budgetary	• Budgetary Deficit is defined as the excess of total estimated expenditure over
Deficit or	total estimated revenue, both revenue and capital.
Overall Deficit	
Fiscal Deficit	• Fiscal deficit is the difference between the government's total expenditure and
	its total receipts excluding borrowing (non-borrowed receipts).
	• Fiscal Deficit = Revenue Deficit + (Capital Expenditure - Capital Receipts
	excluding borrowing)
	The fiscal deficit will have to be financed by borrowing.
Primary	• Primary deficit is defined as fiscal deficit of current year minus interest
Deficit	payments on previous borrowings.
	<ul> <li>Primary deficit = Fiscal deficit - Net Interest liabilities</li> </ul>
Finance Bill	The Bill produced immediately after the presentation of the union budget detailing
	the Imposition, abolition, alteration or regulation of taxes proposed in the budget.
Outcome	• The outcome budget measures budgetary allocations of schemes and its annual
budget	performance targets measured through output and outcome indicators.
5	
Guillotine	• The parliament has very limited time for examining the expenditure demands of
	all the ministries.
	• Once the prescribed period for the discussion on demands for grants is over, the
	speaker of Lok Sabha puts all the outstanding demands for grants, whether
	discussed or not, to the vote of the house. This process is popularly known as
	'Guillotine'.
Cut Motions	• Motions for reduction to various demands for grants are made in the form of cut
	motions seeking to reduce the sums sought by government on grounds of economy
	or difference of opinion on matters of policy or just in order to voice a grievance.
Consolidated	• All revenues received, loans raised and all moneys received by the government in
Fund of India	repayment of loans are credited to the Consolidated Fund of India
	• All expenditures of the government are incurred from this fund.
Contingency	• A fund placed at the disposal of the President to enable him/her to make
Fund of India	advances to the executive/Government to meet urgent unforeseen expenditure.
	• Contingency fund enables the government to meet unforeseen expenditure and
	does not require prior legislative approval.
Public Account	• Under provisions of Article 266(1) of the Constitution of India, public account is
	used in relation to all the fund flows where government is acting as a banker.
	Examples include Provident Funds and Small Savings.
	• This money does not belong to government but is to be returned to the
	depositors.
	• The expenditure from this fund need not be approved by the parliament.

•

#### Fiscal Policy - Meaning and Objective

#### Meaning:

- 1. Fiscal policy involves the use of government spending, taxation and borrowing to influence both the pattern of economic activity and level of growth of aggregate demand, output and employment.
- 2. Fiscal policy is in the nature of a demand-side policy.
- 3. An economy which is producing at full-employment level does not require government action in the form of fiscal policy.

#### **Objective of Fiscal policy:**

- 1. Achievement and maintenance of full employment,
- 2. Maintenance of price stability,
- 3. Acceleration of the rate of economic development, and
- 4. Equitable distribution of income and wealth,

The importance as well as order of priority of these objectives may vary from country to country and from time to time.

#### Discretionary fiscal policy

- Discretionary fiscal policy refers to a *deliberate policy actions* on the part of the government to change the levels of expenditure and taxes to influence the level of national output, employment, and prices.
- Discretionary Policies seek to address the GDP measure [i.e. GDP = C + I + G + (X M)], Where C = Private Consumption, I = Private Investment, G = Government spending, (X M) = Net exports.
- Governments can influence economic activity (GDP) by controlling G directly and influencing C, I, and (X
   – M) indirectly through changes in taxes, transfer payments and expenditure policies.

## Non- Discretionary fiscal policy

- Non- discretionary fiscal policy or automatic stabilizers are part of the structure of the economy and are 'built-in' fiscal mechanism that operates automatically to reduce the expansions and contractions of the business cycle.
- 2) It occurs when there is changes in economic conditions cause government expenditures and taxes automatically.
- 3) Example: personal income tax, corporate income tax, and transfer payment.

#### **Explanation**

- 1. Automatic Stabilizers during Recession when incomes are reduced
  - a) Progressive tax structure
  - b) Government expenditures & transfer payments
- 2. Automatic Stabilizers during Inflation/ Demand-pull inflation
  - a) Progressive tax structure
  - b) Government expenditures & transfer payments

Four Instruments/ tools of Fiscal Policies		
Taxes	Taxes determine the size of disposable income in the hands of the general public. Action during Inflation-	
	Action during Recession	

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Government expenditure	<ol> <li>current expenditures to meet the day to day running of the government,</li> <li>capital expenditures which are in the form of investments made by the government in capital Equipments and infrastructure, and</li> <li>Transfer payments i.e. pension, unemployment allowance</li> <li>During a recession and impact of Multiplier</li> <li>During Expansion/ Inflation phase-</li> <li>There are two concepts of public spending during depression- 'pump priming' and 'compensatory spending'.</li> <li>Pump priming assumes that when private spending becomes deficient, certain volumes of public spending will help to revive the economy.</li> <li>Compensatory spending is said to be resorted to when the government spending is carried out with the obvious intention to compensate for the deficiency in private investment.</li> <li>Meaning and Types:         <ol> <li>Public debt may be <u>internal</u> or <u>external</u>?</li> <li>when the government borrows from outside sources, the debt is called <u>external</u> debt.</li> <li>Public debt takes two forms namely, <u>market loans and small savings</u>.</li> <li>In the case of market loans, the government issues treasury bills and government securities .</li> <li>The small savings represent public borrowings, which are not negotiable and are not bought and sold in the market.</li> <li>Action During Recession:</li> </ol> </li> </ol>		
Budget	Action during Recession: Action during Inflation:		
Types of Fisc There are two	ypes of Fiscal here are two basic types of Fiscal- Expansionary and contractionary		
	Expansionary Fiscal policy	Contractionary Fiscal Policy	
When Used?	<ul> <li>Expansionary fiscal policy is designed to stimulate the economy-</li> <li>1. During the contractionary phase of a business cycle.</li> <li>2. When there is an anticipation of a business cycle contraction.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Designed to restrain the levels of economic activity of the economy -</li> <li>1. During an Inflationary phase.</li> <li>2. When there is anticipation of a business-cycle expansion which is likely to induce inflation.</li> </ul>	
Scenario	<ol> <li>Decline / slump in overall economic activity,</li> <li>Decline in Real Income (Real GDP)</li> </ol>	<ol> <li>Increase in Aggregate Demand (i.e. Demand-pull inflation)</li> <li>Increase in economic activities of</li> </ol>	

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Tools	<ol> <li>Higher rates of unemployment</li> <li>Fall in aggregate demand (i.e demand- deficit recession),</li> <li>Production of lower quantity of goods and services</li> <li>Lower personal and corporate taxes,</li> <li>Higher levels of Government spending.</li> <li>Reduction in Government borrowing and</li> <li>Higher budget deficit or reduced surplus</li> <li>A recessionary gap, also known as a contractionary gap, is said to exist if the existing levels of aggregate production is less than what would be produced with full employment of resources.</li> </ol>	<ul> <li>consumption and Investment, due to higher levels of disposable incomes with households and firms,</li> <li>3. higher factor prices, leading to higher cost of producing goods.</li> <li>Higher personal and corporate taxes</li> <li>Reduced levels of Government spending</li> <li>Increase in Government Borrowing, and</li> <li>Smaller Budget deficit or higher surplus</li> <li>1. Inflationary Gap or Expansionary Gap-</li> <li>2. It arises Aggregate demand rises beyond what the economy can potentially produce by fully employing its given resources.</li> </ul>	
National Debt	National Debt		
<ul> <li>A Nation's d</li> <li>If a govern through acc</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>A Nation's debt is the difference between its Total Past Deficits and its total Past surpluses</li> <li>If a government as borrowed money over the years to finance its deficits and has not paid it back through accumulated surplus, then it is said to be in Debt.</li> </ul>		

• A surplus budget reduces National Debt and a deficit budget will add to the National Debt.

## FISCAL POLICY FOR LONG-RUN ECONOMIC GROWTH

- When government supports building a modern infrastructure, the private sector is provided with the requisite overheads it needs.
- Government provision of public goods such as education, research and development etc. provide momentum for long-run economic growth.
- A well-designed tax policy that rewards innovation and entrepreneurship, without discouraging incentives will promote private businesses who wish to invest and thereby help the economy grow.

## Fiscal policy for Reducing Inequality

#### Means and Methods:

- 1. Direct Tax:
- 2. Indirect taxes

## Government Spending on Expenditure:

- 1. Redistributing income from the rich to the poorer sections of the society.
- 2. Poverty alleviation programmes. free or subsidized medical care, education, housing, essential commodities etc. to improve the quality of living of poor
- 3. Infrastructure provision on a selective basis
- 4. Various social security schemes such ad old-age pensions, unemployment relief.
- 5. Subsidized production of products of mass consumption
- 6. Public production and/ or grant of subsidies to ensure sufficient supply of essential goods, and
- 7. Strengthening of human capital for enhancing employability etc.

## Shortcoming and Limitations of Fiscal policy

- 1. Timing Problem: Discretionary fiscal policy may create more problems due to time delays (i.e lags) which include
  - a) Recognition Lag- Delay in recognizing the economy's problems, and the need for Government Intervention,
  - b) Decision Lag- Delay in evaluating the possible alternative policies, and in deciding the most appropriate policy
  - c) Implementation Lag- Delay in evaluating the possible alternative policies, and in deciding the most appropriate policy,
  - d) Impact Lag- outcomes of a policy are not visible for some time.
- 2. The effect of this is that Fiscal Policy changes may at times be badly timed, so that it is highly possible that an expansionary policy is initiated when the economy is already on a path of recovery and vice-versa

# 3. Government constrains:

- Difficulties in instantaneously changing governments' spending and taxation policies.
- Difficult to reduce government spending on various items such as defense and social security as well as on huge capital projects which are already midway.
- Public works cannot be adjusted easily along with movements of the trade cycle because many huge projects such as highways and dams have long gestation period. Besides, some urgent public projects cannot be postponed for reasons of expenditure cut to correct fluctuations caused by business cycles.
- 4. There are **possible conflicts** between different objectives of fiscal policy.
- 5. Supply-side economists are of the opinion that certain fiscal measures will cause disincentives. For example, increase in profits tax may adversely affect the incentives of firms to invest and an increase in social security benefits may adversely affect incentives to work and save.
- 6. Negative effect of Deficit financing: Deficit financing increases the purchasing power of people. The production of goods and services, especially in under developed countries may not catch up simultaneously to meet the increased demand. This will result in prices spiraling beyond control.
- Increase is government borrowing creates perpetual burden on even future generations as debts have to be repaid.
- "Crowding Out" Effect: If Governments compete with the private sector to borrow money for spending, this may cause interest rates to go up. Firms' willingness to invest may be reduced. Individuals too may be reluctant to borrow and spend and the desired increase in Aggregate demand may not be realized.

## Crowding out

## Meaning and Example:

- When spending by government in an economy replaces private spending, the private sector is said to be crowded out. (Note: Government spending has to "Support" and "enhance" private spending not merely "replace" it.)
- 2. "Crowding out" effect is the negative effect that a fiscal policy may generate, when money from the private sector is "crowded out" to the public sector.

Impact on Investment:

- 1. High Interest Rate-
- 2. Impact on market's ability of self-correction:

#### Positive Aspects-

- a) during deep recessions, crowding-out is less likely to happen as private sector investment is already minimal and therefore there is only insignificant private spending to crowd out.
- b) Moreover, during a recession phase the government would be able to borrow from the market without increasing interest rates.

# CHAPTER- 8 MONEY MARKET

## 1. Money- Meaning and Basics

- 1. Money refers to assets which are commonly used and accepted as a means of payment or Exchange medium of transferring purchasing power store of value, which means people can save it and use it later—smoothing their purchases over time
- 2. For <u>policy purposes</u>, money may be defined as the set of liquid financial assets.
- 3. Anything that would act as a medium of exchange is not necessarily money.
- 4. Currency which represents money does not necessarily have intrinsic value.
- 5. In modern days, money is not necessarily a physical item; it may also constitute electronic records.
- 6. Fiat money is materially worthless, but has value simply because a nation collectively agrees to ascribe a value to it. In short, money works because people believe that it will.

## 2. Characteristics of Money

Money, though not having any inherent power to directly satisfy human wants, by acting as a medium of exchange, it commands purchasing power and its possession enables us to purchase goods and services to satisfy our wants.

Following are the important characteristics of Money-

- Generally Acceptable
- Durable or Long-lasting
- Effortlessly Recognizable.
- Difficult to Counterfeit i.e. Not easily reproducible by people
- Relatively Scarce, but has elasticity of supply
- Portable or easily transported
- Possessing Uniformity;
- Divisible into smaller parts in usable quantities or fractions without losing value.

## There are few other features of money

- Better than barter: money eliminates the need for double coincidence of wants.
- Money also facilities Separation of transactions Both in time and place
- Common Measure of value: It is convenient to measure the prices of all commodities in terms of a single unit, rather than record the relative price of every good in terms of every other good.
- Comparability: Goods and services which are otherwise not comparable are made comparable through expressing the worth of each in terms of money.
- Liquidity and Reversibility: Additionally, money also commands reversibility as its value in payment equals its value in receipt. All assets other than money lack perfect reversibility in the sense that their value in payment is not equal to their value in receipt
- Liquidity refers to the extent to which financial assets can be sold at close to full market value at short notice. That is, they can easily be converted into another form of money, such as cash.

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# Unit 2: Demand for Money

## 1. Demand for Money

- 1. If people desire to hold money, we say there is demand for money.
- 2. As we are aware, the demand for money is in the nature of derived demand .
- 3. The Demand for Money is because of two reasons
  - a) Demand for liquidity and demand to store value.
  - b) People wish to have command over real goods and services with the use of money.
- 4. Demand for money has an important role in the determination of interest, prices and income in an economy.

## 2. Variables/ Factors on which Demand for Money depends

Sr. no	Factor	Nature of relationship
1	Income and Expenditure	Direct
2	General price Index	Direct
3	Interest (Opportunity cost)	Inverse
4	Degree of Financial Innovation	Inverse

## 3. Theories of Demand for Money

## Theories of Demand for Money:

- a) Quantity theory of Money (QTM) Classical Approach or Fisher's Approach
- b) Cash Balance Approach Neo-classical Approach or Cambridge Approach
- c) Liquidity Preference Theory Keynesian Theory

## Post Keynesian Theories -

- d) Inventory Approach- Baumol
- e) Friedman Theory, and
- f) Demand for Money as Behavior towards Risk-Tobin

## 4. Quantity Theory of Money [QTM]

- 1. propounded by Irving Fisher of Yale University in his book 'The Purchasing Power of Money' published in 1911.
- 2. QTM demonstrate that there is strong relationship between money and price level.
- Fisher's version, also termed as <u>'equation of exchange'</u> or '<u>transaction approach</u>' is formally stated as follows :
- 4. As per Fisher's approach-
- > Quantity of Money demanded = price level (P) × Total volume of transaction (T)= Supply of Money (MV+M'V')
- > Therefore, MV= PT (where only Actual money is considered and not credit money)
- And MV+M'V' = PT (where both Actual and Credit money is used)( Credit money means demand deposits by bank)



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Here, i. M= Total ii. V= Trans purchasii iii. M'= Tota iv. V'= Veloc v. P= Avera vi. T= Total the volue	l Amount of Money in circulation saction Velocity of Circulation- means average number of times a <b>unit of money</b> is spent in ng goods and services al quantity of Credit Money city of Circulation of Credit money. age Price Level I Number of Transactions- T is a function of national income. Since full employment prevails, me of transactions T is fixed in the short run.
5. Thus, more t	the number of transactions people want, greater will be the demand for money.
5. Cash balanc	ce approach/ Neo classic Approach/ Cambridge approach
<ol> <li>In the early Maynard Ke</li> <li>As per the c</li> <li>a) enabling the being simulation commodity Transaction</li> <li>b) being a her</li> </ol>	y 1900s, Cambridge Economists Alfred Marshall, A.C. Pigou D.H. Robertson and John eynes forward neo-classical theory or cash balance approach. Cambridge version the demand of the money is because of the following two reasons- he possibility of split-up of sale and purchase to two different points of time rather than ultaneous. i.e. avoiding double coincidence of wants. since the sale and purchase of v does not place simultaneously, they need temporary abode of purchasing power, on need dge against uncertainty. Precautionary need.
<ol> <li>Demand for (M<sup>d</sup>) = k P</li> <li>Where</li> </ol>	. Money= Proportion of income that people want to hold as cash (k) $\times$ income (PY). Y
<ul> <li>Y = Real</li> <li>P = Avera</li> <li>PY= Nom</li> <li>K = Propa</li> <li>4. The term 'l income that</li> <li>5. Higher the be needed.</li> </ul>	national income age price level of currently produced Goods & services inal Income ortion of PY that people want to hold as Cash Balances <b>k'</b> in the above equation is called <b>'Cambridge k'</b> . This represents the portion of nominal people want to hold as cash balance. income, higher will be the quantity purchased and thus greater money amount of money will
Liquidity theory 'Liquidity prefet his masterpiece (1936), denote long-term inter According to Ke (i) Transaction (ii) Precautiona (iii) Speculative	y of demand/ Keynesian Theory of Demand for Money erence', a term that was coined by John Maynard Keynes in the 'The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money' es people's desire to hold money rather than securities or rest-bearing investments. eynes, people hold money (M) in cash for three motives: ins motive, ary motive, and e motive.

#### Description

# **Transaction Motive**

- a) It is need for cash for current transaction for personal and business (trade) exchange.
- b) This need arises due to timing gap between Receipt of Income and Planned Expenditures.

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c)	c) This need is further classified into- i) Income motive (for individuals & households), and ii) Trade		
	Motive (for Business Firms).		
d)	Transacti	on Demand is directly related to the le	evel of Income not affected by interest rates.
e)	Transacti	ons Demand (Lr) = Earnings (Y) × Ratio	of income which is kept for transaction purposes
	(k)		
f)	Keynes co	onsidered the aggregate demand for mo	oney for transaction purposes as the sum of
	, individual	demand and therefore, the agaregate	transaction demand for money is a function of
	national in	ncome.	
	Precautio	nary Motive	
പ	Individua	ls & businesses keep a portion of their	income to finance unforeseen unpredictable and
~,	unanticipa	ated Expenditures	
Ь	Precoutio	nary demand depends on the size of in	come prevailing economic & political conditions
	and perso	anal traits of the individual such as (	Ontimism / nessimism forsightedness etc
	Precoutio	nary Motive Cash Balances are consider	red Income-Elastic and by itself not very
	consitivo	to Pate of Interest	The should be the set of the set
	Speculati	ve Motive	
	This need	ve monve	in order to be equipped to expleit any attractive
	investment	t enpertunity requiring each expandi	ture is to take advantage of favorable business
	cituation	in opportunity requiring cash expendi	Ture. T.e. To Take advantage of Tavorable business
Ы	The theory	my avalaing the portion of each to be ke	ant in accet nontfolio depending upon the interest
	nate prev	ailing	cpr in asser por mono depending upon me interest
	Hickor +h	uning.	demand for money, and vice yence
	Flighter	le interest rute, iower the speculative	deniana for money, and vice-versa.
	nlanation		
	According	to Keynes, people demand to hold mor	new balances to take advantage of the future
1	According to Reynes, people demand to note money balances to take advantage of the future schenoos in the nate of interest, which is the same as future schenoos in band prices. It is implicit		
	in Knymed theory, that the 'note of interest' i is neally the nature changes in bond prices. It is implicit		
1	Keynes as	sumed that the expected return on mo	nev is zero, while the expected returns on honds
1.	are of tw	o types namely:	shey is zero, while the expected returns on bonds
	(i) +he	pinterest poyment	
	(ii) +ha	expected rate of conital pain	
2	The mark	et value of bonds and the market rate	of interact and inversely related. A nice in the
<u>د.</u>	market n	et value of bonds and the market rate	be manket value of the bond and vice vense
2	Thurker	have a polativaly fixed concention of t	the 'nermal' or 'critical' interest rate D, and
<u>د</u> .	2. Investors have a relatively fixed conception of the normal or critical interest rate $R_c$ and		
	Compare the current rate of interest RN with such normal of critical rate of interest		The Current note (Dn) & Critical Data (Da)
Situation It current rate (Rn) > Critical It current rate (Rn) <		IT current rate (kn) < critical kate (kc)	
		Rate (RC)	Two days of the start of the st
	rocess	Investors expect a fail in the	in Dand Drives) and haven they held their
		Interest Rate (rise in Bond Prices),	in Bond Prices), and hence they hold their
		and now they will convert their cash	wealth in Liquid Cash because-
		into Bonas since-	a) Loss, i.e interest toregone is small.
			D) Anticipatea capital losses (fall in prices) is
		a) They can earn high rate of	
		return on Bonds.	c) Return on Money will be high than that on
		D) Iney expect Capital Gains	Bonds,
		resulting from a rise in Prices.	a) Lale cash held can be used to buy bonds
			at lower price and thereby.

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	Action	Asset Portfolio would consist only of <b>Bonds</b> .	Asset portfolio would consist wholly of Money/Cash.
5	<ul> <li>Summing up,</li> <li>so long as the current rate of interest is higher than the critical rate of interest, a typical wealth-holder would hold in his asset portfolio only government bonds,</li> <li>if the current rate of interest is lower than the critical rate of interest, his asset portfolio would consist wholly of cash.</li> <li>When the current rate of interest is equal to the critical rate of interest, a wealth-holder is indifferent to holding either cash or bonds.</li> <li>In this case discontinuity of Individual curve disappears &amp; a continuous downward sloping function showing the Inverse Pelationship between Interest Pate &amp; Demand is obtained</li> </ul>		
Th	e concept o	of Liquidity Trap	
1.	<ul> <li>Liquidity trap is a situation when expansionary monetary policy (increase in money supply) does not increase the interest rate, income and hence does not stimulate economic growth.</li> </ul>		
2.	2. It is a situation in which the general public is prepared to hold on to whatever amount of money is supplied, at a given rate of interest. They do so because of the fear of adverse events like deflation, war. In a liquidity trap, the monetary policy is powerless to affect the interest rate.		
3.	3. There is a liquidity trap at short term zero percent interest rate. When interest rate is zero, public would not want to hold any bond, since money, which also pays zero percent interest, has the advantage of being usable in transactions.		
4.	In other words, investors would maintain cash savings rather than hold bonds. The speculative demand becomes perfectly elastic with respect to interest rate and the speculative money demand curve becomes parallel to the X axis. This situation is called a 'Liquidity trap'.		
5.	. Since the opportunity cost of holding money is zero, even if the monetary authority increases money supply to stimulate the economy, people would prefer to hoard money.		
6.	Consequent synonymou	tly, excess funds may not be conve s with ineffective monetary policy .	rted into new investment. The liquidity trap is
7.	The Bank of Japan's experience is a real-life example of the Keynesian economic theory of a liquidity trap.		example of the Keynesian economic theory of a
PO	ST-KEYNES	SIAN DEVELOPMENTS	
6.	Inventory	Approach	
			2ttelles -

- Baumol (1952) and Tobin (1956) developed a deterministic theory of transaction demand for 'real cash balance', known as Inventory Theoretic Approach.
- Inventory models assume that there are two media for storing value a. money & interest-bearing alternative financial asset.
- 3. As per Baumol, receipt of income, say Y takes place once per unit of time but expenditure is spread at a constant rate over the entire period of time.
- 4. There is a fixed cost of making transfers between money and the alternative assets e.g. broker charges.
- 5. Individual or business firms try to hold optimum cash balance so that balance between opportunity cost and transaction cost is met.
- 6. As per Baumol model, optimum cash balance is given by (2AT/i)<sup>1/2</sup>.



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Ν	Where A= annual cash requirement		
Т	T= transaction cost/ transaction		
I	I= interest/annum		
7. F		N'S THEORY	
1. N	Ailton Frie	edman (1956) extended Keynes' speculative money demand within the framework of asset	
p	rice theor	°Y.	
2.	Ailton Frie	, edman (1956) treats the demand for money as for demand for <b>capital assets</b> .	
3. D	emand fo	r money is affected by the same factors as demand for any other asset, namely	
a	) Perman	ient income.	
b	) Relativo	e returns on assets. (which incorporate risk)	
Explo	anation:		
As pe	er Friedm	an there are Four determinant of demand-	
F	Factor Particulars		
Perr	manent	1. Friedman maintains that it is permanent income - and not current income as in the	
Inco	ome	Keynesian theory - that determines the demand for money.	
2. Permanent income which is Friedman's measure of wealth is the present exp		2. Permanent income which is Friedman's measure of wealth is the present expected	
		value of all future income.	
		3. Permanent Income is calculated by discounting future cash incomes.	
		4. discount rate, defined as the average return on the five assets, namely <i>money</i> ,	
		bonds, equity, physical capital and human capital	
Pric	e level	If the price level rises the demand for money increases and vice versa.	
		Thus, it's directly related to price level	
Орр	oortunity	Nominal demand for money rises if the opportunity costs of money holdings (i.e.	
cost	t	returns on bonds and stock) decline and vice versa.	
		Thus, there is an inverse relationship between demand for money and opportunity	
		cost	
Infl	lation	Nominal Demand for Money is influenced by inflation. A positive Inflation Rate	
		reduces the real value of Money Balances, thereby increasing the opportunity cost	
		of Money Holdings.	

Thus, there is an inverse relationship between demand for money and inflation

8. Demand for money as a behaviour towards risk

- 1. According to Tobin, an individual's behaviour shows risk aversion. (risk avoiding behavior)
- 2. If an individual chooses to hold a greater proportion of risky assets such as bonds or shares in his portfolio then higher average return but higher degree of risk.
- 3. Therefore, people prefer a mixed or diversified portfolio of money, bonds and shares, with each person opting for a little different balance between risk and return.

# **Tobin's Liquidity Preference Function**

Basics of theory: Tobin analysed that the Risk - Avoiding behaviour of Individuals provided the basis-

- a. For the Liquidity Preference, and
- b. For a negative relationship between the Demand for Money and the Interest Rate. If this payment is increased, Investor is willing to put a greater proportion of the Portfolio into the Risk Asset (i.e.

Bonds) and thus a smaller proportion into money.

c. Thus, Demand for Money is primarily based on the Portfolio Management Principles.

# Unit 3: Supply of Money

## 1. Meaning and introduction

- 1. "Money supply" denotes the Total Quantity of Money available to the people in the economy. The Quantity of money at any point of time is a measurable concept.
- 2. Supply of Money- Stock or Flow concept- It refers to the total amount of money at any particular point of time, thus it is a Stock Concept.
- 3. Change in the Stock of Money (i.e. increase or decrease per month or year), is a Flow Variable.
- 4. Stock of Money in General Parlance- Generally, Stock of money refers to the Stock of money available to 'Public' as means of payments and store of value. Such stock of money is always less than the Total Stock of Money that really exists in an Economy.

## 5. Meaning of Public-

The term 'Public' includes all Economic Units-	The term 'Public' excludes Producers	
	of Money	
a) Households, Firms, and Institutions,	a) Government, which includes-	
b) Quasi-Governmental Institutions,	Central Government	
c) Non- banking Financial Institutions,	All State Governments	
d) Non- Departmental Public Sector Undertakings,	Local Bodies.	
e) Foreign Central Banks and Foreign govt.	b) Banking System -	
f) International Monetary Fund which holds a part of	Reserve Bank of India &	
Indian Money in India in the form of Deposits with RBI.	All banks that accept Demand	
	Deposits (Note)	

## Rationale of measuring supply of Money in Market-

Measurement of money is important because of two reasons-

- 1. Money supply analysis facilitates analysis of Monetary Developments to provide a deeper understanding of the causes of Money Growth.
- 2. It is important from monetary policy perspective as it provides a framework to evaluate whether the stock of money in market is consistent with standard for price stability and to understand nature of deviation from standard.
- 3. Also, the other reason is to stabilize Price level and GDP growth.

## 2. Sources of Money supply

Supply of the money in an economy depends upon-

- a) Decision of central bank, and
- b) The supply responses of Commercial banking system of country wrt. to policy of central bank. Commercial banks create Credit Money in an economy.
- 1. There are two broad sources of Money Supply, i.e High Powered Money, and Credit Money. These are explained as under-

	High Powered Money / Fiat Money	Credit Money,	
	i.e. Currency issued by the Central Bank	i.e. Money created by Commercial Banks	
1	The Central Banks of all the countries are	Total Money Supply in the Economy is also	

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2	empowered to issue Currency. Therefore, the Central Bank is primary source of Money Supply in all Counties. The Currency issued by the Central Bank is 'Fiat Money' and is backed by supporting Reserves and its value is guaranteed by the Government. ***	determined by the extent of Credit created by the Commercial Banks. Banks create Money Supply in the process of borrowing and lending transactions with the public.	
Central Board Digital Currency and Crypto Currency			
1.	<ol> <li>RBI is going step by step for the issuance of its own CBDC (Digital Rupee (e₹)), with minimal or no disruption to the financial system.</li> </ol>		

- 2. Reserve Bank broadly defines CBDC as the legal tender issued by a central bank in a digital form. It is akin to sovereign paper currency but takes a different form, exchangeable at par with the existing currency and shall be accepted as a medium of payment, legal tender and a safe store of value.
- 3. CBDCs would appear as liability on a central bank's balance sheet.

## 3. MEASUREMENT OF MONEY SUPPLY IN INDIA

- From April 1977, following the recommendations of the Second Working Group on Money Supply (SWG), the RBI has been publishing data on four alternative measures of money supply denoted by M1, M2, M3 and M4 besides the reserve money. These are known as Monetary Aggregates.
- 2. Different aggregates represent different level of Liquidity. M1 being most liquid and M4 being least liquid.
- 3. The following table will explain what is included in Monetary Aggregates

Item	Computation	
M1 -	Currency notes and coins with the Public + Net Demand Deposits of Banks (CASA	
Narrow	Deposits) + Other Deposits with RBI. (Other than those held by government)	
Money	Note: Net Demand Deposits = Total Demand Deposits Less Inter - Bank Deposits (Also	
	refer note below)	
M2	MI + Savings Deposits with Post Office Savings Banks.	
M3- Broad	MI + Net time Deposits with the Banking System.	
Money		
M4	M3 + Total deposits with Post Office Savings banks (excluding National Savings	
	Certificates)	

1.

NEW MONETARY AGGREGATES and LIQUIDITY AGGREGATES-

On the recommendations of the working' Group on Money (1998), RBI has started publishing 4 set of new Monetary aggregates on the basis of the Balance Sheet of the Banking Sector as per Progressive Liquidity Norms.

Reserve Money, NM1, NM2, NM3

1. Reserve Money- Reserve Money can be computed in two ways as under- Note: Net result is same in both.

Method 1 -	Method 2-
Currency in Circulation / held by public	Net RBI Credit to Government
+ Bankers' Deposits with the RBI - Note: These are	+RBI Credit to Commercial Sector

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(	Commercial	Banks Deposits with RBI for	+RBI's Claims on Banks				
maintaining (		Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR) & as Working	+RBI's Net Foreign Assets				
F	Funds for c	learing adjustments.	+Government's Currency Liabilities to the Public				
+C	Other Depo	sits with the RBI	-RBI's Net Non- Monetary Liabilities.				
a) b)	Reserve M Manageme	oney is also known as <mark>Central bank Mon</mark> nt of Reserve Money is important to sto	<b>ey, Base Money</b> or <mark>High- Powered Money</mark> . abilize Liquidity, Growth & Price Level in an Econor	my.			
	Currency with the Public						
Ad	Add: Demand Deposits with the Banking System						
Ad	ld: Other [	Deposits with RBI					
	New	Monetary Aggregate 1 (denoted as NM	I)				
Ad	ld: Short t	erm Time Deposits of Residents (includi	ng and up-to Contractual maturity of 1 Year)				
	New	Monetary Aggregate 2 (denoted as NM	2)				
Ad	ld: Long te	rm time deposits of Residents					
Ad	ld: Call / T	erm Funding from Financial Institutions					
	New	Monetary Aggregate 3 (Denoted as NM	3)				
Ad	ld: All depo	osits with the Post Office Savings Bank	s (excluding National Saving certificates)				
	Liquic	dity Aggregate 1 (Denoted as L1)					
Ad	ld: Term D	eposits with Term Lending Institutions	and Re-financing Institutions				
Ad	ld: Term B	orrowing by Financing Institutions and C	ertificates of Deposits issued by Financing				
	Institu	itions					
	Liqui	idity Aggregate 2 (Denoted as L2)					
Ad	ld: Public D	Deposits of Non- Banking Financial Comp	Danies				
	Liquic	dity Aggregate 3 (Denoted as L3)					
4.	DETERMI	NATION OF MONEY SUPPLY					
The 1. 2. 3.	<ol> <li>The alternative approaches in respect of determination of Money Supply, are as under-</li> <li>According to the first view, money supply is determined exogenously by the central bank.</li> <li>According to Second view money supply is determined endogenously by changes in the economic activities which affect people's desire to hold currency relative to deposits, rate of interest etc.</li> <li>Accordingly, supply of nominal money in the economy is determined by the joint behavior of the <u>central bank, the commercial banks and the public</u>.</li> </ol>						
Mor	ney Multipl	lier approach to supply of money- Mil	ton Friedman & Anna Schwartz.				
1.	A one-rupe rupee.	ee increase in the monetary base causes	the money supply to increase by more than one				
2.	Money mu monetary l	<b>Itiplier m</b> is defined as ratio that relate case. It denotes by how much money sup M = m	s change in money supply to the given change in oply will change with change in monetary base × MB				
	Money Mu	ltiplier = 1 /R					
3.	For examp money mul <sup>.</sup>	le, if R =10%, the value of money multipl tiplier is 20.	lier will be 10. If the reserve ratio is only 5%, the	en			
4.	Thus, the l multiplier.	higher the reserve ratio, the less of eac	ch deposit banks loan out, and the smaller the mor	ney			
L							

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Credit Multiplier approach to supply of money-					
1. Credit Multiplier:					
<ul> <li>a) It describes the amount of Additional Money created by Commercial Bank through the process of lending available Money in excess of the Reserve Requirement.</li> <li>b) It reflects the bank's ability to increase the Money Supply.</li> <li>c) It is also called "Deposit Multiplier" or "Deposit Expansion Multiplier".</li> <li>d) Credit Multiplier = 1 Required Reserve Ratio</li> </ul>					
1 Deserves may be as the re	esult of-				
a. The regulations of	the Central Bank (RBI) - referred as Statutory Reserves, or				
b. Decisions taken by	the Commercial Banks themselves - referred as Excess Reserves.				
<ol> <li>Excess Reserves and its Impact: Excess reserve represents the additional reserve maintained by commercial bank with RBI over and above the minimum required ratio to be kept. 'Excess reserves' are the difference between total reserves (TR) and required reserves (RR). Therefore, ER=TR-RR.</li> <li>a. Excess Reserve is affected by the Cost and Benefits of holding such Reserves. For this purpose-b. Cost = Interest that could have been earned by giving these amounts as Loans, i.e Opportunity Cost,</li> <li>c. Benefit = Assurance as to adequate liquidity in the banking system, to meet withdrawal of Deposits by Public.</li> <li>3. These costs and benefits are influenced by two factors, viz. Market Interest Rates and Expected</li> </ol>					
Deposits Outflows, which	have following impact-				
Situation	Effect on excess Reserves				
If interest rate increases	Banks will prefer to reduce Excess Reserves and give them as Loans to				
	nave higher earnings. So the ratio of Excess Deserves to Deposits falls				
Tf Interest Pate	Opportunity Cost of holding excess Deserves declines and Excess				
decreases	reserves will rise				
If deposit outflows are	Banks will want more assurance against the possibility and will increase				
expected to increase	the Excess Reserves Ratio.				
If deposit Outflows are	Decline in Expected Deposit Outflows will reduce Excess Reserves				
expected to decrease					
Therefore, we conclude that the banking system's excess reserves ratio r is negatively related to the market interest rate.					

# 5. DETERMINATION OF MONEY SUPPLY

Three factor as immediate determinants (also called as 'proximate determinants') of money supply are-

- a) the stock of high-powered money (H)
- b) the ratio of reserves to deposits or reserve-ratio r = {Reserves/Deposits R/D} and
- c) the ratio of currency to deposits, or currency-deposit ratio c={C/D}  $\,$

# A. Stock of High- Powered Money (H)

- a) H (High-powered money) represents the behavior of the Central Bank.
- b) With all other variables unchanged, Total Supply of Nominal Money will vary directly with the Supply of Nominal High - Powered Money.

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B. Ratio of Reserves to Deposits (RDR)				
a) RDR (Reserves to Deposits Ratio) represents the behaviour of the Commercial Banks, in				
determining Money Supply through "Credit Money".				
b) Thus the <b>Inverse relation exists</b> .				
C. Ratio of Currency to Deposits (CDR)				
a) CDR represents the behaviour of the General Public, in determining Money Supply. It represents the				
behaviour of public to hold money in for of cash.				
b) The time deposit-demand deposit ratio i.e. how much money is kept as time deposits compared to				
demand deposits, also has an important implication for the money multiplier and, hence for the money				
stock in the economy. An increase in <b>TD/DD ratio</b> means that greater availability of free reserves				
and consequent enlargement of volume of multiple deposit expansion and monetary expansion.				
Impact of Other factors on Money Supply & Money Multiplier				
Effect of Government expenditure on Money supply-				
a) Whenever the Central and State Governments' cash balance falls short of the Minimum requirement,				
they are eligible to avail of the facility called Ways & Means Advances (WMA) / Overdraft (OD) Facility.				
b) When Government incurs expenditure, it involves debiting Government balances with RBI, and Crediting the Receiver (e.g. Salary Account of Employee) Account with the Commercial Bank.				
c) So, it results in generation of Excess Reserves, (i.e. excess balances of Commercial Banks with RBI).				
d) Excess reserves thus created can potentially lead to an increase in Money supply through the Money				
Multiplier process e.g. When the Employee uses this money for making payments for purchase of goods				
etc.				
Unit 4: Monetary Policy				
Reserve Bank of India uses <b>monetary policy</b> to manage <b>economic fluctuations</b> and <b>achieve price</b> <b>stability</b> , which means that inflation is low and stable.				

Reserve Bank of India conducts monetary policy by adjusting the supply of money, usually through buying or selling securities in the open market.

When central banks lower interest rates, monetary policy is easing. When it raises interest rates, monetary policy is tightening.



1. Monetary Policy

1. Meaning: Monetary Policy refers to the use of Monetary Policy Instruments which are at the disposal of the Central Bank for achieving various objectives.

2. Monetary Policy refers to- Action programme of the Monetary Authorities (Generally central bank), to control and regulate Demand & Supply of Money with the Public and flow of credit, With the view to achieve predetermined Macro-Economic Goals.

3. Monetary Policy encompasses all actions of the Central bank which are aimed at -

- Directly controlling the Money supply, and
- Indirectly at regulating the Demand for Money.

Chapter 8 Monetary policy							
4. Ma	onetary l	Policy is in the nature of "demand-side" Macro-economic Policy and works by stimulating or					
dis	scouragii	ng Investment and Consumption spending on Goods & services.					
2. Ma	2. Monetary Policy Framework						
In the	In the execution of Monetary Policy, the Central Bank functions within a specified monetary policy						
Frame	work wh	ich has 3 components as under-					
1. Mo	onetary	Policy Objectives- providing explicit Guidance to the Policy Makers.					
2. An	nalytics	of Monetary Policy- which focus on Transmission Mechanisms for implementation.					
3. Op	perating	procedures - which focus on operating targets and instruments.					
Monet	tary Poli	cy Objectives					
1. Th	ne Reser	ve Bank of India Act, 1934 in its preamble sets out the objectives of RBI as "to <b>regulate</b>					
the	e issue	of Bank notes and the keeping of Reserves with a view to securing Monetary Stability in					
In	dia gene	rally to operate Currency and Credit System of the country to its advantage".					
Z. Pri	ima Obj	ectives: The most common objectives of Monetary Policy of the Central Banks across the					
VV	oria are	- Stability Establishment and Maintenance of stability in Drives (on controlling inflation)					
	Frice :	nic Stability - Maintenance of Full Employment and achievement of high level of economy's					
	crowt	h					
	grown						
5 for	r the fol	lowing objectives-					
a.	to real	ulate the availability cost and use of Money & Credit					
b.	to pror	note economic growth.					
c.	ensuri	ng an adequate flow of credit to the productive sectors,					
d.	sustair	ning - a moderate structure of interest rates to encourage investments, and					
e.	creatio	on of an efficient market for government securities.					
f.	to ensu	ure Price Stability,					
g.	to achi	ieve optimum levels of output and employment,					
h.	to obto	ain Balance of Payments equilibrium,					
i.	to ensu	Jre stable currency, or					
What	is an Ir	npact of Conflicting Objectives?					
Based	Based on the pre-determined National Priorities, the Monetary Policy Makers must exercise						
approp	priate tr	ade-offs to balance the conflicting objectives.					
3. An	nalytics	of Monetary Policy – Transmission Mechanism for Implementation					
The process or Channels through which the change of Monetary Aggregate affects the level of							
Product and Prices is known as "Monetary Transmission Mechanism". It describes how policy - induced							
change	changes in the nominal Money Stock / Short - Term Nominal Interest Rates impact real variables like						
Aggre	gate Ou	rput and Employment.					
Tn cim	nle term	as the transmission can be summarised in two stopes					
3. An Th Produc change Aggre	nalytics the proces ct and P es in the egate Our uple term	of Monetary Policy – Transmission Mechanism for Implementation as or Channels through which the change of Monetary Aggregate affects the level of a rices is known as "Monetary Transmission Mechanism". It describes how policy – induced a nominal Money Stock / Short – Term Nominal Interest Rates impact real variables like tput and Employment.					

i.Changes to monetary policy affect interest rates in the economy.

ii.Changes to interest rates affect economic activity and inflation.

## A. Saving and Investment Channel

Monetary policy influences economic activity by **changing the incentives for saving and investment**.

|--|

- Lower interest rates on bank deposits induce to save Less their money >>>> Induce to spend their money more on goods and services >>>>> encourage households to borrow more
- Lower lending rates can increase investment spending by businesses as the cost of borrowing is lower >>>>> Increases demand too >>>>> returns on these projects are now more than the cost of borrowing.

# B. Cash-flow Channel

- Monetary policy **influences interest rates**, which affects the decisions of households and businesses by changing the amount of cash they have available to spend on goods and services.
- > A reduction in lending rates reduces interest repayments on debt >>>>> increasing the amount of cash available for households and businesses >>>>>>leaving them with more disposable income.
- > A reduction in lending rates reduces the amount of income from deposits >>>>> and restrict their spending.
- > These two effects work in opposite directions, but a reduction in interest rates can be expected to increase spending in the Indian economy through this channel (with the first effect larger than the second)

## C. Asset Prices and Wealth Channel

- > The asset prices and wealth channel typically affects consumption and investment.
- > Lower interest rates support asset prices (such as housing and equities) by encouraging demand for assets than debt instruments.
- Higher asset prices also increase the equity (collateral) of an asset that is available for banks to lend against. This can make it easier for households and businesses to borrow.
- An increase in asset prices increases people's wealth. This can lead to higher consumption and housing investment as households generally spend some share of any increase in their wealth.

# D. Exchange Rate Channel

- > The exchange rate can have an important influence on economic activity and inflation.
- > It is typically more important for sectors that are export-oriented or exposed to competition from imported goods and services.
- > If the Reserve Bank lowers the cash rate it means that interest rates in India have fallen compared with interest rates in the rest of the world
- Lower interest rates reduce the returns investors earn from assets in India. Lower returns reduce demand for assets in India, with investors shifting their funds to foreign assets (and currencies) instead.
- A reduction in interest rates (compared with the rest of the world) results in a lower exchange rate, making foreign goods and services more expensive compared with those produced in India. This leads to an increase in exports and domestic activity. A lower exchange rate also adds to inflation because imports become more expensive in Indian rupees.

Effectiveness: The effectiveness of different Channels function depends on

- 1. Stage of Development of the Economy, and
- 2. Underlying Financial Structure of the Economy.

Chapter 8 Monetary policy
4. Operating Procedures and Instruments
Quantitative tools - The tools applied by the policy that impact money supply in the entire economy,
including sectors such as manufacturing, agriculture, automobile, housing, etc.
1. Reserve Ratio Banks are required to keep aside a set percentage of cash reserves or RBI approved
assets. Reserve ratio is of two types:
<b>a. Cash Reserve Ratio (CRR)</b> – Banks are required to set aside this portion in cash with the RBI. The bank can neither lend it to anyone nor can it earn any interest rate or profit on CRR.
<b>b.</b> Statutory Liquidity Ratio (SLR) - Banks are required to set aside this portion in liquid assets
such as gold or RBI approved securities such as government securities. Banks are allowed to earn interest on these securities, however it is very low.
2. Open Market Operations (OMO) - In order to control money supply and inflation, the RBI buys and
sells government securities in the open market. These operations conducted by the Central Bank in the open market are referred to as Open Market Operations.
<b>a</b> . When the RBI sells government securities, the liquidity is sucked from the market,
<b>b</b> . when RBI buys securities the liquidity is injected from the market
c. The objective of OMOs are to keep a check on temporary liquidity mismatches in the market,
owing to foreign capital flow.
<b>3</b> Qualitative tools - Unlike quantitative tools which have a direct effect on the entire economy's
money supply, qualitative tools are selective tools that have an effect in the money supply of a specific
sector of the economy.
a. Margin requirements – The RBI prescribes a certain margin against collateral, which in turn
impacts the borrowing habit of customers. When the margin requirements are raised by the
RBI, customers will be able to borrow less.
b. Moral suasion – By way of persuasion, the RBI convinces banks to keep money in government securities, rather than certain sectors.
c. Selective credit control - Controlling credit by not lending to selective industries or speculative
businesses.
4. Market Stabilisation Scheme (MSS) -
a. It was introduced following MOU between RBI and the Government of India with the primarv
aim of aiding the Sterilization Operations of RBI.
<b>b</b> . Sterilization is the process by which the Monetary Authority (RBI) sterilizes the effects of
significant Foreign Capital Inflows on Domestic Liquidity, by off - loading a portion of the Stock
of Government Securities held by it.
c. Government borrows from RBI (additional to its Normal Borrowing) and issues Treasury Bills /
Dated Securities for absorbing the excess liquidity from the market arising from Large Capital
Inflows. MSS absorbs the excess liquidity from the market
5 Policy Datas
a. Fixed Repo Rate auoted for sovereign Securities in the overnight segment of LAF is considered

- as the Policy Rate. (India has many other Repo Rates in operation)
- ${\bf b}.~{\sf RBI}$  uses this rate for balancing liquidity.
- c. Its change gets transmitted through Money Market to the entire Financial System & alters all
| Chapter 8                 | Monetary policy  |
|---------------------------|--|
| othe<br>of I              | er Short-Term Interest Rates & Influences aggregate Demand – key determination of level<br>nflation & Economic Growth.                               |
| d. If R                   | BI wants to make it more expensive for banks to borrow money, it increases the Repo Rate.  |
| Sim                       | ilarly, if it wants to make it cheaper for Banks borrow money, it reduces the Repo Rate. In  |
| othe                      | er words, an increase in the Repo Rate will lead to higher Liquidity and vice - versa, other   |
| thin                      | gs remaining constant.   |
| 6. Bank rate              | e - The interest rate at which RBI lends long term funds to banks is referred to as the  |
| bank rate.                | However, presently RBI does not entirely control money supply via the bank rate. It uses   |
| Liquidity /               | Adjustment Facility (LAF) - repo rate as one of the significant tools to establish control   |
| over mone                 | y supply.Bank rate is used to prescribe penalty to the bank if it does not maintain the  |
| prescribed                | d SLR or CRR.  |
| 7. Liquidity              | Adjustment Facility (LAF) – RBI uses LAF as an instrument to adjust liquidity and money  |
| supply. T                 | he following types of LAF are:   |
| a. Rep                    | o rate: Repo rate is the rate at which banks borrow from RBI on a short-term basis against   |
| a re                      | purchase agreement. Under this policy, banks are required to provide government securities   |
| as c                      | ollateral and later buy them back after a pre-defined time.  |
| b. Rev                    | erse Repo rate: It is the reverse of repo rate, i.e., this is the rate RBI pays to banks in  |
| orde                      | er to keep additional funds in RBI.  |
| c. It is                  | s linked to repo rate in the following way: <b>Reverse Repo Rate = Repo Rate - 1</b>   |
| 8. Marginal<br>money to b | <b>Standing Facility (MSF) Rate:</b> MSF Rate is the penal rate at which the Central Bank lends panks, over the rate available under the rep policy. |
| a. <b>Ba</b> i            | nks availing MSF Rate can use a maximum of 1% of SLR securities.   |
| b. <b>M</b> S             | 5F Rate = Repo Rate + 1MSF Rate = Repo Rate + 1 .  |
| Monetary Pol              | icy Framework Agreement (MPFA)   |
| 1. The Rese               | rve Bank of India (RBI) Act, 1934 was amended on June 27, 2016, for giving a statutory   |
| backing t                 | o the Monetary Policy Framework Agreement (MPFA) and for setting up a Monetary Policy  |
| Committe                  | e (MPC).   |
| 2. It is an A             | Agreement reached between the Government of India and RBI on the Maximum tolerable<br>Data that DBT should tanget to achieve price stability         |
| 3 The open                | Rule that RDI should larget to achieve price stability.<br>ded RRT 2016 Act provides for a statutory basis for the implementation of the 'Flevible   |
| Inflation                 | taraetina Framework'.  |
| 4. Announce               | ment of an Official Target Range for Inflation is known as Inflation Targeting.  |
| 5. The Expe               | rt Committee under Urijit Patel, in January, 2014, suggested RBI abandoned the 'Multiple   |
| Indicator                 | Approach and made Inflation Targeting the primary objective of its Policy.   |

## Inflation Target

- 1. Inflation target is set once in every 5 years.
- Central Government has notified 4% Consumer Price Index (CPI) Inflation as the target for the period from 5 August 2016 to 31 March 2021 (Upper Tolerance Limit - 6%, Lower Tolerance Limit -2%)
- 3. RBI is mandated to publish a Monetary Policy report every 6 months, explaining the Sources of Inflation and the Forecast of Inflation for the coming period of 6 18 months.
- 4. Following Factors are notified by the Central Govt. as constituting failure to achieve Inflation Target
  - Average Inflation > Upper Tolerance Level of Inflation Target for any 3 consecutive quarters, or
  - Average Inflation < Lower Tolerance level for any 3 Consecutive Quarters.

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<ol> <li>CPI is chosen for Inflation Target, since it closely reflects cost of Living and has larger influence on Inflation Expectation compared to other Indicators / Anchors.</li> </ol>				
9. Cha	allenges in Implementation of Monetary policy			
Followii 1.	ng are the main challenges in implementation of Monetary Policy Rudimentary and Non - competitive Financial System			
2.	Lack of Integrated Money and Inter - Bank Markets,			
3.	Uncertainties surrounding the economy, due to both Internal & external sources.			
4.	Issues related to Operational Autonomy of the Central Bank			
5.	Extent of co-ordination between Fiscal and Monetary authorities.			

# CH 9: INTERNATIONAL TRADE

## Distinction between International Trade and Domestic trade

Point	International Trade	Domestic Trade	
Meaning	Exchange of goods, services, resources etc.	Exchange of goods, services, resources, etc	
	between / amongst different countries.	within domestic territory of a country.	
Persons	Transactions between Residents of	Transactions between / amongst Residents of	
	different countries.	the same country.	
Currency	2 or more currencies are involved.	Only one currency (Local Currency) is involved.	
Regulations	This involves multiple Legal Systems,	This involves law of only one country and less	
	detailed documentation, procedural	documentation and procedural formalities.	
	formalities, Trade Barriers, Shipping and		
	Transportation issues etc.		
Tariff	Customs Tariff is applicable.	Domestic Tariff/ taxes are applicable.	

Adv	Advantages and Disadvantages of International trade				
Advantages			Disadvantages		
1.	Powerful stimulus to economic efficiency.	1.	Not equally beneficial to all nations.		
2.	Efficient use of productive resources.	2. Economic exploitation by strong country.			
3.	Provides access to new markets and new	3. Threatens local infant industries.			
	materials.	4. Substantial environmental damage.			
4.	Enables nations to acquire foreign exchange	5.	Trade cycles and the associated economic		
	reserves.		crises get transmitted.		
5.	Opening up of new markets.	6.	Risky dependence of underdeveloped		
6.	Human resource development.		countries.		
7.	Strengthens bonds between nations.	7.	Lack of transparency and predictability.		
8.	Wide range of Products.	8.	Negative impact on Labour class,		
9.	Innovation.		exploitation of Resources, unsustainable		
10.	Employment.		production and consumption, excessive		
11.	Competition.		exports may cause shortages of many,		
			Import of unwanted and harmful goods		

## Theories of International Trade

## A. Mercantilist approach- $16^{\rm th}$ and $18^{\rm th}$ century

- 1. Mercantilism, which is derived from the word mercantile, "trade and commercial affairs".
- 2. Exports were viewed favorably if they resulted in inflow of Gold, while Imports were not considered conducive for Balance of economic growth, since it resulted in outflow of Gold.
- 3. As per this approach one country can grow economically, only at the expense/ detriment of another, and there is no "win-win" favorable situation in International Trade. The Trade according to Mercantilism is "Zero-Sum Game", as one country's gain is the other Country's loss.

## 1.2.2 The Theory of Absolute Advantage

(they get more from international trade from what they can get doing production individually)

- 1. Theory of Absolute Cost Advantage was propounded by Adam Smith
- 2. Under this Theory, an exchange of goods will take place only if each of the two countries can

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produce one commodity at an absolutely lower production cost than the other country.

- 3. Each Country which has an absolute advantage over another country in the production of an item, can trade such item, and hence gain in terms of International Trade.
- 4. Absolute Advantage refers to the ability of a Party (an Individual, a firm, or Country) to produce more of a good or service than the competitors, using the same amount of resources.
- 5. Assumptions of the Absolute Advantage Theory:
  - a. Trade between the two countries and two-commodity framework for his analysis.
  - b. There is no transportation cost.
  - c. Used labour as the only input.
  - d. He assumed that labour was mobile within a country but immobile between countries.

## Comparative advantage theory- Ricardo's Theory

- 1. David Ricardo developed the classical theory of comparative.
- 2. The law of comparative advantage states that even if one nation is less efficient than (has an absolute disadvantage with respect to) the other nation in the production of all commodities, there is still scope for mutually beneficial trade.
- 3. The first nation should specialize in the production and export of the commodity in which its *absolute disadvantage is smaller* (this is the commodity of its comparative advantage) and import the commodity in which it's absolute disadvantage is greater (this is the commodity of its comparative disadvantage).
- 4. Because of comparative advantage, trade raises the living standards of both countries. Douglas Irwin (2009) calls comparative advantage "good news" for economic development.
- 5. This theory also assumed that Labour is the only factor of Production.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Trade can take place, even if one country has	It is too simplistic a Model to consider. It does
absolute disadvantage in both products.	not recognize many practical barriers to
	International Trade.
One country's Gain need not be another	Labour is considered as the only Factor Input in
country's Loss.	the analysis of Absolute Advantage.
This theory recognizes the importance of	It emphasizes only Supply-side conditions and
division of labour, specialization and	ignores domestic demand in respective countries
consequent benefits.	
Global output is maximized.	

HECKSHER-OHLIN theory (H-O Theory) or Modern Theory

- 1. This theory is also known as factor-endowment theory of trade or Modern Theory of Trade.
- 2. Factor endowment means Availability of usable resources including both natural and man-made means of production.
- 3. Accordingly, international trade occurs because different countries have different factor endowment.

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- 4. The Heckscher-Ohlin (H-O) model studies the case that two countries have different factor endowments under identical production function and identical preferences.
- 5. If a country is a capital abundant one, it will produce and export capital-intensive goods relatively more cheaply than another country. Capital-abundant countries have comparative cost advantage in the production of goods that need capital-intensive technology.
- 6. According to this theory, international trade is but a special case of inter-regional trade.
- 7. The Heckscher-Ohlin Trade Theorem establishes that a country tends to specialize in the export of a commodity whose production requires intensive use of its abundant resources and imports a commodity whose production requires intensive use of its scarce resources. (this is the crux of the theory)
- 8. The Factor-Price Equalization Theorem states that international trade equalizes the factor prices between the trading nations. Therefore, with free trade, wages and returns on capital will converge across the countries.

#### Comparison of Theory of Comparative Costs and Modern Theory

Theory of Comparative Costs	Modern Theory		
Difference between countries arises because of comparative costs of <b>Labour and</b> differences in productive efficiency of workers	Difference between countries arises because of differences in <b>factor endowments</b> . This is <b>2-factor model</b> and can be extended to morefactors.		
Based on labour theory of value	Based on money cost which is more realistic.		
Treats international trade as quite distinct from domestic trade	International trade is only a special case of <b>inter-</b> regional trade.		
Normative; tries to demonstrate thegains from international trade	Positive; concentrates on the basis of trade		

### New Trade Theory

- American economist and journalist Paul Krugman received the 2008 Nobel Prize for Economics for his work in economic geography and in identifying international trade patterns.
- ★ Krugman defended free trade. He was passionate and showed deep concern for the well- being of which can be understood from his book "In Praise of Cheap Labor," published in Slate in 1997.

## NEW TRADE THEORY (NTT)

Concept: New Trade Theory developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s focuses on the role of increasing returns to scale and network effects.

NTT explains that there are two reasons for advantages to countries by engaging in International Trade.

	Economies of scale- supply side		Network effect – demand Side
1.	As a firm produces more of a product,	1.	One person's value for a good or service is
	its cost per unit keeps going down.		affected by the value of that good or service to
2.	So if the firm serves domestic as well		others.
	as foreign market instead of just one,	2.	The value of the product or service is enhanced as
	then it can reap the benefit of large		the number of individuals using it increases.
	scale of production consequently the	3.	This is also referred to as the 'bandwagon effect'.
	profits are likely to be higher.		Consumers like more choices, but they also want
3.	They shall produce and export too.		products and services with high utility, and the
4.	This happens because of governmental		network effect increases utility obtained from
	support and various other factors.		these products over others.

4. A good example will be Mobile App such as What's App and software like Microsoft Windows.

## **Unit 2 – Instruments of Trade Policy**

1. Trade liberalization refers to opening up of domestic markets to goods and services from the rest of the world by bringing down trade barriers.

## Basics

**Meaning of Trade policy:** Policy that encompasses all instruments those governments may use to promote or restrict imports and exports.

**Objectives:** The main purpose of trade policy is typically to *restrict imports and/or encourage exports*.

Other objectives include:

- 1. The highest possible degree of free trade.
- 2. An efficient internal market and open trade policy.
- 3. A strengthened multilateral trade system the world trade organization (WTO)
- 4. Increasing trade among different countries and greater investment.

## Tariff

- 1. Tariffs, also known as customs duties, are basically taxes or duties imposed on import or export.
- 2. Tariffs are often identified with import duties.
- 3. **Purpose of tariff:** Tariffs are aimed at altering the relative prices of goods and services imported. <u>Tariffs leave the world market price of the goods unaffected</u>; while raising their prices in the domestic market.
- 1. To protect the domestic import-competing industries.
- 2. The main goals of tariffs are to raise revenue for the government.
- 3. Discourage import, increase price of imported goods and reduce volume of imported goods.

## There are few disadvantages of imposing tariff

- 1. Tariff decrease the volume of international trade.
- 2. The prospect of market access of the exporting country is worsened.
- 3. Tariffs discourage domestic consumers from consuming imported foreign goods.
- 4. Domestic market incorrectly increases prices than would be possible in the case of free trade.
- 5. Tariffs discourage efficient production in the rest of the.

## Forms of Import Tariff

- A. Specific Tariff (irrespective of Value): A specific tariff is an import duty that assigns a fixed monetary tax per physical unit of the good imported.
- B. Ad valorem (on value): An ad valorem tariff is levied as a constant percentage of the monetary value of one unit of the imported good.

- **C. Mixed Tariffs:** It is the combination of **Specific tariff** or **Ad Valorem** tariffs. For example, duty on cotton: 5 per cent *ad valorem* Or Rs. 3000/per ton, whichever is higher.
- **D.** Compound Tariff or a Compound Duty: Ad valorem + specific tariff. : Fixed + Variable For example: duty on cheese at 5 per cent *ad valorem* plus 100 per kg.
- E. Technical Tariff: Duty is calculated on the components of the imported item 1. E.g. Rs. 3000/ on each solar panel plus Rs.50/ per kg on the battery.
- **F. Tariff Rate Quotas**: Imports entering under the specified quota portion are usually subject to a lower (sometimes zero) tariff rate. Imports above the quantitative threshold of the quota face a much higher tariff.
- **G. Variable Tariff:** A duty typically fixed to bring the price of an imported commodity up to the domestic support price for the commodity.
- H. Escalated Tariff: Duty Rates on raw materials, semi processed goods and final products are progressively higher.
  - 1. For example, a four percent tariff on iron ore or iron ingots and twelve percent tariff on steel pipes.
- I. A prohibitive tariff is one that is set so high that no imports will enter.

## J. Anti-dumping Duties

- 1. It is applicable when article is **imported at less than its nominal value**, foreign seller dumps goods in a country at less than sale prices in his market, or less than Full average cost.
- 2. Dumping is done to
  - a) Constitutes international price discrimination.
  - b) Harms the domestic producers of the importing country.
  - c) drive out established domestic producers from the market and to establish monopoly position.
  - d) Promotes consumption of foreign goods at undesirable levels.
  - e) Affects national interest in certain situations.
- **K. Safeguard Duties**: There may be genuine case where the other country is not dumping their product but actually producing at lower cost. This will still create negative effect in domestic economy of importing company.

## L. Countervailing Duties

- 1. It is levied on imports from any country which pays directly or indirectly, any subsidy on the manufacture, production etc. of an article
- **M. Tariffs as Response to Trade Distortions:** when some countries engage in 'unfair' foreigntrade practices, the affected importing countries, respond quickly by measures in the form of tariff responses referred to as "trigger-price" mechanisms.

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<ul> <li>N. MFN Tariffs: MFN tariffs are what countries promise to impose on imports from other members of the WTO, unless the country is part of a preferential trade agreement (such as a free trade area or customs union).</li> <li>1. This means that, in practice, MFN rates are the highest (most restrictive) that WTO members charge one another.</li> </ul>						
<b>O. Preferential tariff</b> : Under <b>Preferential Tariff</b> countries promise to give another country's products lower tariffs than their MFN rate. Many time even <b>nil rate</b> .						
P. Bound Tariff: A bound tariff is a tariff whi commitment not to raise it above a certain leve	P. Bound Tariff: A bound tariff is a tariff which a WTO member binds itself with a legal commitment not to raise it above a certain level.					
<b>Q. Applied Tariff:</b> An 'applied tariff' is the duty favored nation (MFN) basis. Applied tariff can also	that is actually charged on imports on a most- so be lower than Bound tariff.					
Non-Tariff Measures (NTM) and Non-tariff barri	ers (NTB)					
<ul> <li>The non- tariff measures constitute the hid with free trade.</li> </ul>	The non- tariff measures constitute the hidden or 'invisible' measures that interfere with free trade.					
<ul> <li>Non-Tariff Measures (NTM) -</li> <li>a. These are policy measures, other than Ordinary Custom Tariff,.</li> <li>b. NTMs include regulations that restrict trade or that facilitate higher trade. These have a wider scope.</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Non-tariff barriers (NTB) -</li> <li>a. Non-tariff barriers which are simply discriminatory non-tariff measures imposed by governments to favor domestic over foreign suppliers.</li> <li>b. NTBs are thus a subset of NTMs that have a 'protectionist or discriminatory intent'.</li> </ul>					
<ul> <li>Depending on their scope NTMs are categorized as <u>Technical Measures &amp; Non-technical</u> <u>Measures:</u></li> </ul>						
<ul> <li>Technical Measures:</li> <li>Meaning- Technical measures refer to product-specific properties such as characteristics of the product, technical specifications and production processes.</li> </ul>						
<ul> <li>TYPES OF TECHNICAL NTMs</li> <li>Technical Barriers to Trades- (TBT)</li> <li>1. Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT) cover both food and non-food traded products.</li> <li>2. It refers to mandatory 'Standards and Technical Regulations' that define the specific characteristics that a product should have, such as its size, shape, design, labeling / marking / packaging, functionality or performance and production methods.</li> </ul>						

## Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) Measures

SPS measures are applied to protect human, animal or plant life from risks arising from 1. additives, pests, contaminants, toxins or disease-causing organisms and to protect biodiversity. Non-technical Measures:

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**International Trade** 

Meaning- Non-technical measures relate to trade requirements; for example; shipping requirements, custom formalities, trade rules, taxation policies, etc.
It is further distinguished as1. Hard measures (e.g. Price and quantity control measures),
2. Threat measures (e.g. Anti-dumping and safeguards) and

Other measures such as trade-related finance and investment measures.

Furthermore, categorization also distinguish between-

- 1. Import-related measures- imposed by the importing country, and
- 2. Export-related measures- imposed by the exporting country itself.
- 3. *Procedural obstacles (PO)* which are practical problems in administration, transportation, delays in testing, certification etc. that may make it difficult for businesses to adhere to a given regulation.

## TYPES OF NON-TECHNICAL NTMs

## Import Quotas

- 1. **Import quota** is a direct restriction which specifies that only a certain physical amount of the good will be allowed into the country during a given time period.
- 2. Binding Quota is set below the free trade levels of imports, is enforced by issuing licenses.
- 3. Absolute Quotas of a permanent nature limit the quantity of imports to a specified level during a specified period of time and the imports can take place any time of the year. No condition is attached to the country of origin of the product.
- 4. A Tariff Rate Quota When country allocation is specified, a fixed volume or value of the product <u>must originate in one or more countries</u>.
- 5. Unilateral Quota, a country unilaterally fixes a ceiling on the quantity of the import of a particular commodity.
- 6. A Bilateral Quota results from negotiations between the importing country and particular Supplier Country, or between the Importing Country and export groups within the supplier Country.
- 1. Price Control Measures: These are also known as 'para-tariff' measures.
- 2. Non-automatic Licensing and Prohibitions:
- 3. Financial Measure: The objective of financial measures is to increase import costs by regulating the access to and cost of foreign exchange for imports and to define the terms of payment.
- 4. **State Trading:** These measures grant exclusive privileges an special preferences to a few Operators/ Agencies.
- 5. Local Content Measure: These measures include rules on local content requirements that mandate a specified fraction of a final good should be produced domestically.
- 6. Distribution Restrictions: Distribution restrictions are limitations imposed on the distribution of goods in the importing country involving additional license or certification requirements. These may relate to geographical restrictions or restrictions as to the type of agents who may resell.
- 7. Service Restrictions: Producers may be restricted from providing after- sales services for exported goods in the importing country.
- 8. **Procedural Obstacles**: There are procedural obstacles which increase the transaction costs thereby discouraging imports e.g. Licenses, Administrative Delay, Permission of Foreign Exchange Remittance etc.

- 9. Licensing: Prospective Importers are required to apply and obtain a license from the Licensing Authorities.
- 10. Rule of origin: Rules of origin are the criteria needed by governments of importing countries to determine the national source of a product.
- 11. Embargos: An embargo is a total ban imposed by government on import or export of some or all commodities to particular country.

#### **Exports related Measures**

- 1. Export Quotas: A quota on the export of a product from a country.
- 2. Ban on exports
- 3. Export tax
- 4. Export Subsidies
- 5. Voluntary Export Restraints (VERs): Voluntary Export Restraints (VERs) refer to a type of informal quota administered by an exporting country voluntarily restraining the quantity of goods that can be exported out of that country during a specified period of time.

## Unit 3 – Trade Negotiation

#### **Trade Agreement**

- a. Trade negotiations It is a process in which Nations meet to discuss the possibility of trade, with the goal of reaching a Trade Agreement.
- **b**. The aim of both the nations is to reach mutual consciences and establish trade agreement and promote international trade.

#### Types of Trade Agreements

- Unilateral trade agreements under which an importing country offers trade incentives in order to encourage the exporting country to engage in international economic activities that will improve the exporting country's economy. E.g. Generalized System of Preferences.
- 2. Bilateral Agreements are agreements which set rules of trade between two countries, two blocs or a bloc and a country. These may be limited to certain goods and services or certain types of market entry barriers. E.g. EU-South Africa Free Trade Agreement; ASEAN-India Free Trade Area
- 3. Multilateral Trade agreement are the trade agreement between Many nations at one time
- 4. Pluri-lateral trade agreement: Agreement between more than two countries, but not many.
- 5. Regional Preferential Trade Agreements among a group of countries reduce trade barriers on a reciprocal and preferential basis for only the members of the group. E.g. Global System of Trade Preferences among Developing Countries (GSTP)

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## General agreement on tariff and trade (GATT) 1948 to 1994

- 1. GATT is a Multilateral Trade Agreement created in January 1948 to achieve a broad, multilateral and free worldwide system of trading.
- 2. GATT governed international trade, working along with the World Bank & International Monetary Fund.
- 3. The Goods Council has 10 committees dealing with specific subjects.

## 4. The GATT lost its relevance by 1980s because

- a. It was obsolete to the fast-evolving globalization.
- b. International investments had expanded substantially.
- c. Intellectual property rights and trade in services were not covered by GATT.
- d. The ambiguities in the multilateral system could be heavily exploited.
- e. Efforts at liberalizing agricultural trade were not successful.
- f. there were inadequacies in institutional structure and dispute settlement system
- g. It was not a treaty and therefore terms of GATT were not fully binding

## World Trade Organisation (WTO) 1 July 1995.

## Introduction of WTO - Uruguay Round

 The Round started in Punta del Este in Uruguay in September 1986. The final act concluding the Uruguay Round establishing the WTO Regime was signed 15 April 1994, during the ministerial meeting at Marrakesh, Morocco, and hence is known as the Marrakesh Agreement.

## WTO - Aim and Objectives

## a. The WTO has six key objectives:

- (i) to set and enforce rules for international trade,
- (ii) to provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade liberalization,
- (iii) to resolve trade disputes,
- (iv) to increase the transparency of decision-making processes,
- (v) to cooperate with other major international economic institutions involved in global economic management, and
- (vi) to help developing countries benefit fully from the global trading system.

## The Structure of the WTO

- a. The WTO activities are supported by a Secretariat located in Geneva, headed by a Director General.
- b. The WTO accounting for about 95% of world trade currently has 164 members, of which 117 are developing countries.

## MINISTERIAL CONFERENCE

1. It is the highest-Level Body, which can take decisions on all matters under any of the multilateral trade agreements.

2. It meets at-least once every two years.

### **GENERAL CONFERENCE:**

1. It acts as the Trade Policy Review Body and the Dispute Settlement Body. It refers to the

Ministerial Conference.

2. It meets several times a year.

- The Goods Council, Services Council, Intellectual Property
- These councils oversee the implementation of WTO Agreements in Goods, Services and IPRs.
   These councils report to the General Council.

## Committees and Working Groups:

- 1. There are many Specialized Committees working under each council (eg. 11 committees under Goods Council)
- 2. These committees deal with individual agreements and specific areas, eg. Membership Application, Development etc.

## Guiding principles of WTO

- 1. Most-favoured-nation (MFN) Treatment:
- 2. National Treatment Principle (NTP)
- 3. Progressive Liberalization : Freer trade: gradually, through negotiation

## 4. Transparency

- a. WTO members are required- i) to publish their Trade Regulations, ii) to maintain institutions allowing for the review of administrative, iii) to respond to requests for information by other members, and iv) to notify changes in trade policies to the WTO.
- b. These internal transparency requirements are supplemented and facilitated by periodic country- specific reports (Trade Policy reviews) through the Trade Policy review Mechanism (TPRM).

## 5. No Quantitative Restrictions:

- 6. Protection of Domestic Industries Trade control is permissible for protection of domestic industries, but only through Tariff Rates, which should be generally reduced through "reciprocal and mutually advantageous" negotiations.
- 7. Market Access:
- 8. Protection of Health & Environment:
- 9. Dispute Settlement Mechanism

## WTO Agreement- An Overview of few

The WTO agreements cover goods, services and intellectual property and the permitted exceptions. These agreements are often called the WTO's trade rules, and the WTO is often described as "rules-based", a system based on rules.

- 1. Agreement on Agriculture
- 2. Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS)
- 3. Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (ATC) replaced the Multi-Fiber Arrangement (MFA)

- 4. Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade (TBT)
- 5. Agreement on Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMs) -
- 6. Anti-Dumping Agreement
- 7. Customs Valuation Agreement
- 8. Agreement on Pre-shipment Inspection (PSI)
- 9. Agreement on Rules of Origin
- 10. Agreement on Import Licensing Procedures
- 11. Agreement on Subsidies and Countervailing Measures
- 12. Agreement on Safeguards
- 13. General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)
- 14. Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS):
- 15. Trade Policy Review Mechanism (TPRM)
- > The most controversial topic in the Doha Agenda was agriculture trade.

Concerns regarding WTO by Member countries

- 1. Real expansion of trade in the three key areas of agriculture, textiles and services has been dismal.
- 2. Protectionism and lack of willingness among developed countries to provide market access.
- 3. Tariff escalation'
- 4. Developing countries complain that they face exceptionally high tariffs on selected products
- 5. LDCs are hugely disadvantaged and vulnerable due to lack of factor inputs, lack of capital, lack of infrastructure, etc.
- 6. Significant issues like Climate Change, high and volatile Food Prices, and energy production and consumption are all issues that have not been effectively addressed.

# **International Capital Movement**

Foreign Flow of Capital – This is far Wider than Foreign Investment					
Foreign aid or assistance	Borrowings	Investments	Deposits from		
			non-resident		
			Indians (NRI)		
Tied aid with strict mandates	Direct inter	Foreign direct			
regarding the use of money	government loans	investment (FDI)			
Untied aid where there are	External commercial				
no such	borrowing				
voluntary transfer	Soft Loans for e.g.	Foreign portfolio			
stipulations from institutions	from affiliates of	investment (FPI) in			
like IMF, WB	World Bank such as	bonds, stocks and			
	IDA	securities			
Multilateral aid from many	Loans from				
governments who pool funds	international				
to international organizations	institutions (e.g. world				
like the World Bank	bank, IMF)				

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Bilateral or direct inter	Trade credit facilities			
government grants.				
Foreign Direct Investment (FD	I)			
1. Meaning - Foreign direct	investment is defined as	a process whereby th	ne resident of one	
<i>country</i> (i.e. home country)	acquires ownership of a	n asset in another co	untry (i.e. the host	
country) and such movemer	nt of capital involves owne	ership, control as well	as management of	
the asset in the host countr	γ.			
2. Direct investments are real	<i>investments</i> in factories,	assets, land, inventorie	s etc.	
3. It Has a long-term interes	t and therefore remains in	vested for long.		
4. Control According to the I	NF, the acquisition of <b>at l</b> e	east ten percent of the	e ordinary shares or	
voting power in a public or	private enterprise by non	-resident investors mal	kes it eligible to be	
categorized as foreign dire	ct investment (FDI).			
5. Components: FDI has three	components-			
(a) Equity Capital,				
(b) Reinvested Earnings	1			
(c) Other direct Capital	l in the form of intra-comp	any loans between Dire	ct Investors	
(Parent) and Affiliat	e Enterprises.			
6. Who can be Foreign Direct	Investors			
(a) Individuals,				
(b) Private and Public Er	nterprises, incorporated or	r unincorporated		
(c) Associated Groups a	f Individuals or Enterprise	25,		
(d) Governments or Gov	ernment Agencies,			
(e) Estates, Trusts or o	ther organizations, or			
(f) Any combination of	the above-mentioned entit	ies.		
7. Modes or Forms of FDI				
(a) Opening of a subsid	liary or associate company	in a foreign country,		
(b) Equity injection into	an overseas company,			
(c) Acauirina a controll	ing interest in an existing	foreign company.		
(d) Mergers and acquis	(d) Mergers and acquisitions(M&A)			
(e) Joint venture with a foreign company				
(c) <b>Green field investment</b> (establishment of a new overseas affiliate for freshly starting				
production by a pare	production by a parent company)			
(a) Brownfield investme	ents (a form of FDI which	makes use of the existi	ng infrastructure	
by merging acquiring	a or leasing instead of dev	elopina a completely ne	wone. For ea in	
Tndia 100% FDT und	er automatic route is allow	ed in Brownfield Airpor	t projects	
Types of FDI				



- (a) The singular intention of a foreign portfolio investor is to earn a remunerative return through investment in foreign securities and is primarily concerned about the safety of their capital, the likelihood of appreciation in its value, and the return generated.
- (b) Such investors also do not have any intention of exercising voting power or controlling or managing the affairs of the company in whose securities they invest
- (c) Lower stake in companies with their total stake in a firm at below 10 percent.
- (d) FPI have immediate impact on balance of payment or exchange rate rather than on production or income generation.
- (e) Portfolio investments are, to a large extent, expected to be speculative. Once investor confidence is shaken, such capital has a tendency to speedily shift from one country to another, occasionally creating financial crisis for the host country.

Reasons/factor for FDI and FPI		Factors discouraging FDI in host Country
	1. Higher rate of return:	General
	2. Interdependency-	⇒ Political instability

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3.	Economies of scale-	⇒ Poor infrastructure
4.	Desire to control-	$\Rightarrow$ Small size of market with lack of growth
5	Risk diversification	potential.
· ·		⇒ Poor track-record of investments
6.	Desire to control LPR-	Macro-Economic Factors
7.	Penetration into the markets ('getting	⇒ High rates of inflation
	behind the tariff wall').	⇒ Exchange rate volatility
8.	Strategy to obtain control of strategic	⇒ Low income levels and lower demand
	raw material	Labour related
9.	Labour cost advantage-	⇒ Poor literacy and low labour skills,
10	Tax differentials	⇒ Dominance of labour unions
-0.		⇒ Language barriers
11.	Shared common language or common	Law/ Governance related
	boundaries	⇒ Higher degree of Non - Tariff barriers
		⇒ Unfavorable tax regime
		⇒ Law not favorable to IPR protection
		⇒ Double taxation

FDI in Host Country- Advantages		FD	)I in Host Country- Disadvantages
1.	Labour	1.	Labour class gets affected due to capital-
2.	International capital supporting by domestic		intensive methods of production
	savings.	2.	Monopoly of foreign firm-
3.	Technology up gradation	3.	Domestic resources are ruthless exploited.
4.	Domestic Industry becomes competitive	4.	Transferring outdated technology.
5.	Access to Global Market	5.	Domestic Industry face stiff challenges -
6.	Domestic resources are utilised more	6.	FDI move towards regions or states which
	efficiently		are well endowed in terms of natural
7.	Consumer gets better goods at lower price		resources, creating more regional disparity.
8.	Competition among government to get FDI	7.	FDI may cause the domestic governments to
9.	Promotion of ancillary units/ support		slow down its efforts to generate more
	industries		domestic savings and investment.
10.	Promote the exports of developing countries	8.	Foreign firms may partly finance their
11.	Act as a source of new tax revenue		domestic investments by borrowing funds in
12.	FDI reduces the established monopoly		the host country's capital market.
13.	Favourable impact on the host country's		'Crowding-out' effect.
	balance of payment position	9.	FDI usually involves domestic companies 'off
14.	Better work culture and higher productivity		-shoring', or shifting jobs and operations
	standards		abroad in pursuit of lower operating costs
			and consequent higher profits
		10	. Foreign entities are usually accused of being
			anti-ethical.
		11.	Adverse impact on the host country's
			commodity terms of trade

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	FDI in India
*	Routes for FDI -An Indian Company can obtain FDI through-
	a. Automatic Route- i.e without any prior approval of the Government or RBI.
	<ul> <li>Approval Route- i.e with prior approval of the Government</li> </ul>
٨	Instruments - FDI can be obtained through issue of "FDI - Compliant instruments" viz Equity
	Shares, fully and mandatorily Convertible Preference Shares and Debentures, Partly Paid
	Equity Shares and Warrants, issued in accordance with the Companies Act 2013 and SEBI
	Guidelines, as applicable.
*	Prohibition - In India, Foreign Investment is prohibited in the following sectors-
	(a) Lottery Business including Government/ private Lottery, Online Lotteries etc
	(b) Gambling and Betting including Casinos etc
	(c) Chit Funds
	(d) Nidhi Company
	(e) Trading in Transferable Development Rights (TDRs)
	(f) Real Estate Business or Construction of Farm Houses
	(g) Manufacturing of cigars, Cheroots, Cigarillos and Cigarettes, of Tobacco or of Tobacco
	substitutes
	(h) Activities / sectors not open to Private Sector Investment eg. Atomic Energy and
	Railway Operations (other than permitted activities)
	Overseas Direct Investment by Indian Business
1.	There has been progressive relaxation of the capital controls and simplification of procedures
	for outbound investments from India.
2.	As a result, Outbound Foreign Direct Investments (OFDIs) from India have undergone

substantial increase in terms of size, geographical spread and sectorial composition.

# EXCHANGE RATE AND ITS ECONOMIC EFFECTS

- A. Currency Currency is the legal tender of any country within its national Frontier buy or sell goods. Major traded currencies in the world are- <u>Dollar</u>, <u>Yen</u>, <u>Pound and Euro</u>
- B. Home Currency A country's own currency is known as home currency / domestic currency.
- C. Foreign Currency any currency other than home currency is a foreign currency.
- D. Foreign Exchange A foreign currency transaction is a transaction that is denominated in or requires settlementin a foreign currency:
  - (a) buys or sells goods or services in a foreign currency.
  - (b) borrows or lends funds in aforeign currency.
  - (c) becomes a party to an unperformed forward exchange contract; or
  - (d) otherwise acquires or sells of assets, or incurs or settles liabilities, denominated in a foreign currency.

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- E. Foreign exchange Market
  - a) The wide-reaching collection of markets and institutions that handle the exchange of foreign currencies is known as the foreign exchange market.
  - b) Foreign exchange market comprises of buyers and sellers of foreign currency.
- F. Features of Foreign exchange Market
  - a) It is a wide-reaching market and operates worldwide.
  - b) It is largest market in the world in terms of cash value traded.
  - c) It is an Over-the-Counter market and not a physical place as such. (OTC)
  - d) There is no central trading location and no set hours of trading.
  - e) Market participants who demand and supply currencies represent themselves through their Banks and Key Forex Dealers.
  - f) Forex Market operates on very narrow spreads between buying & selling prices.

### G. Vehicle Currency

a) A currency that is widely used to denominate international contracts made by parties even when it is not the national *currency* of either of the parties. Example - Dollar/ USD

## H. Major Participants in Forex market and their role

- a) Central banks and Government- To stabilize the excessive volatility in exchange rate
- b) Commercial banks executing orders from exporters, importers, investment institutions, insurance and retirement funds, hedgers, and private investors. Commercial banks also perform trading operations in their own interests and at their own expense.
- c) Foreign exchange Dealers- Intermediaries between different dealers or banks.
- d) **Arbitrageurs** To earn profit by discovering price differences between pairs of currencies with different dealers or banks
- e) Speculators /Bulls or bears are deliberate risk-takers who participate in the market to make gains
- f) MNCs that engage in international trade and investments -For normal trade
- g) Note: Commercial Banks and Brokerage are also called market makers as they set their own exchange price too.

### I. Spot Exchange rate

a) A spot exchange rate is the rate at which the currencies are being traded for delivery on the same day.

### J. Future Exchange rate

- a) Contracts to buy or sell currencies for *future delivery* which are carried out in forward and/or futures markets.
- b) The elements which get fixed on the date are- rate of exchange, Amount and Date of execution

## K. Forward Premium and Forward Discount

- a) A forward premium is said to occur when the forward exchange rate is more than a spot trade rate. E.g.- Spot rate Rs/Dollar = 63 and future rate 67
- b) Forward discount is where the trade is quoted at a lower rate than the spot trade. E.g.- Spot rate Rs/Dollar = 63 and future rate 61

L. Bid rate/ Buying rate: It is the rate at which the dealer is ready to buy the foreign currency in exchange for domestic currency. Therefore, it is the buying rate.					
<ul> <li>M. Ask rate/ Selling rate : It is the rate at which the foreign dealer 'asks' its customers to pay in local currency in exchange of the foreign currency. Therefore, it is the selling rate or offer rate at which foreign currency can be purchase from the dealer.</li> <li>Bid rate/Buying rate and Ask rate/selling rate is considered from banker's point</li> </ul>					
N. Spread or Bid The differen	-Ask Spread ce between bid price and the offer	price is called spread.			
O. Cross rate :Th two pairs and is	O. Cross rate : There may be two pairs of currencies with one currency being common between the two pairs and is called 'cross rate'				
<ul> <li>P. Base currency and Counter currency</li> <li>a) In an expression Currency of one country/ Currency of Another country, the currency in denominator is Base currency and that in numerator is Counter currency</li> <li>b) Therefor in Direct Quote FC is base currency and HC is counter currency.</li> <li>c) Therefor in Indirect Quote HC is base currency and FC is counter currency</li> </ul>					
c) Therefor in	Indirect Quote HC is base currency	and FC is counter currency			
c) Therefor in Difference betweer	Indirect Quote HC is base currency n Direct and Indirect Quote	and FC is counter currency			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point	Indirect Quote HC is base currency Direct and Indirect Quote Direct Quote	and FC is counter currency Indirect Quote			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point Meaning	Indirect Quote HC is base currency Direct and Indirect Quote Direct Quote A Direct Quote is the number of units of a Local Currency exchangeable for one unit of a Foreign Currency.	and FC is counter currency Indirect Quote An Indirect Quote is the number of units of a Foreign Currency exchangeable for one unit of local Currency.			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point Meaning Also known as	Direct Quote HC is base currency         Direct and Indirect Quote         Direct Quote         A Direct Quote is the number of units of a Local Currency exchangeable for one unit of a Foreign Currency.         European Currency Quotation	and FC is counter currency Indirect Quote An Indirect Quote is the number of units of a Foreign Currency exchangeable for one unit of local Currency. American Currency Quotation			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point Meaning Also known as Base Currency	Direct Quote HC is base currency         Direct and Indirect Quote         Direct Quote         A Direct Quote is the number of units of a Local Currency exchangeable for one unit of a Foreign Currency.         European Currency Quotation         Foreign Currency (i.e. Rupee in the above case)	and FC is counter currency Indirect Quote An Indirect Quote is the number of units of a Foreign Currency exchangeable for one unit of local Currency. American Currency Quotation Local Currency (i.e. US \$ in the above case)			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point Meaning Also known as Base Currency Counter Currency	Indirect Quote HC is base currency Direct and Indirect Quote A Direct Quote is the number of units of a Local Currency exchangeable for one unit of a Foreign Currency Quotation Foreign Currency (i.e. Rupee in the above case) Local Currency (i.e. US \$ in the above case)	Indirect QuoteAn Indirect Quote is the number of units of a Foreign Currency exchangeable for one unit of local Currency.American Currency QuotationLocal Currency (i.e. US \$ in the above case)Foreign Currency (i.e. Rupee in the above case)			
c) Therefor in Difference between Point Meaning Also known as Base Currency Counter Currency Relationship	Indirect Quote HC is base currency Direct and Indirect Quote A Direct Quote is the number of units of a Local Currency exchangeable for one unit of a Foreign Currency. European Currency Quotation Foreign Currency (i.e. Rupee in the above case) Local Currency (i.e. US \$ in the above case) Direct quote= 1/Indirect Quote	Indirect QuoteAn Indirect Quote is the number of units of a Foreign Currency exchangeable for one unit of local Currency.American Currency QuotationLocal Currency (i.e. US \$ in the above case)Foreign Currency (i.e. Rupee in the above case)Indirect quote= 1/ Direct Quote			

## Arbitrage – Buy low sell high

Meaning

- 1. Arbitrage refers to the practice of making risk-less profits by intelligently exploiting price differences of an asset at different dealing places.
- 2. Outcome of Arbitrage: On account of arbitrage, regardless of physical location, at any given moment, all markets tend to have the same exchange rate for a given currency.

## International Trade

## Determination of Exchange rate

Exchange rate is determined by *equilibrium of Demand and Supply*. RBI intervenes the market only to stabilize the exchange rate and prevent wide fluctuations.



Demand for Foreign currency arises due to		Su	upply of Foreign currency arises due to
$\partial$	Purchase of goods and services from	$\partial$	Sale of goods and services from another
	another country- Import		country- Export
$\partial$	Unilateral transfers such as gifts, awards,	$\partial$	Unilateral transfers <b>Inward</b> such as
	grants, donations or endowments		gifts, awards, grants, donations or
$\partial$	Make investment income payments abroad		endowments
$\partial$	Purchase financial assets, stocks or bonds	$\partial$	Receive investment income payments
	abroad		abroad
$\partial$	Open a foreign bank account and	$\partial$	Sale financial assets, stocks or bonds
$\partial$	Acquire direct ownership of real capital		abroad
$\partial$	for speculation and hedging activities	$\partial$	Sale direct ownership of real capital
	related to risk-taking or risk-avoidance		
	activity.		

Difference between HC appreciation and HC depreciation

The terms, 'currency appreciation' and 'currency depreciation' describe the movements of the exchange rate.

	Home Currency Depreciation			Home Currency Appreciation	
	(or Foreign currency appreciation)			(or Foreign Currency Depreciation)	
Meaning	α.	Currency depreciates when its value falls	۵.	Currency appreciates when its value	
		with respect to the value of another		increases with respect to the value of	
		<u>currency</u> or a basket of other currencies.		another currency or a basket of other	
	b.	Home-currency depreciation takes place		currencies.	
		when there is an increase in the home	b.	Home-currency appreciation takes	
		currency price of the foreign currency		place when there is a decrease in the	
		(or, alternatively, a decrease in the		home currency price of foreign	
		foreign currency price of the home		currency (or alternatively, an	
		currency).		increase in the foreign currency price	
				of home currency).	
Cause	1.	This arises when the Demand Curve for	1.	This arises when the Supply Curve	
		Foreign Currency shifts to the right		for Foreign Currency shifts to the	
		representing increased demand for		right representing increased supply	
		Foreign Currency, and Supply Curve		for Foreign Currency, and Demand	
		remains unchanged.		Curve remains unchanged.	
	2.	Where the DD curve remains same but	2.	Where the DD curve remains same	
		the supply decreases		but the supply increases	

## Impact on Exporters and importers by Appreciation/ depreciation of currency

Situation	Туре	Impact	Good or Bad
When Foreign currency appreciates	Exporter		
When Home currency appreciates	Exporter		
When Home currency depreciates	Importer		
When Foreign currency Depreciates	Importer		

## **Devaluation Vs Depreciation**

	Devaluation	Depreciation
Meaning	Deliberate downward adjustment in	Currency depreciates when its value falls
	the value of a country's currency	with respect to the value of another
	relative to another currency, group of	<u>currency</u> or a basket of other currencies.
	currencies or standard.	
causes	Devaluation is caused by action of the	Depreciation is caused when Demand
	Government/ central Bank/ Monetary	increases with supply remaining constant or
	authority/	Where Demand is constant and Supply
		decreases
Regime	Applicable if Fixed exchange rate	Applicable if Floating exchange rate
	Regime	Regime
Determinant	It is a monetary policy tool used by	Determined by Market forces. Demand and
	countries that have a fixed exchange	supply forces determines the value of
	rate or nearly fixed exchange rate	currency
	regime	

Revaluation is the opposite of devaluation and the term refers to a discrete raising of the otherwise fixed par value of a nation's currency.

Impacts of exchange rate fluctuations on domestic economy

## 1. Export:

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates- Export Demand Increases.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates- Export Demand decreases

## 2. Imports:

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates- Imports decreases.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates- demand for Imports increases.

## 3. Domestic Inflation: (relate with Import)

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates- leads to Cost push Inflation.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates- brings down Inflation.

## 4. Domestic Demand:

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates- increases the demand for Domestic goods.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates- reduces the demand for Domestic goods.

## 5. Foreign currency Debt

(a) Home Currency Depreciates - will lead to more HC outflow towards repayment of loan and

Principle.

(b) Home Currency Appreciates - will lead to lesser HC outflow towards repayment of loan and Principle.

#### 6. Inward remittance

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates Depreciation increases such inflows.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates Appreciation decreases such inflows

## 7. Current account

- (a) Home Currency Depreciates- If Export earnings rise faster than the Import Spending, then Current Account will improve.
- (b) Home Currency Appreciates Increasing imports and declining Exports cause larger deficits and worsen the Current Account balance.

#### Exchange rate Regime

- 1. An exchange rate regime is the system by which a country manages its currency in respect to foreign currencies.
- 2. There are three broad categories of exchange rate systems.
  - (a) Floating Exchange rate Regime: In one system, exchange rates are set purely by private market forces with no government involvement. Values change constantly due to demand & supply of currencies.
  - (b) Fixed Exchange rate Regime: governments may seek to fix the values of their currencies, either through participation in the market or through regulatory policy
  - (c) Managed Floating: currency values are allowed to change, but governments participate in currency markets in an effort to influence those values.

#### **Floating rate Regime**

#### Meaning:

- 1. Determined by demand for and supply of currency relative to other currencies.
- 2. Self-regulating.
- 3. There is no predetermined target rate.
- 4. There is no interference on the part of the government or the central bank, except to moderate the rate of change and preventing undue fluctuations.

### **Merits**

- 1. Allows Central bank and /or government to pursue its own independent monetary policy
- 2. Floating exchange rate regime allows exchange rate to be used as a *policy tool*:
- 3. Not required to maintain a huge foreign exchange reserve.

### Demerits

- 1. Generate a lot of uncertainties in relation to international transactions.
- 2. Make international transactions riskier.
- 3. Contracts between buyers and sellers in different countries get affected by exchange rate changes in addition to business risk.

#### **Fixed rate Regime**

#### Concept

- a) A fixed exchange rate is also referred as pegged exchange rate.
- b) The Country's *Central bank and / or Government announces or decrees the Rate*, i.e. what its currency will be worth in terms of
  - i) either other country's currency,
  - ii) a basket of currencies,
  - iii) Another measure of value, e.g. Gold.
- c) When a Government intervenes in the <u>forex Market</u> so that the Exchange Rate of its currency is different from what would have been determined by the free flow of market forces, it is said to have established a "peg" for its currency.
- d) To maintain the Rate at that announced level (called "Parity Value"), the *Central Bank and/or Government also regularly operates in the market* by buying (or selling) Foreign Reserves.

## Merits

- (a) Avoids currency fluctuations and eliminates exchange rate risks
- (b) Greatly enhance international trade and investment.
- (c) A reduction in speculation on exchange rate.
- (d) Imposes discipline on a country's monetary authority.
- (e) The government can encourage greater trade and investment.
- (f) Exchange rate peg can also enhance the credibility of the country's monetary-policy.

### Demerits

- a) The Central Bank and/or Government have to maintain large reserves.
- b) Market Forces of **Demand and Supply have no role** in determination of Equilibrium FX Rate.

**Managed Float Systems** 

a) Exchange rates are still free to float, but governments try to influence their values. Government or central bank participation in a floating exchange rate system and intervene from time to time in the currency market to stabilize the fluctuations.

Hard Peg	The Central Bank sets a fixed and unchanging value for the Exchange Rate.	
Soft Peg	The Exchange Rate is generally market determined, but if the Rates tend to be move	
	speedily in one direction, the Central Bank will intervene in the market.	
Floating	Market determines the Exchange rate. Supply and Demand of Currency determines	
Regime	the rate of exchange	

### Real rate and Nominal rate of Exchange

- (a) The 'real exchange rate' describes 'how many' of a good or service in one country can be traded for 'one' of that good or service in a foreign country. It is denoted by R.
- (b) Trade flows are affected not by nominal exchange rates, but instead, by real exchange rates.
- (c) A country's real exchange rate is a key determinant of its net exports of goods and services.

CA Aditya Sharma

 (d) The real exchange rate for single commodity is represented by the following equation:
 Real exchange rate (R) = nominal exchange rate × domestic price Foreign Price.

- (e) In contrast to the nominal exchange rate, the real exchange rate is always "floating", since even in the regime of a fixed nominal exchange rate E, the real exchange rate R can move via price-level changes.
- (f) Rather than focusing on the nominal exchange rate, it is more sensible to monitor the real exchange rate when assessing the effect of exchange rates on international trade or export competitiveness of a country.

Nominal Effective Exchange rate (NEER) & Real effective exchange rate (REER):

- (a) Nominal Effective Exchange rate (NEER): Unlike nominal and real exchange rates, NEER and REER are not determined for each foreign currency separately but against a whole basket of currencies.
- (b) **Real effective exchange rate (REER)**: A real effective exchange rate (REER) adjusts NEER by the appropriate foreign price level and deflates by the home country price level. The REER is NEER with price or labor cost inflation removed from it.

#### Chapter 10

# CHAPTER 10: INDIAN ECONOMY

## STATUS OF INDIAN ECONOMY: PRE INDEPENDENCE PERIOD (1850 - 1947)

## India's Economic Position between 1st and 17th Century

- 1. India is the largest economy of the ancient and the medieval world.
- 2. It controlled between one third and one fourth of the world's wealth.
- 3. The Economy is a hub for commerce, pilgrimage and administration.

## A. Handbook of Political Philosophy: Arthashastra - Period: 321-296 BCE

## I. Features of the Book:

- a) 'Arthashastra' is the work Kautilya (Chanakya).
- b) It is believed to be a kind of handbook for King Chandragupta Maurya, the founder of Mauryan empire.
- c) Arthashastra means primarily, 'wealth' and, secondarily, 'the land'.
- d) The major focus of the work is on the means of <u>fruitfully maintaining and using land</u>.
- e) Kautilya's writings relate to <u>statecraft</u>, <u>political science</u>, <u>economic policy</u> and <u>militarystrategy</u>.
- f) It contains the directives as to <u>how to reign over the kingdom</u> and encouraging directaction in addressing political concerns <u>without regard for ethical considerations</u>.
- g) Artha is not wealth alone; rather it encompasses all aspects of the material well-being of individuals.
- h) Taxes, which were charged equal for private and state-owned businesses.
- i) True kingship: The preservation and advancement of this good was comprised of seven vital elements, namely the King, Ministers, Farmlands, Fortresses, Treasury, Military & the Allies.

## The period of British rule can be divided into two sub periods:

The rule of East India Company from 1757 to 1858

- a) Reversal of Indian Market From Exporter of Goods to exporter of RM
- b) **Tariffs Discriminatory:** This made the exports of finished goods relatively costlier and the imports cheaper.
- c) Hostile policy and Competition from Machine made goods:
- d) Drop in Demand for Indian goods, Shift towards Western goods and Culture.
  - Imbalance arose in Indian economy: this causes imbalance in the traditional village Economy.
- $\boldsymbol{e})$  List of situations where waves of colonialism have impacted as follows
  - a) <u>Large scale unemployment</u> » <u>absence of alternate sources of employment</u> » <u>dependency</u> <u>agriculture for livelihood</u> » <u>sub division and fragmentation of land holdings</u> » <u>subsistence</u> <u>farming</u> » <u>reduced agricultural productivity and poverty</u> » <u>imported goods made the survival of</u> <u>domestic industries more difficult</u> » <u>Excessive pressure on land under tenancy</u> » <u>zamindars got</u> <u>the opportunity to extract excessive rents</u> » <u>low attention to productivity enhancing measures</u> <u>ledto a virtual collapse of Indian agriculture</u>.

- British government in India from 1858 to 1947
- a) The 'Modern' industrial enterprises in colonial India started to grow in the mid-19th century.
- b) Cotton Mills: With 9 million spindles in the 1930s, India got fifth position globally.
- c) Jute Mills: Largest in the world, expanding rapidly in and around Calcutta
- d) Iron Industry: Ranking eighth in the world.
- e) Just before the Great Depression, India was ranked as the 12th Largest Industrialized country measured by the value of manufactured products.
- f) Downturn in Producer goods Industries:
  - i. Policy formulation in favor of britishers
  - ii. The share in the net domestic product (NDP) of the manufacturing sector had barely reached 7% even in 1946.

#### INDIAN ECONOMY: POST-INDEPENDENCE (1947-1991)

- Feature of Indian Economy immediately after Independence:

   Majorly had <u>rural inhabited</u> >> <u>mostly illiterate</u> >> <u>poor population</u> >> literacy just 18 % >> barely
  - 32 years of life expectancy.

#### 2. Development Strategy - Nehruvian Model:

- a. The Nehruvian model supporting social and economic redistribution and industrialization.
- b. Rapid industrialization of the economy was the cornerstone of Nehru's development strategy. The concept of 'planned modernization'.
- c. Centralized economic planning and direction was at the core of India's development strategy supporting equity and distributive justice.
- d. The Planning Commission of India was established to particularly plan for the economic development of the nation in line with the socialistic strategy.

## e. This was carried through the five-year plans.

е.	inis	wa	s carried inroughtine five-year plans.	
1948	a.	. Expanded role for the public sector		
	b.	<ol> <li>Licensing to the private sector.</li> </ol>		
	c.	c. Granted state monopoly for strategic areas such as atomic energy, arms & ammunition or railways.		
	d.	Th	e rights to new investments in basic industries were exclusively given to the state.	
1950	۵.	Ти	vo Economic philosophies:	
		1	. PM Nehru's visualization - emphasis on heavy industry, and	
		2	2. The Gandhian philosophy - small scale and cottage industry and village republics.	
1950-	a.	I	ndia's average annual rate of growth of GDP- often referred to as the 'Hindu growth	
1980		r	ate'- was a modest 3.5 percent.	
	b.	G	reen Revolution Initiative:	
		i	. The strategy for agricultural development till then <b>was reliance on institutional model</b> .	
		i	i. India then faced two severe and consecutive droughts struck in 1966 and 1967	
		i	ii. The evolution of Green Revolution was successfully materialised. Green Revolution is	
			called as Wheat Revolution, made us to overcome food problem.	

Cha	apter	10		Indian Economy
		с.	The	economic performance during the period of 1965-81 is the worst because of-
			i.	The license-raj, the autarchic policies in 1960s and 1970s,
			ii.	the external shocks such as three wars (in 1962, 1965, and 1971),
			iii.	major droughts (especially 1966 and 1967), and the oil shocks of 1973 and 1979
			iv.	India being practically a closed economy missed out on the opportunities created by a rapidly growing world economy.
		d.	Con	sequence of Framing Interventionist policy
			i.	The government nationalized 14 banks in 1969 and 6 in 1980.
			ii.	The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act, 1969 restricted the
				possibility of expansion of big business houses.
Ev	olutio	on of	Ecor	nomic Reforms
1.	Aro	und	1980	) - The seeds of early Liberalization and Reforms were sown.
2.	Bet the	ween prev	198 vailin <u>e</u>	1-1989- This Period named as <u>early liberalization</u> were specifically aimed at changing g thrust on 'in-ward oriented' trade and investment practices.
3.	3. The early reforms of 1980's broadly covered three areas, namely industry, trade and taxation.			
	a. List of Some Economic Reforms initiated before 1991:			
	(a)	Deli	cens	ing of 25 broad categories of industries.
	(b)	Broo	ad-b	anding - firms may switch production between different production lines.
	(c)	The	ceili	ng limit of MRTP Regulations have been increased from <b>20 crore to 100 crore</b> .
	(d)	Esta	ablisł	nment of SEBI.
	(e)	The	opei	n general licence (OGL) list was steadily expande.
	(f)	Base 30.0	ed or ) per	n the real effective exchange rate (REER), the rupee was depreciated by about cent from 1985-86 to 1989-90.
	b. C	halle	enges	s faced from Reforms:
	• T r	The p eser	oriva vatic	te investments were affected due to <b>complicated licensing policies</b> , <b>public sector</b> ons and excessive government controls.
	• R	Reser	vatio	on of goods to small scale sector discouraged private investments.
	• I	ineff	icien	icy in government controls and bureaucratic procedures.
	• F ii	forei ndus	gn ir tries	nvestments and foreign competition were not allowed for protection to domestic
ТН	E ECO	ONO	MIC	REFORMS OF 1991

- ★ India embarked on a bold set of economic reforms in 1991 under the Narsimha Rao government.
- ★ The causes attributed to the immediate need for such a drastic change are:
- a. The fiscal initiatives of 1980s led fiscal deficit, making adverse balance of payments.
- b. Persistent huge deficits led large government's expenditure towards interest payments.

- c. The surge in oil prices triggered by the gulf war in 1990.
- d. The foreign exchange reserves touched the lowest point with a reserve of only <u>\$1.2 billion</u> which was barely sufficient for <u>two weeks of imports</u>.
- e. India had to depend on external borrowing from the IMF.
- f. The fragile political situation ballooned into what may be called a 'crisis of confidence'.
- g. Collapse of the **Soviet Union and the spectacular success of China**, based on outward oriented policies were lessons for the Indian policy makers.
- ★ The reforms, popularly known as liberalization, privatization & globalization had two major objectives:
  - 1. **Reorientation of the economy** from a centrally directed and highly controlled one to a 'market friendly' or market oriented economy.
  - 2. Macroeconomic stabilization by substantial reduction in fiscal deficit.

## The policies can be broadly classified as :

- 1. **Stabilization measures** >>>> short term measures >>>to address the problems of inflation & adverse balance of payment
- 2. **Structural reform** >>>>> long term and of continuing nature>>>> aimed at bringing in productivity and competitiveness by removing the structural rigidities in different sectors of the economy.
- 4. The prominent industrial policy initiatives were:
  - a. Liberalisation: Liberalisation refers to relaxation of previous Government restrictions usually in areas of social and economic policies.
  - b. Areas of Liberalisation: Liberalization i.e. economic reforms were introduced in four major sectors viz. -
    - ✓ Industrial Sector,
    - ✓ Financial Sector,
    - ✓ Foreign Trade / External Sector, and
    - ✓ Fiscal Policy.

### The Fiscal Reforms

Measures to this effect included:

- 1. Introduction of a stable and transparent tax structure,
- 2. Ensuring better tax compliance,
- 3. Thrust on curbing government expenditure
- 4. Reduction in subsidies and abolition of unnecessary subsidies
- 5. Disinvestment of part of government's equity holdings in select public sector undertakings and
- 6. Encouraging private sector participation.

### Monetary and Financial Sector Reforms

- The focus was mostly on reducing the burden of nonperforming assets. These included many measures, important among them are:
  - 1. Interest rate liberalization and reduction in controls on banks by the RBI

- 2. Opening of new private sector banks.
- 3. Reduction in reserve requirements namely CRR and SLR.
- 4. Liberalisation of bank branch licensing policy and granting of freedom to banks in respect of opening, relocating or closure of branches

## **Reforms in Capital Markets**

The Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI) which was set up in 1988 was given statutory recognition in 1992.

## The 'New Industrial Policy'

- The 'New Industrial Policy' was announced by the government on 24 July 1991.
  - 1. The New Economic **Policy put an end to the 'License Raj'** by removing licensing restrictions for all industries <u>except for 18</u>. Consequently, <u>80 percent</u> of the industry was taken out of the licensing framework.
  - 2. This is <u>subsequently reduced to 5,namely</u>, arms and <u>ammunition</u>, <u>atomic substances</u>, <u>narcotic</u> <u>drugs and hazardous chemicals</u>, <u>distillation and brewing of alcoholic drinks and cigarettes and</u> <u>cigar</u>.
  - 3. The MRTP Act was restructured.
  - 4. Many goods produced by small-scale industries have been de reserved enabling entry of large firms.
  - 5. Foreign investment was also liberalised. The concept of automatic approval was introduced for foreign direct investments up to 51 %.
  - 6. FDI is prohibited only in four sectors viz. <u>retail trade, atomic energy, lottery business and betting and gambling.</u>
  - 7. External trade was further liberalised by substituting 'the positive list approach' of listing license-free items on the OGL list with **the negative list approach**..
  - 8. In 1990-91, the highest tariff rate was 355% which came down to 10% with some exceptions such as automobile at 100%
  - 9. Rupee was devalued by 18% against the dollar.

## **Trade Policy Reforms**

- The trade policy reforms aimed at:
  - > Dismantling of quantitative restrictions on imports and exports
- ★ Export duties were removed to increase the competitive position of Indian goods.
- In 1991, India still had a fixed exchange rate system. In March 1992 the government decided to establish a dual exchange rate regime. From 1993 onwards, India has followed a managed floating exchange rate system.
- India enjoys a solid cushion of foreign exchange reserves close to eight months of import cover. India
  has one of the largest holdings of international reserves in the world.
  - \* Poverty has reduced substantially

 Value-added share of agriculture and allied activities has declined steadily over the past four decades.

## NITI AAYOG: A BOLD STEP FOR TRANSFORMING INDIA

- A. Background for NITI AAYOG:
  - a. On 1st January 2015, the apex policy-making body namely Planning Commission, was replaced by the National Institution for Transforming India (NITI) Aayog.
  - b. The major objective of such a move was to 'spur innovative thinking by objective 'experts' and promote 'co-operative federalism' by enhancing the voice and influence of the states'.
  - c. NITI Aayog is expected to serve as a 'Think Tank' of the government. [and] a 'directional and policy dynamo'.
- B. NITI Ayog will work towards the following objectives :
  - a. To evolve a shared vision of national development with the active involvement of states.
  - b. To foster **cooperative federalism**, recognizing that strong states make a strong nation.
  - c. Formulate credible plans at the village level & aggregate these progressively at higher levels.
  - d. To pay special attention to the sections of our society.
  - e. To design strategic and long-term policy and programme frameworks.
  - f. To provide **advice and encourage partnerships between key stakeholders** and national and international like-minded think tanks, as well as educational and policy research institutions.
  - g. To create a knowledge, innovation and entrepreneurial support system.
  - h. To offer a platform for the resolution of inter-sectoral and inter departmental issues.
  - i. To maintain a state-of-the-art resource centre.
  - j. To actively monitor and evaluate the implementation of programmes and initiatives.
  - k. To focus on **technology up gradation and capacity building** for implementation of programmes.
- C. The key initiatives of NITI Aayog are:
  - a. 'Life' which envisions replacing the prevalent 'use-and-dispose' economy
  - b. The National Data and Analytics Platform (NDAP) facilitates and improves access to Indian government data
  - c. Shoonya campaign aims to improve air quality in India by accelerating the deployment of electric vehicles
  - d. E-Amrit is a one-stop destination for all information on electric vehicles
  - e. India Policy Insights (IPI)
  - f. 'Methanol Economy' programme is aimed at reducing India's oil import bill, greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, and converting coal reserves and municipal solid waste into methanol, and
  - g. 'Transforming India's Gold Market' constituted by NITI Aayog to recommend measures for tapping into the potential of the sector and provide a stimulus to exports and economic growth

## D. Weaknesses of NITI AAYOG:

- a. NITI has a limited role
- b. It does not produce National Plans, Control Expenditures, or Review state plans.
- c. The major shortcoming of NITI is its exclusion from the Budgeting Process.

d. It also lacks Autonomy and Balance of Power within the policy making apparatus of the central government.

THE CURRENT STATE OF THE INDIAN ECONOMY: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

#### The Primary Sector

- 1. Agriculture, with its allied sectors, is largest source of livelihood in India.
- 2. According to the latest estimates, **47 per cent of India's population is directly dependent** on agriculture for living.
- 3. India is world's largest producer of **milk**, **pulses**, **jute** and **spices**. India has the **largest area planted** under **wheat**, **rice** and **cotton**.
- 4. India has the world's largest cattle herd (buffaloes)..
- 5. It is the second-largest producer of fruits, vegetables, tea, farmed fish, cotton, sugarcane, wheat, rice, cotton, and sugar.
- 6. Indian food and grocery market is the world's sixth largest.
- 7. India is among the top ten exporters of agricultural products in the world.
- 8. Although the share of agriculture has been declining in overall gross value added (GVA) of India, it continues to grow in absolute terms.
- Gross Value Added by the agriculture and allied sector was 18.8% in 2021 -22 (until 31 January, 2022).
- 10. Ensure certainty of returns to the farmers through price support (The Minimum Support Price (MSP) of **all 23 mandated crops is fixed at 1.5 times** of all India weighted average cost of production)
- 11. Agricultural and Processed Food Export Development Authority (APEDA) is entrusted with the responsibility of export promotion of agri products.
- 12. The Government of India has allowed 100% FDI in marketing of food products and in food product E-commerce under the automatic route.
- 13. Large number of interventions is undertaken by different governments. A few such recent measures are:
  - Income support to farmers through PM KISAN
  - Launch of the National Mission for Edible Oils
  - Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY)
  - Mission for Integrated Development of Horticulture (MIDH)
  - Provision of Soil Health Cards
  - Parampara at Krishi Vikas Yojana (PKVY) supporting and promoting organic farming, and improvement of soil health.
  - Promotion of Farmer Producer Organisations (FPOs) to ensure better income for the producers through an organization of their own.
  - ▲ Per Drop More Crop (PDMC) scheme to increase water use efficiency at the farm level
  - Setting up of E-NAM -a pan-India electronic trading portal which networks the existing APMC mandis to create a unified national market for agricultural commodities.
  - ▲ Introduction of Kisan Rail for improvement in farm produce logistics, and

- 14. Indian agriculture faces many issues such as:
  - 1. Indian agriculture is dominated by small and medium farmers with low farm productivity. These also reduce their ability to participate in the domestic as well as export market.
  - 2. Indian agriculture is resource intensive, cereal centric and regionally biased..
  - 3. Unscientific and wasteful agricultural practices.
  - 4. Inadequate agro-processing infrastructure
  - 5. Slow agricultural diversification
  - 6. Inadequate adoption of environmentally sustainable and climate resistant new farm technology
  - 7. Poor adoption of new agricultural technologies
  - 8. Ineffective marketing, warehousing and credit delivery of agricultural products.
  - 9. High food price volatility
  - 10. Heavy dependence on monsoons and loss of crops and livelihood due to vagaries of nature
  - 11. Inability to tap the full export potential of primary as well as value added products
  - 12. Inadequate post-harvest infrastructure and management practices
  - 13. Incidence of poverty and malnutrition

## 10.7.1 The Secondary Sector

- 1. The Indian industry contributes about 30 % of total GVA by employing over 12.1 crores.
- 2. The industrial sector in India broadly comprises of manufacturing, heavy industries, fertilizers, pharmaceuticals, chemicals and petrochemicals, oil and natural gas, food processing, mining, defence products, textiles, retail, micro, small & medium enterprises, cottage industries and tourism. The share of informal sector in the economy is more than 50% of GVA.
- 3. The Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade (DPIIT) has a role in the formulation and implementation of industrial policy and strategies for industrial development in conformity with the development needs and national objectives.
- Introduction of GST on 1 July 2017 replaced many indirect taxes in India such as the excise duty, VAT, services tax, etc.
- Reduction of corporate tax to domestic companies giving an option to pay income-tax at the rate of 22%.
- > 'Make in India' is a 'Vocal for Local' initiative launched in 2014.
- Ease of Doing Business' India ranks 63rdin the World Bank's annual Doing Business Report (DBR), 2020 as against 77thrank in 2019 registering a jump of 14 ranks.
- > The National Single Window System is a one-stop-shop for investment related support.
- > PM Gati Shakti reducing logistics cost.
- > National Logistics Policy (NLP) launched in September 2022, aims to lower the cost of logistics.
- > The Production Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme was initiated in March 2020 for 14 key sector.
- > FAME-India Scheme (Faster Adoption and Manufacturing of Hybrid and Electric Vehicles)
- > 'Udyami Bharat' aims at the empowerment of Micro Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs).
- > PM Mega Integrated Textile Region and Apparel (PM MITRA):

- > 100 per cent FDI under automatic route is permitted for the sale of coal, and coal mining activities, including associated processing infrastructure and for insurance intermediaries.
- Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) was abolished in May 2017, and a new regime namely Foreign Investment Facilitation Portal (FIF) has been put in place.
- Remission of Duties and Taxes on Export Products (RoDTEP) 2021 formed to replace the existing MEIS (Merchandise Exports from India Scheme) to boost exports.
- Start-up India Programme acts as the facilitator for ideas and innovation in the country. India's rank in the Global Innovation Index (GII) has improved from 81st in 2015 to 40th in 2022.
- > The Emergency Credit Line Guarantee Scheme (ECLGS)is a fully guaranteed emergency credit line to monitor lending institutions.

There are many challenges to the industrial sector; a few of these are enumerated below:

- ★ Shortage of efficient infrastructure and manpower.
- \* Reliance on imports, exchange rate volatility and associated time and cost overruns
- ★ The MSME sector is relatively less favorably placed in terms of credit availability.
- Industrial locations established without reference to cost-effective points tend to experience unsustainable cost structure.
- + Heavy losses, inefficiencies, lower productivity and unsustainable returns plaguing PSU.
- ▲ Lower export competitiveness, slowing external demand and imposition of non tariff barriers by other countries.
- ▲ Inflation and associated macro economic developments leading to input cost escalations and lower demand.
- ★ Global slowdown and related negative sentiments affecting investment.
- \* Aggressive tightening of monetary policy and increases in cost of credit.
- + High and increasing fuel prices, and Mounting presence of informal sector.

### 10.7.3 The Tertiary Sector

India has the unique experience of bypassing the secondary sector in the growth trajectory by a shift from agriculture to the services sector.

India's services sector covers a wide variety of activities.

	BOX 2. The broad classification of services as per the National IndustrialClassification, 2008
1.	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of vehicles
2.	Transportation and storage
3.	Accommodation and food service activities
4.	Information and communication
5.	Financial and insurance activities
6.	Real estate activities
7.	Professional, scientific and technical activities
8.	Administrative and support services
9.	Public administration, defence and compulsory social security

Cha	apter 10		Indian Economy
	10.	Educ	ation
	11.	Humo	n health and social work activities
	12.	Arts	entertainments and recreation
	13.	Othe	r service activities
	14.	Activ of ho	ities of households as employers, undifferentiated goods and servicesproducing activities useholds for own use
	15.	Activ	ities of extra territorial organizations and bodies

- 1. The service sector refers to the industry producing intangible goods viz. services as output. The services sector is the largest sector of India and accounts for 53.89% of total India's GVA.
- 2. The production and consumption of information-intensive service activities such as computing, accounting, inventory management, quality control, personnel administration, marketing, advertising and legal services has increased manifold.
- 3. India is among the top 10 World Trade Organization (WTO) members in service exports and imports.
- 4. India's services exports have remained resilient during the Covid-19 pandemic. The reasons are the higher demand for digital support and need for digital infrastructure modernization.
- 5. The Indian services sector is the largest recipient of FDI inflows. FDI equity inflows into the services sector accounted for more than 60 per cent of the total FDI equity inflows into India.
- 6. India as the seventh largest recipient of FDI in the top 20 host countries in 2021. In 2021-22.
- 7. To ensure the liberalisation of investment in various industries, the government has permitted 100 per cent foreign participation in telecommunication services through the Automatic Route including all services and infrastructure providers.

CHAPTER 1:NATURE AND SCOPE OF BUSINESS ECONOMICS						
S.NO	ECONOMIST	DEFINITION				
	NAME					
1	Adam Smith	1. Economics is an inquiry into the nature and causes of				
		wealth of nations.				
		2. Economics is a science which deals with wealth.				
3	Alfred Marshall	1. Economics is a study of mankind in the ordinary business of				
		life.{Welfare Definition.}				
		2. Law of Demand				
		3. Law of diminishing Utility				
		4. Time Element				
4	AC Pigou	1. Money Measurement concept (Measuring Rod)				
		2. Price Discrimination				
		3. Modern business activities are based on the anticipations of				
		business community and are affected by waves of optimism				
		or pessimism.(CH-5)				
5	Lionel Robbins	Scarcity Definition.				
6	Paul.A.Samuelson	Growth Definition.				
7	Joel Dean	Use of economic analysis to make business decisions involving				
		the best use of an organization's scarce resources				
8	Prof. Boulding	"Study of particular firm, particular household, individual price,				
		wages, income, individual industries, particular commodities"-				
9	Prof.Mc.Connel	"Macro Economics examines the Forest and not the Trees.				
		Large aggregates"-				
10	Karl Marx And	1. Concept of socialist economy.				
	Frederic Engles	2. The Communist Manifesto in year 1848				
	Chapter 2: Theory Of Demand And Supply					
11	Hicks And Allen	1. Substitution Effect				
		2. Indifference Curve Analysis				
12	James	Demonstration Effect				
	Dusesenberry					
13	Thorstein Veblen	1. Veblen Effect				
		2. Conspicuous Consumption				
14	Robert Giffen	Giffen Goods				
15	Olaf Helmer	Delphi Technique				
	Ch	apter 3:Theory Of Production And Cost				
16	James Bates And	"Production Is The Organized Activity Of Transformation Of				
	J.R.Parkinson	Raw Material Into Finished G&S to Satisfy The Demand				
17	Ricardo	Definition of land - indestructible and permanent				
18	R.L.Marris	Maximize the firm balanced growth rate				
19	Schumpeter	Function of an entrepreneur is to do innovation				
20	H.A.Simon	Satisficing behaviour				
21	Baumol	Sales revenue maximization.				
22	A.A.Berle &	Manager enjoy discretionary powers to set goals				
	G.C.Means					
23	Williamson	Maximisation of managerial utility function				
CA Aditva	Sharma	7410134858 Page No. 11.1				

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24	Cyert & March	<b>5</b> Goals - Profit goals, production goal, inventory goal, sales goal,			
		market share goal			
25	Paul.H.Douglas &	Applies not to only individual firm but to the whole of			
	C.W.Cobb	manufacturing industry.			
26	Chamberlin	Distinction between selling cost and production cost			
27	Frank Knight -	Profit is the reward for bearing uncertainties			
	Cł	napter 4:Meaning And Types Of Market			
28	Porf.Stigler	Defined oligopoly			
29	Paul.A.Sweezy	Kinked demand curve			
30	Cournot Model	The firms control variable is <b>output</b> in contrast to price.			
31	Stackelberg Model	The leader commits to an output before all other firms.			
32	Bertrand Model	Price is control variable for firms and each firm is			
		independently sets its price in order to maximize profits.			
		Chapter 5: Business Cycle			
33	Keynes	Aggregate effective demand			
34	Schumpeter	Innovation theory			
35	Jm Keynes	Fluctuation in effective demand			
36	Nicholas Kaldor	Cobweb theory - holds that business cycles result from the			
		fact that present prices substantially influence the production			
		at some future date.			
37	Hawtrey	Trade cycle is purely monetary phenomenon			

	BCK SUMMARY					
1	Charles Darwin	It is not the strongest of the species that survive, nor the				
		most intelligent, but the one most responsive to change.				
2	Gluek & Jauch	Business environment includes factors outside the firm which				
		can lead to opportunities for threats to the firm.				
3	Barry.M.Richman	Environment factors or constraint are <u>largely if not totally</u>				
	And Melvyn Copen	external and beyond the control of individual industrial,				
		enterprises.				
4	Peter Drucker	The aim of business is to create and retain customer.				
5	Dadabhai Naoroji	Book "Poverty and Un-British Rule in India" drew attention to				
		drain of wealth from India to Britain.				
6	J.P.Devadhar	SEBI order can be appealed to securities appellate tribunal				
		which is three member tribunal and headed				
## CA Foundation – Economics & BKC - Economist Summary

Sno.ConceptFormula1Total Utility $TU=MU_1+MU_2+MU_3+MU n^{th} Units$ 3Marginal Utility1. Marginal Utility = Change in Total Utility ( $\Delta TU$ ) Change in No. of Units Consumed(2 2. MUn= $TU_n-TU_{n-1}$ 4Consumer Equilibrium - Cardinal $\underline{MU \times} = \underline{MU \vee}$ Price $_{X}$ price $_{Y}$ 5Consumer Equilibrium - Cardinal1. What a consumer is ready to pay - what he actually p 2. Marginal Utility (MU) - Price6Consumer Equilibrium - Ordinal7PRICE ELASTICITY (PERCENTAGE METHOD)=% Change in quantity demanded % change in price8Method of derivative $-dq \times p$ dp $\times q$ 9Method of Graph (q1-q2) $\times$ (p1+p2) (q1+q2) (p1-p2)1. If Total expenditure & Price moving in same direction - Inela 2. If Total expenditure & Price moving in Opposite direction - E 3. If total revenue remains unchanged - Unit elastic12Income Elasticity $\frac{%change in Demand}{% change in nicome}$ 13Cross Elasticity $\frac{%change in Demand of good x}{% change in price of good y}$	<u></u>
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4       Consumer Equilibrium - Cardinal	iays.
Equilibrium - Cardinal       Price x       price y         5       Consumer Surplus       1. What a consumer is ready to pay - what he actually p         6       Consumer Equilibrium - Ordinal       MRS xy = MUx/ MUy         7       PRICE ELASTICITY (PERCENTAGE METHOD)=       % Change in quantity demanded % change in price         8       Method of derivative       -dq x p dp x q         9       Method of Graph Lower segment/Upper segment         10       Arc Elasticity       (q1-q2) × (p1+p2) (q1+q2) (p1-p2)         11       Total Outlay Method       1. If Total expenditure & Price moving in same direction - Inela 2. If Total expenditure & Price moving in Opposite direction - E 3. If total revenue remains unchanged - Unit elastic         12       Income Elasticity       % change in Demand % change in income         13       Cross Elasticity       % change in Demand of good x % change in price of good y	pays.
5       Consumer Surplus       1. What a consumer is ready to pay - what he actually p         6       Consumer       2. Marginal Utility (MU) - Price         6       Consumer       MRS xy = MUx/ MUy         7       PRICE ELASTICITY       % Change in quantity demanded         7       PRICE ELASTICITY       % Change in price         8       Method of       -dq x p         derivative       dp x q         9       Method of Graph       Lower segment/Upper segment         10       Arc Elasticity       (q1-q2) × (p1+p2) (q1+q2) (p1-p2)         11       Total Outlay Method       1. If Total expenditure & Price moving in same direction - Inela         2. If total revenue remains unchanged - Unit elastic       % change in Demand % change in income         12       Income Elasticity       %change in Demand of good x % change in price of good y	pays.
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9       Method of Graph       Lower segment/Upper segment         10       Arc Elasticity $(q1-q2) \times (p1+p2)$ (q1+q2) (p1-p2)         11       Total Outlay Method       1. If Total expenditure & Price moving in same direction - Inela 2. If Total expenditure & Price moving in Opposite direction - E 3. If total revenue remains unchanged - Unit elastic         12       Income Elasticity       %change in Demand % change in income         13       Cross Elasticity       %change in Demand of good x % change in price of good y	
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% change in income         13       Cross Elasticity         % change in Demand of good x         % change in price of good y	
13       Cross Elasticity       %change in Demand of good x         % change in price of good y	
% change in price of good y	
14 Advertisement <u>% change in demand of commodity</u>	
Elasticity % change in advertisement expenditure	
15 Elasticity of supply- <u>% change in Quantity supplied</u>	
% Change method % change in price	
16 Arc Elasticity $(S1-S2) \times (P1+P2)$ (S1+S2) (P1-P2)	
17 Method of <u>dq x p</u>	
derivative dp × q	
18 Cobb-Douglas $Q=KL^{\alpha}C^{(1-\alpha)}$	

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19	Average Product	<u>Total product</u>	
		Quantity of input	
20	Marginal Product	<ol> <li><u>Change inTotal Product (ΔTP)</u></li> </ol>	
		Change in No. of Quantity ( $\Delta Q$ )	
		2. $MP_n = IP_n - IP_{n-1}$	
21	Economia Casta	Evaliait Casta - Tambiait Casta	
21	Economic Costs	Explicit costs + implicit costs	
22	Marginal cost per	1. Difference in Total Cost (TC) between two output levels	
	unit	Difference in Output Quantity at those levels	
		2. <u>Difference in Total variable (TVC) of two units</u>	
		Difference in Output Quantity of two units	
		3. $TC_n - TC_{n-1}$	
		4. $TVC_n - TVC_{n-1}$	
23	Total Cost	lotal Fixed cost + lotal variable cost	
24	Average Total Cost	1. Total Cost	
		Total output	
		2. Average Fixed cost + Average Variable cost	
		3.	
25	Average Fixed cost-	TFC	
	AFC	Q.	
26	Average Variable	<u>TVC</u>	
	cost - AVC	Q	
27	Total Revenue	Price x Quantity (P x Q)	
28	Average Revenue	1. Total Revenue (TR/Q)	
		Quantity	
		2. Also Known as Price	
29	Marginal Revenue	1. <u>Change in TR</u> .	
		Change in Qty. sold	
		2. TRn - TRn-1	
		3. Marginal Revenue = Average Revenue (E - 1/E)	
20	A		
30	Accounting profit	lotal revenue - Explicit cost	
31	ECONOMIC PROFIT	Total Revenue-(Explicit Cost + Implicit Cost)	
32	Profit maximisation	1. $\underline{MC = MR}$	
	condition	2. <u>MC Curve cuts MR from Below</u>	
1			