

Mock Test Paper - Series I: December, 2025

Date of Paper: 17th December, 2025

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

FOUNDATION COURSE

PAPER – 2: BUSINESS LAWS

ANSWERS

1. (a) (i) **An invitation to offer is different from offer.** Quotations, menu cards, price tags, advertisements in newspaper for sale are not offer. These are merely invitations to public to make an offer. An invitation to offer is an act precedent to making an offer. Acceptance of an invitation to an offer does not result in the contract and only an offer emerges in the process of negotiation.
- In the instant case, Ashish reaches to super market and selects a Air Conditioner with a discounted price tag of ₹ 40,000 but cashier denied to sell at discounted price by saying that discount is closed from today and request to make full payment. But Ashish insists to purchase at discounted price.
- On the basis of above provisions and facts, the price tag with Air Conditioner was not offer. It is merely an invitation to offer. Hence, it is the Ashish who is making the offer not the super market. Cashier has right to reject the Ashish's offer. Therefore, Ashish cannot enforce cashier to sell at discounted price.
- (ii) **Agent's authority in an emergency (Section 189 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872):** An agent has authority, in an emergency, to do all such acts for the purpose of protecting his principal from loss as would be done by a person of ordinary prudence, in his own case, under similar circumstances.
- In the instant case, Rakesh, the agent, was handling perishable goods like 'tomatoes' and can decide the time, date and place of sale, not necessarily as per instructions of the Aswin, the principal, with the intention of protecting Aswin from losses.
- Here, Rakesh acts in an emergency as a man of ordinary prudence, so Aswin will not succeed against him for recovering the loss.
- (b) (i) **Doctrine of Indoor Management:** The Doctrine of Indoor Management is the exception to the Doctrine of Constructive Notice. The Doctrine of Constructive

Notice does not mean that outsiders are deemed to have notice of the internal affairs of the company. For instance, if an act is authorised by the Articles or Memorandum, an outsider is entitled to assume that all the detailed formalities for doing that act have been observed.

The doctrine of Indoor Management is important to persons dealing with a company through its directors or other persons. They are entitled to assume that the acts of the directors or other officers of the company are validly performed, if they are within the scope of their apparent authority. So long as an act is valid under the Articles, if done in a particular manner, an outsider dealing with the company is entitled to assume that it has been done in the manner required.

In the given question, Mr. Mohan has made payment to Mr. Ramesh and Mr. Ramesh gave to receipt of the same to Mr. Mohan. Thus, it will be rightful on part of Mr. Mohan to assume that Mr. Ramesh was also authorised to receive money on behalf of the company. Hence, Mr. Mohan will be free from liability for payment of goods purchased from Sunflower Limited, as he has paid amount due to an employee of the company.

(ii) **Foreign Company [Section 2(42) of the Companies Act, 2013]:** It means any company or body corporate incorporated outside India which—

- (i) has a place of business in India whether by itself or through an agent, physically or through electronic mode; and
- (ii) conducts any business activity in India in any other manner.

Since Mike Limited is a company incorporated in India, hence, it cannot be called as a foreign company. Even though, Liaison Office was officially established at Singapore, it would not be called as a foreign company as per the provisions of the Companies Act, 2013.

(c) **Mode of determining existence of partnership (Section 6 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932):** In determining whether a group of persons is or is not a firm, or whether a person is or not a partner in a firm, regard shall be had to the real relation between the parties, as shown by all relevant facts taken together.

For determining the existence of partnership, it must be proved.

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

1. **Agreement:** Partnership is created by agreement and not by status (Section 5). The relation of partnership arises from contract and not from status; and in particular, the members of a Hindu Undivided family carrying on a family business as such are not partners in such business.
 2. **Sharing of Profit:** Sharing of profit is an essential element to constitute a partnership. But, it is only a *prima facie* evidence and not conclusive evidence, in that regard. The sharing of profits or of gross returns accruing from property by persons holding joint or common interest in the property would not by itself make such persons partners. Although the right to participate in profits is a strong test of partnership, and there may be cases where, upon a simple participation in profits, there is a partnership, yet whether the relation does or does not exist must depend upon the whole contract between the parties.
 3. **Agency:** Existence of Mutual Agency which is the cardinal principle of partnership law, is very much helpful in reaching a conclusion in this regard. Each partner carrying on the business is the principal as well as an agent of other partners. So, the act of one partner done on behalf of firm, binds all the partners. If the elements of mutual agency relationship exist between the parties constituting a group formed with a view to earn profits by running a business, a partnership may be deemed to exist.
2. (a) (i) As per the provisions of Sub-Section (2) of Section 17 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, in a contract of sale by sample, there is an implied condition that:
- (a) the bulk shall correspond with the sample in quality;
 - (b) the buyer shall have a reasonable opportunity of comparing the bulk with the sample.
- In the instant case, in the light of the provisions of Sub-Clause (b) of Sub-Section (2) of Section 17 of the Act, Mrs. Seema will not be successful as she casually examined the sample of rice (which exactly corresponded to the entire lot) without noticing the fact that even though the sample was that of Basmati Rice but it contained a mix of long and short grains.
- (ii) **Sale by Sample (Section 17 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930):** As per the provisions of Sub-Section (1) of section 17 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, a contract of sale is a contract for sale by sample where there is a term in the contract, express or implied, to that effect.

As per the provisions of Sub-Section (2) of section 17 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, in a contract of sale by sample, there is an implied condition that:

- (a) that the bulk shall correspond with the sample in quality;
 - (b) that the buyer shall have a reasonable opportunity of comparing the bulk with the sample.
 - (c) that the goods shall be free from any defect, rendering them unmerchantable, which would not be apparent on reasonable examination of the sample.
- (iii) In case Mrs. Seema specified her exact requirement as to length of rice, then there is an implied condition that the goods shall correspond with the description. If it is not so, the seller will be held liable.
- (b) (i) **Listed company:** As per the definition given in the section 2(52) of the Companies Act, 2013, it is a company which has any of its securities listed on any recognised stock exchange.

Provided that such class of companies, which have listed or intend to list such class of securities, as may be prescribed in consultation with the Securities and Exchange Board, shall not be considered as listed companies.

Whereas the word securities as per section 2(81) of the Companies Act, 2013 has been assigned the same meaning as defined in clause (h) of section 2 of the Securities Contracts (Regulation) Act, 1956.

Unlisted company means company other than listed company.

- (ii) **In line with the Companies Act, 2013, following are the classification of the Companies on the basis of control:**

- (a) **Holding and subsidiary companies:** 'Holding and subsidiary' companies are relative terms.

A company is a holding company in relation to one or more other companies, means a company of which such companies are subsidiary companies. [Section 2(46)]

For the purposes of this clause, the expression "company" includes any body corporate.

Whereas section 2(87) defines “subsidiary company” in relation to any other company (that is to say the holding company), means a company in which the holding company—

- (i) controls the composition of the Board of Directors; or
- (ii) exercises or controls more than one-half of the total voting power either at its own or together with one or more of its subsidiary companies:

Provided that such class or classes of holding companies as may be prescribed shall not have layers of subsidiaries beyond such numbers as may be prescribed.

- (b) **Associate company [Section 2(6)]:** In relation to another company, means a company in which that other company has a significant influence, but which is not a subsidiary company of the company having such influence and includes a joint venture company.

Explanation. — For the purpose of this clause —

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

- (c) (i) **Partners (Section 5 of Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008):** Any individual or body corporate may be a partner in a LLP.

However, an individual shall not be capable of becoming a partner of a LLP, if—

- (a) he has been found to be of unsound mind by a Court of competent jurisdiction and the finding is in force;
- (b) he is an undischarged insolvent; or
- (c) he has applied to be adjudicated as an insolvent and his application is pending.

(ii) **Effect of registration (Section 14 of Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008):**

On registration, a LLP shall, by its name, be capable of—

- (a) suing and being sued;
- (b) acquiring, owning, holding and developing or disposing of property, whether movable or immovable, tangible or intangible;
- (c) having a common seal, if it decides to have one; and
- (d) doing and suffering such other acts and things as bodies corporate may lawfully do and suffer.

3. (a) (i) Section 40 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, gives right to the partners to dissolve the partnership by agreement with the consent of all the partners or in accordance with a contract between the partners. 'Contract between the partners' means a contract already made.

Also, according to section 44, the Court may, at the suit of a partner, may dissolve a firm on various grounds including where the business of the firm cannot be carried on except at a loss (in future also).

In the instant case, P wants to continue the partnership business despite the losses incurred over the past four years and Q and R are reluctant to continue operating the business due to continuous losses.

Here, P can insist on continuing the business if the partnership agreement does not specifically provide such a right to one or more partner / partners since Section 40 specifies that with the consent of all the partners or in accordance with a contract between the partners the firm can be dissolved.

Options available to Q and R

Mutual Agreement to Dissolve the Partnership: Q and R can propose to P that the partnership be dissolved by mutual agreement. If P agrees, the partnership can be dissolved amicably.

Dissolution by the Court: If P does not agree to dissolve the partnership mutually, Q and R can approach the court for an order under Section 44.

- (ii) According to Section 25 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, every partner is jointly and severally liable for all acts of the firm done while he is a partner.

As per section 26, the firm is liable to the same extent as the partner for any wrongful act or omission of a partner while acting:

- (a) in the ordinary course of the business of the firm, or
- (b) with the authority of the partners.

Section 27 provides that the firm is liable if a partner, acting within the scope of his apparent authority, receives money or property from a third party and misapplies it, or if the firm in the course of its business receives money or property and the same is misapplied while it is in the custody of the firm.

In the instant case, both A and B are liable to C for the wrongful acts committed by B. A cannot avoid liability merely on the grounds of being a sleeping partner.

- (b) (i) Under the Companies Act, 2013, a Government company is defined in Section 2(45) as a company in which not less than 51% of the paid-up share capital is held by:

- The Central Government, or
- Any State Government or Governments, or
- Partly by the Central Government and partly by one or more State Governments,

And includes a company which is a subsidiary company of such a Government company.

In the instant case, total **Government Shareholding is 40% [i.e. 20% (Government of India) + 10% (Government of Tamil Nadu) + 10% (Government of Rajasthan)] = 40%**

The holding of the Life Insurance Corporation of India i.e. 8% cannot be taken into account while counting the prescribed limit of 51%.

Since the total shareholding held by the Central Government and State Governments combined is 40%, which is less than 51%, XYZ Limited does not qualify to be a Government company under the provisions of the Companies Act, 2013.

- (ii) **One of the features of a company is that it has perpetual succession.**
As per this feature, members may die or change, but the company goes on till it is wound up on the grounds specified by the Companies Act, 2013.

The shares of the company may change hands infinitely but that does not affect the existence of the company. Since a company is an artificial person created by law, law alone can bring an end to its life. Its existence is not affected by the death or insolvency of its members.

In the instant case, on the death of M and N, who are holding 70% and 30% shares in the Company, the existence of the company is not affected, since the shares held by M and N will be legally transmitted to their legal heirs.

- (c) In terms of the provisions of the Indian Contract Act, 1872, the surety enjoys the following rights:
- (a) Rights against the creditor;
 - (b) Rights against the principal debtor;
 - (c) Rights against co-sureties.

Right against the Creditor

- (a) **Surety's right to benefit of creditor's securities [Section 141]:** A surety is entitled to the benefit of every security which the creditor has against the principal debtor at the time when the contract of suretyship is entered into, whether the surety knows of the existence of such security or not; and, if the creditor loses, or, without the consent of the surety, parts with such security, the surety is discharged to the extent of the value of the security.
- (b) **Right to set off:** If the creditor sues the surety, for payment of principal debtor's liability, the surety may have the benefit of the set off, if any, that the principal debtor had against the creditor.
- (c) **Right to share reduction:** The surety has right to claim proportionate reduction in his liability if the principal debtor becomes insolvent.

Right against the principal debtor

- (a) **Rights of subrogation [Section 140 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872]:** Where, a guaranteed debt has become due, or default of the principal debtor to perform a guaranteed duty has taken place, the surety, upon payment or performance of all that he is liable for, is invested with all the rights which the creditor had against the principal debtor.

This right is known as right of subrogation. It means that on payment of the guaranteed debt, or performance of the guaranteed duty, the surety steps into the shoes of the creditor.

- (b) **Implied promise to indemnify surety [Section 145]:** In every contract of guarantee there is an implied promise by the principal debtor to indemnify the surety. The surety is entitled to recover from the principal debtor whatever sum he has rightfully paid under the guarantee, but not sums which he paid wrongfully.

Rights against co-sureties

“Co-sureties (meaning)- When the same debt or duty is guaranteed by two or more persons, such persons are called co-sureties”.

- (a) **Co-sureties liable to contribute equally (Section 146):** Unless otherwise agreed, each surety is liable to contribute equally for discharge of whole debt or part of the debt remains unpaid by debtor.
 - (b) **Liability of co-sureties bound in different sums (Section 147):** The principal of equal contribution is, however, subject to the maximum limit fixed by a surety to his liability. Co-sureties who are bound in different sums are liable to pay equally as far as the limits of their respective obligations permit.
4. (a) (i) **Subsequent or Supervening impossibility (Becomes impossible after entering into contract):** When performance of promise become impossible or illegal by occurrence of an unexpected event or a change of circumstances beyond the contemplation of parties, the contract becomes void e.g. change in law etc.

Also, according to section 65 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872, when an agreement is discovered to be void or when a contract becomes void, any person who has received any advantage under such agreement or contract is bound to restore it, or to make compensation for it to the person from whom he received it.

In the given question, after Mr. Gaurav and Mr. Vikas have entered into the contract to supply 100 tons of sugar, the event of flood occurred which made it impossible to deliver the sugar within the stipulated time. Thus, the promise in question became void. Further, Mr. Gaurav has to pay back the amount of ₹ 70,000 that he received from Mr. Vikas as an advance for the supply of sugar within the stipulated time. Hence, the contention of Mr. Vikas is correct.

- (ii) Section 161 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 clearly says that where a bailee fails to return the goods within the agreed time, he shall be responsible to the bailor for any loss, destruction or deterioration of the

goods from that time notwithstanding the exercise of reasonable care on his part. Hence, in the instant case, M shall have to bear the loss since he failed to return the umbrella within the stipulated time.

(b) CHEQUE [Section 6 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881]

A “cheque” is a bill of exchange drawn on a specified banker and not expressed to be payable otherwise than on demand and it includes the electronic image of a truncated cheque and a cheque in the electronic form.

Parties to Cheque

1. **Drawer:** The person who draws a cheque i.e., makes the cheque (Debtor). His liability is primary and conditional.
2. **Drawee:** The specific bank on whom cheque is drawn. He makes the payment of the cheque. In case of cheque, drawee is always banker.
3. **Payee:** The person named in the instrument (i.e., the person in whose favour cheque is issued), to whom or to whose order the money is, by the instrument, directed to be paid, is called the payee. The payee may be the drawer himself or a third party.

Essential Characteristics of a cheque

According to the definition of cheque under section 6, a cheque is a species of bill of exchange. Thus, it should fulfil:

- a. all the essential characteristics of a bill of exchange
- b. Must be drawn on a specified banker.
- c. It must be payable on demand.

(c) When there is a dispute between citizens or between citizens and the Government, these disputes are resolved by the judiciary.

The functions of judiciary system of India are:

- Regulation of the interpretation of the Acts and Codes,
- Dispute Resolution,
- Promotion of fairness among the citizens of the land.

In the hierarchy of courts, the Supreme Court is at the top, followed by the High Courts and District Courts. Decisions of a High Court are binding in the respective state but are only persuasive in other states. Decisions of the Supreme Court are

binding on all High Courts under Article 141 of the Indian Constitution. In fact, a Supreme Court decision is the final word on the matter.

(i) Supreme Court

The Supreme Court is the apex body of the judiciary. The Chief Justice of India is the highest authority appointed under Article 126. The principal bench of the Supreme Court consists of seven members including the Chief Justice of India.

(ii) High Court

The highest court of appeal in each state and union territory is the High Court. Article 214 of the Indian Constitution states that there must be a High Court in each state. The High Court has appellate, original jurisdiction, and Supervisory jurisdiction. However, Article 227 of the Indian Constitution limits a High Court's supervisory power.

(iii) District Court

Below the High Courts are the District Courts. The Courts of District Judge deal with Civil law matters i.e. contractual disputes and claims for damages etc., The Courts of Sessions deals with Criminal matters.

Under pecuniary jurisdiction, a civil judge can try suits valuing not more than Rupees two crore.

(iv) Metropolitan courts

Metropolitan courts are established in metropolitan cities in consultation with the High Court where the population is ten lakh or more. Chief Metropolitan Magistrate has powers as Chief Judicial Magistrate and Metropolitan Magistrate has powers as the Court of a Magistrate of the first class.

5. (a) (i) By virtue of provisions of Section 64 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, in case of auction sale, the sale is complete when the auctioneer announces its completion by the fall of the hammer or in some other customary manner.

In the instant case, Deepa gives the highest bid in the auction for the sale of an antic wall clock arranged by Rachit. While announcing the completion of sale by fall of hammer on the table, hammer brakes and damages the clock.

On the basis of the above provisions, it can be concluded that the sale by auction cannot be completed until hammer comes in its normal position after falling on table. Hence, in the given problem, sale is not completed. Deepa will not be liable for loss and can avoid the contract.

- (ii) Payment of the price by the buyer is an important ingredient of a contract of sale. If the parties totally ignore the question of price while making the contract, it will not become an uncertain and invalid agreement. It will rather be a valid contract and the buyer shall pay a reasonable price. (Section 9 and section 10 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930)

In the given case, X and Y have entered into a contract for sale of car but they did not fix the price of the car. X refused to sell the car to Y on this ground. Y can legally demand the car from X and X can recover a reasonable price of the car from Y.

- (b) **“Partner indeed virtually embraces the character of both a principal and an agent”**: Subject to the provisions of section 18 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, a partner is the agent of the firm for the purposes of the business of the firm.

A partnership is the relationship between the partners who have agreed to share the profits of the business carried on by all or any of them acting for all (Section 4). This definition suggests that any of the partners can be the agent of the others.

Section 18 clarifies this position by providing that, subject to the provisions of the Act, a partner is the agent of the firm for the purpose of the business of the firm. The partner indeed virtually embraces the character of both a principal and an agent. So far as he acts for himself and in his own interest in the common concern of the partnership, he may properly be deemed as a principal and so far as he acts for his partners, he may properly be deemed as an agent.

The principal distinction between him and a mere agent is that he has a community of interest with other partners in the whole property and business and liabilities of partnership, whereas an agent as such has no interest in either.

The rule that a partner is the agent of the firm for the purpose of the business of the firm cannot be applied to all transactions and dealings between the partners themselves. It is applicable only to the act done by partners for the purpose of the business of the firm.

- (c) **Essential elements of a contract of bailment**: Section 148 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 defines the term ‘Bailment’. A ‘bailment’ is the delivery of goods by one person to another for some purpose upon a contract that they shall, when

the purpose is accomplished, be returned or otherwise disposed of according to the directions of the person delivering them. The essential elements of the contract of the bailment are:

- (i) *Contract*: Bailment is based upon a contract. The contract may be express or implied. No consideration is necessary to create a valid contract of bailment.
- (ii) *Delivery of goods*: It involves the delivery of goods from one person to another for some purposes. Bailment is only for moveable goods and never for immovable goods or money.
- (iii) *Purpose*: The goods are delivered for some purpose. The purpose may be express or implied.
- (iv) *Possession*: In bailment, possession of goods changes. Change of possession can happen by physical delivery or by any action which has the effect of placing the goods in the possession of bailee. The change of possession does not lead to change of ownership. In bailment, bailor continues to be the owner of goods.
- (v) *Return of goods*: Bailee is obliged to return the goods physically to the bailor. The goods should be returned in the same form as given or may be altered as per bailor's direction.

6. (a) (i) Importance of Delivery in Negotiation [Section 46 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881]

Delivery of an instrument is essential whether the instrument is payable to bearer or order for effecting the negotiation. The delivery must be voluntary, and the object of delivery should be to pass the property in the instrument to the person to whom it is delivered. The delivery can be, actual or constructive. Actual delivery takes place when the instrument changes hand physically. Constructive delivery takes place when the instrument is delivered to the agent, clerk or servant of the indorsee on his behalf or when the indorser, after indorsement, holds the instrument as an agent of the indorsee.

Section 46 also lays down that when an instrument is conditionally or for a special purpose only, the property in it does not pass to the transferee, even though it is indorsed to him, unless the instrument is negotiated to a holder in due course.

The contract on a negotiable instrument until delivery remains incomplete and revocable. Delivery is essential not only at the time of negotiation but also at the time of making or drawing of negotiable instrument. The rights in the instrument are not transferred to the indorsee unless after the indorsement the same has been delivered. If a person makes the indorsement of instrument but before the same could be delivered to the indorsee, the indorser dies, the legal representatives of the deceased person cannot negotiate the same by mere delivery thereof. (Section 57).

In the instant case, Ankit the only son of Gagan delivered the bill to Akash on the next day as intended by his deceased father (Gagan) which is not valid.

Hence, Akash cannot enforce the payment of the bill against Baban or the previous parties.

- (ii) **As per section 11 of the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881, a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque drawn or made in India and made payable in, or drawn upon any person resident in India shall be deemed to be an inland instrument.**

In the instant case, the bill of exchange was:

- Drawn in India (since it was drawn by Reliable Limited, an Indian company).
- Accepted in India (Manish, a resident of Mumbai, accepted the bill in Mumbai).
- Payable outside India, in Los Angeles, USA.

The bill of exchange in this case is an inland instrument because it was drawn in India and accepted by a person resident in India, even though it is payable outside India (Los Angeles, USA).

(b) Definition of Fraud under Section 17 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872:

'Fraud' means and includes any of the following acts committed by a party to a contract, or with his connivance, or by his agent, with an intent to deceive another party thereto or his agent, or to induce him to enter into the contract:

- (1) the suggestion, as a fact, of that which is not true, by one who does not believe it to be true;
- (2) the active concealment of a fact by one having knowledge or belief of the fact;

- (3) a promise made without any intention of performing it;
- (4) any other act fitted to deceive;
- (5) any such act or omission as the law specially declares to be fraudulent.

According to Section 18, there is misrepresentation:

- (1) Statement of fact, which of false, would constitute misrepresentation if the maker believes it to be true but which is not justified by the information he possesses;
- (2) When there is a breach of duty by a person without any intention to deceive which brings an advantage to him;
- (3) When a party causes, even though done innocently, the other party to the agreement to make a mistake as to the subject matter.

Distinction between fraud and misrepresentation:

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

OR

(b) Essentials of a contingent contract

- (a) **The performance of a contingent contract would depend upon the happening or non-happening of some event or condition.** The condition may be precedent or subsequent.

- (b) **The event referred to as collateral to the contract.** The event is not part of the contract. The event should be neither performance promised nor a consideration for a promise.
- (c) **The contingent event should not be a mere 'will' of the promisor.** The event should be contingent in addition to being the will of the promisor.
- (d) **The event must be uncertain.** Where the event is certain or bound to happen, the contract is due to be performed, then it is a not contingent contract.

Definition of 'Contingent Contract' (Section 31 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872)

"A contract to do or not to do something, if some event, collateral to such contract, does or does not happen".

Rules Relating to Enforcement of a contingent contract:

The rules relating to enforcement of a contingent contract are laid down in **sections 32, 33, 34, 35 and 36 of the Act.**

- (a) **Enforcement of contracts contingent on an event happening:** Section 32 says that "where a contingent contract is made to do or not to do anything if an uncertain future event happens, it cannot be enforced by law unless and until that event has happened. If the event becomes impossible, such contracts become void".
- (b) **Enforcement of contracts contingent on an event not happening:** Section 33 says that "Where a contingent contract is made to do or not do anything if an uncertain future event does not happen, it can be enforced only when the happening of that event becomes impossible and not before".
- (c) **A contract would cease to be enforceable if it is contingent upon the conduct of a living person when that living person does something to make the 'event' or 'conduct' as impossible of happening.**

Section 34 says that "if a contract is contingent upon as to how a person will act at an unspecified time, the event shall be considered to have become impossible when such person does anything which renders it impossible that he should so act within any definite time or otherwise than under further contingencies".

- (d) **Contingent on happening of specified event within the fixed time:**
Section 35 says that Contingent contracts to do or not to do anything, if a specified uncertain event happens within a fixed time, becomes void if, at the expiration of time fixed, such event has not happened, or if, before the time fixed, such event becomes impossible.
 - (e) **Contingent on specified event not happening within fixed time:**
Section 35 also says that - "Contingent contracts to do or not to do anything, if a specified uncertain event does not happen within a fixed time, may be enforced by law when the time fixed has expired, and such event has not happened or before the time fixed has expired, if it becomes certain that such event will not happen".
 - (f) **Contingent on an impossible event (Section 36):** Contingent agreements to do or not to do anything, if an impossible event happens are void, whether the impossibility of the event is known or not to the parties to the agreement at the time when it is made.
- (c) According to Section 24 of the Sales of Goods Act, 1930, in case of delivery of goods on approval basis, the property in goods passes from seller to the buyer:-
- (i) When the person to whom the goods are given either accepts them or does an act which implies adopting the transaction.
 - (ii) When the person to whom the goods are given retains the goods without giving his approval or giving notice of rejection beyond the time fixed for the return of goods and in case no time is fixed after the lapse of reasonable time.

In the given case, J (seller) has delivered on approval 100 bags of rice of 10 kg each to local retailer (buyer) on sale or returnable basis within a month of delivery. Out of these 100 bags, the local retailer sold 5 bags to K (customer). It implies that the local retailer has accepted 5 bags out of 100.

A week later, local retailer received the complaint of some defect in the rice bags, so, he wanted to return all the bags to the J (seller).

According to the above provisions, the local retailer is entitled to return only 95 bags to the J (seller) and not those 4 bags which are not used by K. Because, as per clause (i) above, the local retailer has already sold 5 bags, signifying that he has done an act which implies adopting the transaction relating to those 5 bags.