

**CA - IPCC**  
**November 2012**

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**Ans.1(a)**

**X Ltd.**

**Calculation of Degree of operating leverage**

Particulars	25,000 units	30,000 units
Sales	35,0000	42,0000
– V.C.	22,5000	27,0000
Contribution	1,25,000	1,50,000
– F.C. (W.N.)	1,00,000	1,00,000
EBIT	25,000	50,000
 D.O.L = $\frac{\text{Con't}}{\text{EBIT}}$	 = $\frac{1,25,000}{25,000}$	 = $\frac{1,50,000}{50,000}$
	= 5 times	= 3 times

Working Note :- We know that at BEP ; C = FC  
∴ F. C. = 20,000 × 5 = ₹ 1,00,000

**Ans.1(b)**

Labour Turnover (under Replacement Method) =  $\frac{\text{No. of workers replaced}}{\text{Average no. of workers}} \times 100$

8 =  $\frac{36}{\text{Average no. of workers}}$

Average no. of workers =  $\frac{36}{8} \times 100 = 450$

Labour Turnover (Under Separation method) =  $\frac{\text{No. of workers separated}}{\text{Average no. of workers}} \times 100$

6 =  $\frac{\text{No. of workers separated}}{450} \times 100$

No. of workers separated = 450 × 6 = 27

Labour Turnover (Under Flux Method) =  $\frac{\text{No. of Accession} + \text{No. of separation}}{\text{Average no. of workers}}$

14 =  $\frac{\text{No. of Accession} + 27}{450} \times 100$

No. of Accession = 63 – 27 = 36

⇒ No. of Workers Recruited & Joined = 36

⇒ No. of Workers Left & discharged = 27

**Ans.1(c)**

(i) Annual Compounding

F.V. = P (1+r)<sup>n</sup>

F.V. = 2,40,000 (1.10)<sup>3</sup> = 3,19,440

(ii) Semi-Annual Compounding

F.V = P  $\left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{n \times m}$

∴ F.V. = 2,40,000  $\left(1 + \frac{.10}{2}\right)^{3 \times 2}$  = 2,40,000 (1.05)<sup>6</sup> = 3,21,623

**Ans.1(d)** Annual Demand of Product = 8,000 x 4 = 32,000 unit  
 Annual Demand of Raw Material = 32,000 unit x 3 = 96,000 unit  
 A = 96,000 unit  
 O = ₹ 1,000 C  
 C = 20 x 15% = ₹ 3

(i)  $EOQ = \sqrt{\frac{2AO}{C}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 96,000 \times 1,000}{3}} = 8,000 \text{ unit}$

(iii) Purchase in Quarterly installment means 96,000 / 4 = 24,000

Particulars	8,000 Units	24,000 Units
Purchase Cost = A × C	96,000 = 19,20,000	96,000 = 18,81,600
Ordering Cost = No. of Order × O	$\frac{96,000}{8,000} \times 1,000 = 12,000$	$\frac{96,000}{24,000} \times 1,000 = 4,000$
Carrying Cost = ½ Order Size × C	$\frac{1}{2} \times 8,000 \times 3 = 12,000$	$\frac{1}{2} \times 24,000 \times 2.94 = 35,280$
Total Cost	19,44,000	19,20,880

⇒ Discount Offer of 2% should be accepted

**Ans.2(a)**

Items	Basis	X	Y	Z	A	B
Indirect Material	Given	20,000	30,000	45,000	25,000	5,000
Indirect Labour	Given	45,000	50,000	70,000	60,000	35,000
Superintendant Salary	Given	--	--	96,000	--	--
Fuel & Heat	Radiator Sections	1,500	3,000	4,500	3,750	2,250
Power	KWH	52,500	60,000	45,000	22,500	--
Rent & Rates	Area	44,000	40,000	30,000	24,000	12,000
Insurance	Value of Assets	4,000	6,000	5,000	1,000	2,000
Meal	No. of Employees	12,000	14,000	24,000	6,000	4,000
Depreciation	Value of Asset	60,000	90,000	75,000	15,000	30,000
		2,39,000	2,93,000	3,94,500	1,57,250	90,250

Let total overhead of Dept. A be x and Dept B be y

$x = 1,57,250 + 10\% \text{ of } y$

$y = 90,250 + 20\% \text{ of } x$

or  $x = 1,57,250 + 0.1 y$

or  $x - 0.1y = 1,57,250$  ----- (i)

$y = 90,250 + 0.2x$

$y - 0.2x = 90,250$

$0.1y - 0.02x = 9,025$

----- (ii) (Multiplying both side by 0.1)

Solving the above Equation (i) & (ii), we get:

$x - 0.1y = 1,57,250$

$- 0.02x + 0.1y = 9,025$

$0.98x = 1,66,275$

$x = \frac{1,66,275}{0.98} = 1,69,668$

Now Putting the value of x in Eq (i)

$1,69,668 - 0.1y = 1,57,250 \Rightarrow 0.1y = 1,69,668 - 1,57,250 \Rightarrow 0.1y = 12,418 \Rightarrow y = \frac{12,418}{0.1} = 1,24,180$

Distribution of Service Department Overhead to Production Department

Particulars	x	Y	Z
Overhead	2,39,000	2,93,000	3,94,500
Distribution of Overhead of A	50,900	50,900	33,934
Distribution of Overhead of B	31,045	49,672	31,045
Total	3,20,945	3,93,572	4,59,479

**Ans.2(b)** Calculation of ratios of M Ltd.

**Working Notes**

Sales ₹ 30,00,000

Let credit sales be x

Cash sales = .25 x

Total Sales = Cash Sales + Credit Sales

∴ x + .25 x = ₹ 30,00,000

∴ Cash Sales = ₹ 60,000

& Credit sales = ₹ 2,40,000

Gross profit Ratio = 25 %

∴ G.P. = ₹ 7,50,000

& COGS = ₹ 22,50,000

(i) Inventory Turnover Ratio =  $\frac{\text{COGS}}{\text{Average Stock}}$

∴ Average stock =  $\frac{22,50,000}{6}$

∴ Average Stock = 3,75,000

(ii) Purchase = COGS + Closing Stock – Opening Stock

Closing Stock is ₹ 80,000 more than Opening Stock

∴ Purchase = 22,50,000 + 80,000

= 23,30,000

(iii) Debtors Turnover Ratio =  $\frac{\text{Net Credit Sales}}{\text{Average Debtors}}$

∴ Average Debtors =  $\frac{24,00,000}{8} = ₹ 3,00,000$

(iv) Creditors Turnover Ratio =  $\frac{\text{Net Credit Purchase}}{\text{Average Creditors}}$

∴ Average Creditors =  $\frac{21,00,000}{10} = ₹ 2,10,000$

Note : Credit purchase = Total Purchase – Cash Purchase = 23,30,000 – 2,30,000 = 21,00,000

(v) Average Payment Period =  $\frac{360}{\text{Creditors Turnover Ratio}}$

=  $\frac{360}{10} = 36 \text{ Days}$

(vi) Average Collection Period =  $\frac{360}{\text{Debtors Turnover Ratio}}$

=  $\frac{360}{8} = 45 \text{ days}$

(vii) Current Assets are 2.4 times of C.L.

∴ C.A. = ₹ 4,80,000

(viii) Current liabilities =  $\frac{\text{W.C.}}{\text{C.R.} - 1} = \frac{2,80,000}{2.4 - 1} = 2,00,000$

Ans.3(a)

**JKM Ltd**

**(A) Schedule of changes in working capital**

<b>Particulars</b>	<b>Prev. year</b>	<b>Currt. year</b>
<b>Current Assets</b>		
Stock	8,60,000	12,70,000
Debtors	10,20,000	13,00,000
Bills Receivables	1,00,000	70,000
Cash & Bank	7,20,000	8,90,000
<b>Total C.A.</b>	<b><u>27,00,000</u></b>	<b><u>35,30,000</u></b>
<b>Current Liab</b>		
Bills payable	2,00,000	1,80,000
Creditors	<u>3,50,000</u>	<u>4,60,000</u>
<b>Total C.L.</b>	<b><u>5,50,000</u></b>	<b><u>6,40,000</u></b>
Net Working Capital	21,50,000	28,90,000
Increase in WC	7,40,000	

**(B) Fund Flows Statment as on 31.3.2012**

<b>Sources</b>	<b>Amount</b>	<b>Application</b>	<b>Amount</b>
Fund from Operation	26,15,000	Increase in WC	7,40,000
Sale of Machine	15,000	Purchase of Machine	13,70,000
Sale of Land & Build	4,00,000	Purchase of Investment	1,65,000
Dividend Received	40,000	Tax paid	3,80,000
Equity Shres issued	5,00,000	Interim Dividend Paid	2,50,000
		Dividend Paid	8,00,000
	<b>37,05,000</b>		<b>37,05,000</b>

**Fund from operations**

<b>P &amp; L Adjustment A/c</b>			
To Loss on sale of Machine	20,000	By Balance b/d	5,30,000
To Dep. on Machine	3,00,000	By Dividend	25,000
To Dep. on L & B	50,000	By FFO (B/F)	26,15,000
To Interim Dividend	2,50,000		
To Prov. for Tax	4,80,000		
To Proposed Dividend	11,00,000		
To Goodwill W/O	80,000		
To Share issue Exp	20,000		
To Tr to G.R.	2,00,000		
To Balance c/d	6,70,000		
	<b>31,70,000</b>		<b>31,70,000</b>

<b>Plant &amp; Machinery A/c</b>		<b>Income Tax A/c</b>	
To Bal.	2200000	To Bank	380000
To Bank	1370000	By Bank	400000
		By P & L	480000
		To Bal.	500000
			880000
	3570000		880000
	3570000		

<b>Land &amp; Building A/c</b>		<b>Investment A/c</b>	
To Bal.	2000000	To Bal.	200000
To Bank	250000	By Bank	15000
		By P & L	350000
		To Bank	165000
	2250000		365000
	2250000		365000

**Ans.3(b)**

Computation of Estimated Profit

Particulars	Amount
Contract Price	15,30,000
Less: Cost till date	8,50,000
Less: Further Estimated Cost	1,70,000
	5,10,000

Computation of Notional Profit

Particulars	Amount
Work Certified	10,00,000
Work Uncertified	85,000
Less: Cost up to date	8,50,000
	2,35,000

**Stage of Completion:**

$$= \frac{\text{Work Certified}}{\text{Contract Price}} \times 100 = \frac{10,00,000}{15,30,000} \times 100 = 65.36\%$$

**Profit transferred to Profit & Loss A/c**

$$= \text{Notional Profit} \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{\text{Cash Received}}{\text{Work Certified}} = 2,35,000 \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{8,16,000}{10,00,000} = 1,27,840$$

**Fours Methods of Transferring Profit to Profit & Loss A/c Based on Estimated Profit:**

1. Estimated Profit  $\times \frac{\text{Work Certified}}{\text{Contract Price}} \times \frac{\text{Cash Received}}{\text{Work Certified}}$

$$= 5,10,000 \times \frac{10,00,000}{15,30,000} \times \frac{8,16,000}{10,00,000} = 2,72,000$$

2. Estimated Profit  $\times \frac{\text{Cost till date}}{\text{Total Estimated Cost}}$

$$= 5,10,000 \times \frac{8,50,000}{10,20,000} = 4,25,000$$

3. Estimated Profit  $\times \frac{\text{Work Certified}}{\text{Contract Price}}$

$$= 5,10,000 \times \frac{10,00,000}{15,30,000} = 3,33,333$$

4. Estimated Profit  $\times \frac{\text{Cost till date}}{\text{Total Estimated Cost}} \times \frac{\text{Cash Received}}{\text{Work Certified}}$

$$= 5,10,000 \times \frac{8,50,000}{10,20,000} \times \frac{8,16,000}{10,00,000} = 3,46,800$$

**Ans. 4(a). Data for labour variance**

Budget (2000 unit)			Standard (1800 unit)			Actual (1800 unit)			
Hour	Rate	Amount	Hour	Rate	Amount	Hour	Rate	Amount	
Skilled	2,600	45	1,17,000	2,340	45	1,05,300	1900	50	95,000
							100	50	5,000
S. Skilled	800	30	24,000	720	30	21,600	1140	35	39,900
							60	35	2,100
U. Skilled	600	15	9,000	540	15	8,100	760	10	7,600
							40	10	400
						1,35,000			1,50,000

**Calculate of labour Variance**

Particulars	Skilled	S. Skilled	U. Skilled	Total
(i) LCV = (SC – AC) = 5,300(F)	1,05,300 – 1,00,000	21,600 – 42,000	8,100 – 8,000	15,000 (A)
(ii) LEV =(Std hour -Actual Working hour) SR = 19,800 (F)	(2,340 – 1,900) 45	(720 – 1140) 30	(540 – 760) 15	3,900 (F)
(iii) ITV = Idle time × SR = 4,500 (A)	100 × 45 = 4,500 (A)	60 × 30 = 1,800(A)	40 × 15 = 600(A)	6,900 (A)

**Ans.4(b)** Evaluation of alternatives

<u>Particulars</u>		<b>MACHINES</b>	
		<u>NM – A1</u>	<u>NM – A2</u>
Cost of Machine	Rs.	2000000	2500000
<b><u>PBDT</u></b>			
Estimated saving in Direct wages	Rs.	700000	900000
Estimated saving in Scrap	Rs.	60000	100000
<b><u>Cost of</u></b>			
Indirect Mat	Rs.	(30000)	(90000)
Indirect Labour	Rs.	(40000)	(50000)
Repair & M	Rs.	(45000)	(85000)
PBDT		645000	775000
– Depreciation		400000	500000
PBT		245000	275000
– Lax @		73500	82500
PAT		171500	192500
+ Depreciation		400000	500000
CFAT		<b>571500</b>	<b>692500</b>

(i) Pay Back period =  $\frac{\text{Initial Cost}}{\text{CFAT}}$

NM – A1 =  $\frac{2000000}{571500} = 3.50 \text{ yrs}$

NM – A2 =  $\frac{2500000}{692500} = 3.61 \text{ yrs}$

(ii) Accounting / Average Rate of Return

$$\text{ARR} = \frac{\text{Avg. Annual Profit After Tax}}{\text{Avg. Investment}} \times 100$$

$$\text{NM-A1} = \frac{171500}{1000000} \times 100 = 17.15\%$$

$$\text{Average Investment} = \frac{2000000 + 0}{2} = 1000000$$

$$\text{NM-A2} = \frac{192500}{1250000} \times 100 = 15.40\%$$

$$\text{Average Investment} = \frac{25000000 + 0}{2} = 12500000$$

(iii) Profitability index =  $\frac{\text{PVIF}}{\text{PVOF}}$

**NM - A1**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PVIF} &= \text{CFAT} \times \text{SPVf @ 12\%} \\ &= 571500 \times 3.605 = 2060258 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{PI} = \frac{2060258}{2000000} = 1.03$$

**NM - A2** PVIF = 692500 × 3.605 = 2496463

$$\therefore \text{PI} = \frac{2496463}{2500000} = 0.99$$

**Conclusion** : Machine NM - A1 should be preferred as it is better in all the methods calculated above.

**Ans.5(a)** A good Costing System will consist of the following characteristics:

- (i) The Costing system adopted in a particular organization must suit its nature and size of business and its information needs.
- (ii) The Costing System must be economical to the organization and the benefits derived from the system should be more than its cost of installation and operation.
- (iii) The system should be more flexible enough to take care of changing business situations and information needs of the organization.
- (iv) The system should be simple to understand and easy to operate. The users of costing data should be convinced of the Costing System from which the data is derived.
- (v) The Costing System should ensure proper accounting for materials, labour and overheads and proper classification of transactions should be done at the level of recording.
- (vi) Adoption of Activity Based Costing System will increase the accuracy in allocation, apportionment and absorption of overheads, which leads to correct ascertainment of cost per unit of product or service.
- (vii) Integration of Financial Accounting and Cost Accounting Systems will avoid duplication of work. The financial and cost accounts should be interlocked together and should be reconciled periodically.
- (viii) The Costing System should clearly mention the details of records to be maintained and the degree of accuracy of data required.
- (ix) Before devising a Costing System, the need and objectives of the system should be identified.

**Ans.5(b). Inter Process Profits**

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

**Advantages:**

- It helps in the computation of costs at shorter intervals, which is usually a week, a fortnight or a month.
- It ensures a closer control over production and costs.
- Controls can be exercised through standard costing technique and it is possible to evaluate the performance of every process.

**Disadvantages:**

- When costs are recorded at the end of the period, it is not possible to exercise control over costs.
- It is difficult to apportion total cost among joint products and bye-products.
- There is also the difficulty of ascertaining the value of closing stock where output of one process is transferred to another process at market price.

**Ans.5(c). Operating Costing**

Operating costing is also known as Service costing is used for establishing costs of services rendered or services offered for sale and no items are produced. Operating costing is used in services organization like transport companies, hotels, hospitals, power generation, college, boiler houses etc. The method of costing is similar to output costing.

**Operating Cost Unit**

All the costs incurred during a period are collected and analyzed and then expressed in terms of a cost per unit of service. The cost unit to be applied needs to be defined carefully and it is frequently a composite figure such as tonne-kilometer, kilowatt-hour, patient day etc.

composite cost units contains more than one variable.

**Ans.5(d)** While choosing a suitable financing pattern, certain fundamental principles should be kept in mind, which are discussed below:

- (a) Cost Principle:** According to this principle, an ideal pattern or capital structure is one that minimises cost of capital structure and maximises earnings per share (EPS). For e.g. Debt capital is cheaper than equity capital from the point of its cost and interest being deductible for income tax purpose, whereas no such deduction is allowed for dividends.
- (b) Risk Principle:** According to this principle, reliance is placed more on common equity for financing capital requirements than excessive use of debt. Use of more and more debt means higher commitment in form of interest payout. This would lead to erosion of shareholders value in unfavourable business situation. There are two risks associated with this principle: Business Risk and Financial Risk.
- (c) Control Principle:** While designing a capital structure, the finance manager may also keep in mind that existing management control and ownership remains undisturbed. Issue of new equity will dilute existing control pattern and also it involves higher cost. Issue of more debt causes no dilution in control, but causes a higher degree of financial risk.
- (d) Flexibility Principle:** By flexibility it means that the management chooses such a combination of sources of financing which it finds easier to adjust according to changes in need of funds in future too. While debt could be interchanged (If the company is loaded with a debt of 18% and funds are available at 15%, it can return old debt with new debt, at a lesser interest rate), but the same option may not be available in case of equity investment.
- (e) Other Considerations:** Besides above principles, other factors such as nature of industry, timing of issue and competition in the industry should also be considered. Industries facing severe competition also resort to more equity than debt. Thus a finance manager in designing a suitable pattern of capital structure must bring about satisfactory compromise between the above principles. The compromise can be reached by assigning weights to these principles in terms of various characteristics of the company.

**Ans.6(a).**

- |      |           |   |   |
|------|-----------|---|---|
| (a)  | Sales     |   | = 24000 unit @ ₹ 200<br>= ₹ 48,00,000                       |
|      | BEP       |   | = 50% × Sales = 50% × ₹ 48,00,000 = ₹ 24,00,000             |
| (i)  | BEP       | = | $\frac{FC}{PV \text{ Ratio}}$                               |
|      | 24,00,000 | = | $\frac{FC}{25\%}$   |
|      | FC        | = | 6,00,000  |
| (ii) | M/S Sale  | = | Sales – BE Sale<br>= 48,00,000 – 24,00,000<br>= ₹ 24,00,000 |
|      | Profit    | = | M/S Sale × PV Ratio = ₹ 24,00,000 × 25% = ₹ 6,00,000        |

(iii) Profit = M/S Sale × PV Ratio  
 11,00,000 = M/S Sale × 25%  
 M/S Sale = 44,00,000  
 Total Sale = BE Sale + M/S Sale  
 = 24,00,000 + 44,00,000 = 68,00,000

Sale unit =  $\frac{68,00,000}{200} = 34,0000$

(iv) Let the Sale unit be x  
 Sale – VC – FC = Profit  
 200x – 150x – 6,00,000 = .25 (150x + 6,00,000)  
 50x – 6,00,000 = 37.5x + 1,50,000  
 50x – 37.5x = 7,50,000  
 12.5x = 7,50,000  
 x = 60,000

(v) New BEP = 12000 unit – 4000 unit = 8,000 unit

BEP =  $\frac{FC}{\text{Contribution p.u.}}$

8000 =  $\frac{6,00,000}{\text{Contribution p.u.}}$

Contribution p.u. = 75

SP = VC p.u. + Cost. p.u. = 150 + 75 = ₹ 225

**Ans.6(b)**

Reconciliation Statement	Amount (₹)	Amount (₹)
Profit as per Cost Books		(35,400)
Add: Over recovery of factory Overhead	1,35,000	
Dividend Received	20,000	
Bank Interest	13,600	
Overvaluation of opening stock in Cost Book	20,000	
Undervaluation of closing Stock in Cost Book	6,500	
Notional Rent charged in Cost A/c	60,000	2,55,100
Less: Under recovery of Administrative Overhead	25,500	
Depreciation undercharged in Cost Accounts	26,000	
Loss due to obsolescence charged in financial Accounts	16,800	
Income Tax Paid	43,600	
Goodwill written off	25,000	
Provision for Doubtful Debt	15,000	(1,51,900)
Net Profit as per Financial Books		67,800

**Ans.7(a)** Conflicts in Profit versus Value Maximisation Principle

In any company, the management is the decision taking authority. As a normal tendency the management may pursue its own personal goals (profit maximization). But in an organization where there is a significant outside participation (shareholding, lenders etc.), the management may not be able to exclusively pursue its personal goals due to the constant supervision of the various stakeholders of the company-employees, creditors, customers, government, etc. Every entity associated with the company will evaluate the performance of the management from the fulfillment of its own objective. The survival of the management will be threatened if the objective of any of the entities remains unfulfilled.

The wealth maximization objective is generally in accord with the interests of the various groups such as owners, employees, creditors and society, and thus, it may be consistent with the management objective of survival. Owing to limitation (timing, social consideration etc.) in profit maximization, in today's real world situations which is uncertain and multi-period in nature, wealth maximization is a better objective. Where the time period is short and degree of uncertainty is not great, wealth maximization and profit maximization amount to essentially the same.

The table below highlights some of the advantages and disadvantages of both profit maximization and wealth maximization goals:-

<b>Goal</b>	<b>Objective</b>	<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Profit Maximization	Large amount of profits	(i) Easy to calculate profits (ii) Easy to determine the link between financial decisions and profits.	(i) Emphasizes the short term gains (ii) Ignores risk or uncertainty (iii) Ignores the timing of returns (iv) Requires immediate resources.
Shareholders Wealth Maximisation	Highest market value of shares.	(i) Emphasizes the long term gains (ii) Recognises risk or uncertainty (iii) Recognises the timing of returns (iv) Considers shareholders' return.	(i) Offers no clear relationship between financial decisions and share price. (ii) Can lead to management anxiety and frustration.

**Q.7(b)** Capital expenditure budget

The capital expenditure budget represents the planned outlay on fixed assets like land, building, plant and machinery, etc. during the budget period. This budget is subject to strict management control because it entails large amount of expenditure. The budget is prepared to cover a long period of years and it projects the capital costs over the period in which the expenditure is to be incurred and the expected earnings.

The preparation of this budget is based on the following considerations :

1. Overhead on production facilities of certain departments as indicated by the plant utilisation budget.
2. Future development plans to increase output by expansion of plant facilities.
3. Replacement requests from the concerned departments
4. Factors like sales potential to absorb the increased output, possibility of price reductions, increased costs of advertising and sales promotion to absorb increased output, etc.

**Q.7(c)** Business Risk and Financial Risk

**Business Risk:-** It refers to the risk associated with the firm's operations. It is the uncertainty about the future operating income (EBIT), i.e. how well can the operating income be predicted? Business risk can be measured by the standard deviation of the Basic Earning Power ratio.

This risk is because of the environment in which the firm has to operate and it is represented by the variability of earnings before interest and tax (EBIT). The variability in turn is influenced by revenues and expenses. Revenues and expenses are affected by demand of firm products, variations in prices and proportion of fixed cost in total cost.

**Financial Risk:-** It refers to the additional risk placed on the firm's shareholders as a result of debt use i.e. the additional risk a shareholder bears when a company uses debt in addition to equity financing. Companies that issue more debt instruments would have higher financial risk than companies financed mostly or entirely by equity. Leverage refers to the ability of a firm in employing long term funds having a fixed cost, to enhance returns to the owners. In other words, leverage is the amount of debt that a firm uses to finance its assets. A firm with a lot of debt in its capital structure is said to be highly levered.

A firm with no debt is said to be unlevered.

**Q.7(d)** Some of the credit facilities provided by banks are:-

- (i) **Short Term Loans** : In a loan account, the entire advance is disbursed at one time either in cash or by transfer to the current account of the borrower. It is a single advance and given against securities like shares, government securities, life insurance policies and fixed deposit receipts, etc. Except by way of interest and other charges no further adjustments are made in this account. Repayment under the loan account may be the full amounts or by way of schedule of repayments agreed upon as in case of term loans.
- (ii) **Overdraft** : Under this facility, customers are allowed to withdraw in excess of credit balance standing in their Current Account. A fixed limit is therefore granted to the borrower within which the borrower is allowed to overdraw his account. Though overdrafts are repayable on demand, they generally continue for long periods by annual renewals of the limits. This is a convenient arrangement for the borrower as he is in a position to avail of the limit sanctioned, according to his requirements. Interest is charged on daily balances. Since these accounts are operative like cash credit and current accounts, cheque books are provided.
- (iii) **Cash Credits** : Cash Credit is an arrangement under which a customer is allowed an advance up to certain limit against credit granted by bank. Under this arrangement, a customer need not borrow the entire amount of advance at one time; he can only draw to the extent of his requirements and deposit his surplus funds in his account. Interest is not charged on the full amount of the advance but on the amount actually availed of by him. Generally cash credit limits are sanctioned against the security of tradable goods by way of pledge or hypothecation. Though these accounts are repayable on demand, banks usually do not recall such advances, unless they are compelled to do so by adverse factors. Hypothecation is an equitable charge on movable goods for an amount of debt where neither possession nor ownership is passed on to the creditor. In case of pledge, the borrower delivers the goods to the creditor as security for repayment of debt. Since the banker, as creditor, is in possession of the goods, he is fully secured and in case of emergency he can fall back on the goods for realisation of his advance under proper notice to the borrower.
- (iv) **Advances against goods** : Advances against goods occupy an important place in total bank credit. Goods as security have certain distinct advantages. They provide a reliable source of repayment. Advances against them are safe and liquid. Also, there is a quick turnover in goods, as they are in constant demand. So a banker accepts them as security. Generally goods are charged to the bank either by way of pledge or by way of hypothecation. The term 'goods' includes all forms of movables which are offered to the bank as security. They may be agricultural commodities or industrial raw materials or partly finished goods.
- (v) **Bills Purchased/Discounted** : These advances are allowed against the security of bills which may be clean or documentary. Bills are sometimes purchased from approved customers in whose favour limits are sanctioned. Before granting a limit the banker satisfies himself as to the credit worthiness of the drawer. Although the term 'bills purchased' gives the impression that the bank becomes the owner or purchaser of such bills, in actual practice the bank holds the bills only as security for the advance. The bank, in addition to the rights against the parties liable on the bills, can also exercise a pledge's rights over the goods covered by the documents.

**Q.7(e)** Financing a business through borrowing is cheaper than using equity. This is because:

- \* Lenders require a lower rate of return than ordinary shareholders. Debt financial securities present a lower risk than shares for the finance providers because they have prior claims on annual income and liquidation.
- \* A profitable business effectively pays less for debt capital than equity for another reason: the debt interest can be offset against pre-tax profits before the calculation of the corporate tax, thus reducing the tax paid.
- \* Issuing and transaction costs associated with raising and servicing debt are generally less than for ordinary shares.

These are some benefits from financing a firm with debt. Still firms tend to avoid very high gearing levels. One reason is financial distress risk. This could be induced by the requirement to pay interest regardless of the cash flow of the business. If the firm goes through a rough period in its business activities it may have trouble paying its bondholders, bankers and other creditors their entitlement.