CA - IPCC COURSE MATERIAL

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FAST TRACK MATERIAL COSTING & FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT (PROBLEMS) _36e

(NEW EDITION THOROUGHLY REVISED & UPDATED UPTO JULY 2016. APPLICABLE FOR MAY 2017 IPCC EXAMINATIONS. THIS MATERIAL IS SYNCHRONISED WITH APRIL 2016 EDITION OF ICAI SM AND PM)



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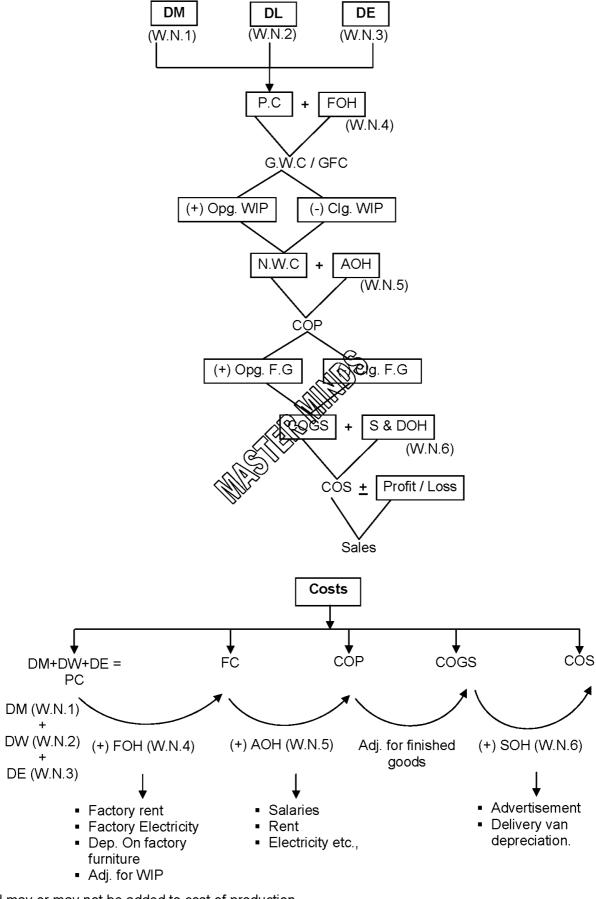
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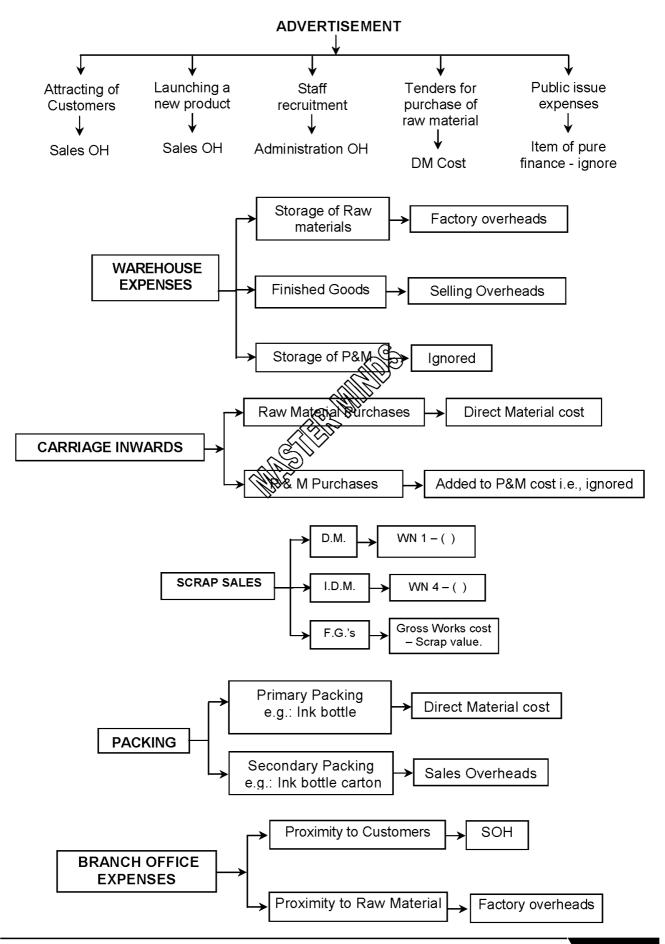
S. No.	S. No. Subject Name				
1.	1. Costing (Problems)				
2.	Financial Management (Problems)	37 – 73			

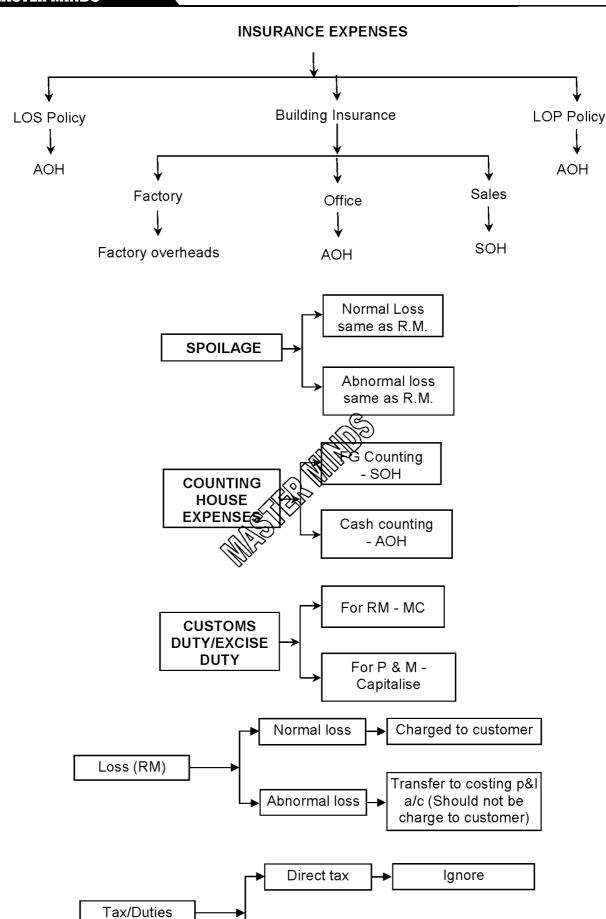
1. COST SHEET



AOH may or may not be added to cost of production.

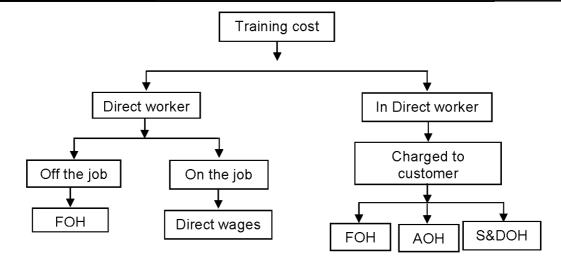
TREATMENT OF VARIOUS EXPENSES





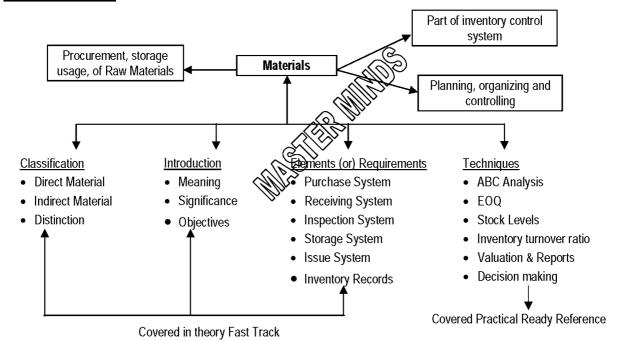
Indirect tax

Charged to customer

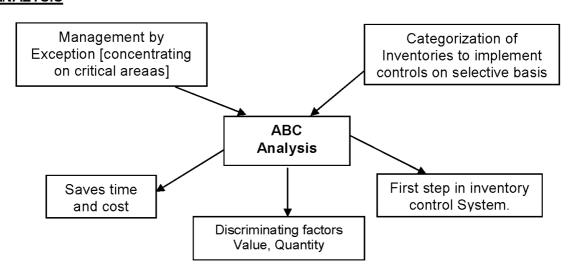


2. MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION:

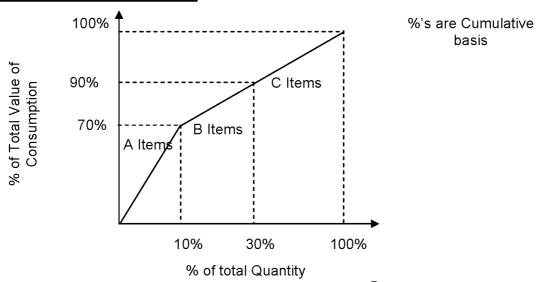


ABC ANALYSIS



Category	% of Total Value	% of Total Items	Control		
Α	A 70 % 10%		Perpetual inventory Control System		
В	20 %	20 %	Periodical inventory Control System		
С	10 %	70 % No inventory Control System			

GRAPHICAL PRESENTATION:



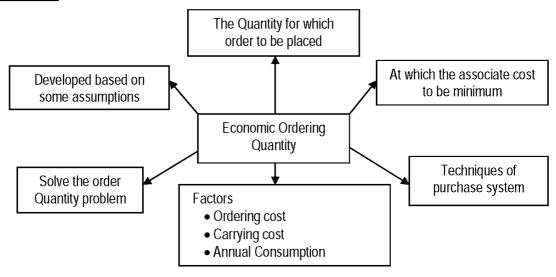
Practical Steps:

- 1. Arrange the items in descending order based on cost per unit
- 2. Calculate the percentage of consumption of each item in relation to total consumption.
- 3. Categories based on cumulative percentage consumption up to 70% [category A], 70-90% [category B], 90-100% [category C]
- 4. Calculate the percentage upto 10 tegory A], 10-30% [category B], 30-100% [category C].

Notes:

- 1. Categories either of one basis [consumption or Quantity], fist & then apply second basis subsequently.
- 2. Categorization as merely as possible.

Materials: [EOQ]



Calculations of EOQ:

Trail & Error Method (or) Tabular Method:

EOQ: Where total cost is minimum

	Particulars	Different Order Sizes		
		Order Size – I	Order Size – II	
A)	Annual Consumption (Units)	-	-	
B)	Order Size	-	-	
C)	No. of Orders (A/B)	-	-	
D)	Cost per order	-	-	
E)	Total ordering Cost (CxD)	-	-	
F)	Average Inventory (Units) (Order Size / 2)	-		
G)	Carrying cost per unit	-	-	
H)	Total carrying cost (F X G)	-	-	
I)	Total Cost (E + H)	-	-	

Formulae:

$$EOQ = \sqrt{\frac{2AO}{C}}$$

Where OC = CC

Total ordering cost (OC) = $\frac{A}{Q}XO$

Total Carrying Cost (CC) = $\frac{Q}{2}$ X C

A = Annual Consumption;

O = Ordering Cost per order;

C = Carrying cost per unit per annum.

Assumptions:-

- a) No Safety Stock.
- b) No lead time
- c) No Quantity Discounts.



- **d)** Consumption evenly accrued through out the year.
- e) All factors known in Advance.

Other Important Formulae:

Total Associated Cost at EOQ = $\sqrt{2AOC}$ (or) Ordering Cost + Carrying Cost.

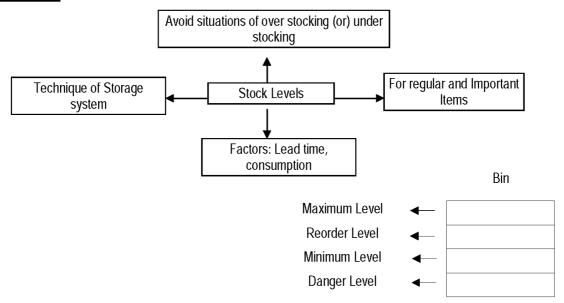
No. of orders per year =
$$\frac{A}{Q}$$
, Average Stock = $\frac{Q}{2}$

Frequency of order =
$$\frac{365}{\text{No.of orders per year}}$$

Notes:

- 1. Carrying cost tends proportionately with order size, where as ordering cost doesn't (tends invariably or disproportionately).
- If Quantity Discounts offered decision to be taken after considering total cost for each alternative (raw material cost + ordering cost + carrying cost).
- 3. Consumption of raw material to be considered but not production or demand of finished goods.
- 4. Consider input output ratio where ever required.
- **5.** Carrying cost may be expressed as a percentage of Raw material cost. Which includes warehouse rent, cost of working capital, insurance. Etc.,
- **6.** Ordering cost per order is fixed & includes cost of making order, receiving, inspection charges, time devoted, transportation etc.,

STOCK LEVELS

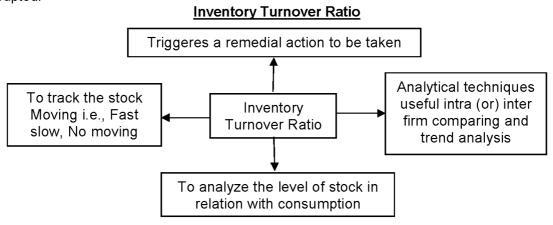


Formulas:

Level	With Safety Stock	Without Safety Stock
Re Order Level (ROL)	Safety Stock (or) Minimum Stock + Lead time consumption	Maximum Consumption x Maximum Lead time
Maximum Stock	ROL+ROQ – Minimum consumption X Minimum Lead time	EOQ + Safety Stock
Minimum Stock	Safety Stock (or) (Maximum Lead time - Normal Lead time) x Annual consumption 365 days	ROL – Normal Lead time x Normal Consumption
Average Level =	$\frac{\text{Minimum} + \text{Maximum}}{2} \text{ (or)}$	Safety stock+ $\frac{1}{2}$ ROQ
Danger Level =	Emergency Delivery period x Minimum usage	Emergency Delivery period x Normal

Notes:

- 1. Usage and lead time must be taken for the same period.
- 2. The selection of Approach depend upon information provided in the problem
- 3. The Formulas are objectively determined but not subjectively.
- **4.** The approach followed zero stock risk approach i.e., at any point of time production cannot be interrupted.



Formulas:

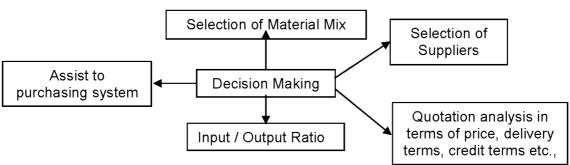
Days =
$$\frac{365}{\text{Inventory turnover ratio (Intimes)}}$$

Time =
$$\frac{\text{Cost of Material consumption}}{\text{Cost of Average Stock}}$$

Consumption = Opening Stock + Purchases - Closing Stock

Average =
$$\frac{\text{Opening Stock} + \text{Closing Stock}}{2}$$

Decision Making



Input / Output Ratio = $\frac{Input}{Output}$ X 100 (i.e., input required for every unit of out put)

Yield Ratio = Output X 100 (i.e., out put can be achieve to every unit of input)

While Selecting Suppliers: Quantitative as well as walltative factors to be considered. Such as delivery terms, Relation, defectives, assistance after sales solvice quality of material etc.

Chapter: Materials: [Valuation & Reporting]

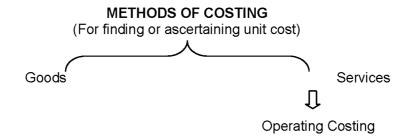
Cost of Purchases of Raw Material:

- 1. Whatever the costs incurred upto stores.
- 2. Trade discounts, Quantity discounts, Considered, but not cash discount.
- 3. Excise duty, Customs duty, Sales tax, VAT, Packing (Non Returnable) to be added.
- 4. Duties not be added if CENVAT credit availed.
- 5. Normal loss during transportation, handling has to be deducted from quantity but not from cost.
- **6.** However abnormal loss to be transferred to costing P & L A/c. after deducting from quantity as well as cost.
- 7. Customs duty to be levied on landed cost [Cost, insurance, freight]

Stores Ledger, Bin Card, Stock Control Card etc.,

- **1.** Records to be maintained for each item of stores. [Stores ledger] depend upon inventory control system i.e., perpetual (or) periodical.
- 2. Opening stock, purchases, issues and closing stock to be recorded.
- 3. Verify closing stock physically with books and treatment of shortage [Normal (or) Abnormal] if any.
- 4. Purchases to be recorded at cost per unit.
- 5. Issues to be recorded based on pricing method selected by Cost Accounting Department.
- 6. Inter departmental transfers not to be recorded.
- **7.** Transfer to suppliers, returns from departments to be recorded at their respective prices, irrespective of pricing method followed.

3. OPERATING COSTING



Basic Features:

- 1. Services are standardized.
- 2. Investment in fixed assets is high and working capital is low.
- 3. Major portion of the total cost is fixed. Cost per unit decrease if cost driver increases.

Applicability: to standardize services like Hospitals, Hotels, Passenger Transport, Cargo transport, Canteen, Electricity supply, Cinema Houses etc.

INDUSTRY	COST UNIT
Hospitals	Patient/bed Days
Hotels	Guest Days, Room Days.
Passenger Transport	Passenger Kilometers.
Cargo Transport	Tonne Kilometers.
Canteens	Number of Meals served, Number of tea cups sold etc.
Electricity Supply	Kilowatt Hours (Christs
Boiler Houses	Quantity of Steam raised (therms)
Cinema Houses	Number Wickets, Number of Shows.

i) Accumulated operating cost or collection of Cost for the period includes:

Fixed cost or Standing charges
Variable cost or Running charges
Semi-Variable cost or Maintenance charges

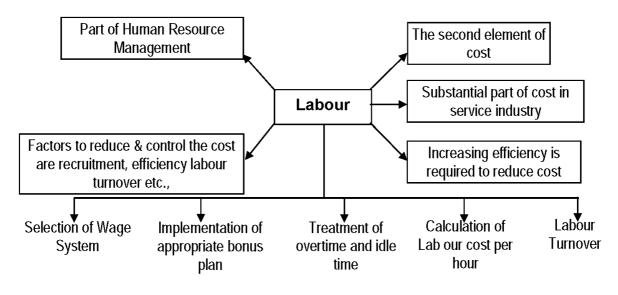
- ii) No. of units or cost driver : either
 - a) Simple Cost unit(only one cost driver in use): Per Km, Per Passenger, Per Patient
 - **b)** Composite Cost unit (Two cost drivers in use & mixed with one): Per Tonne Km, Per Passenger Km, Per Patient Day etc.

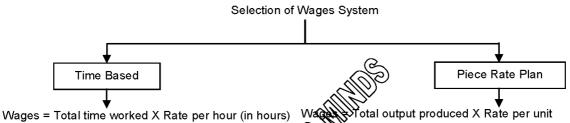
Composite cost driver is more accurate.

Absolute Tonne Kilometres: This is the sum total of tonne - Kilometres, arrived at by multiplying various distances by respective load quantities carried.

Commercial Tonne Kilometres: It is derived by multiplying total Distance (Kms) by average load quantity.

4 & 5. LABOUR - I & II

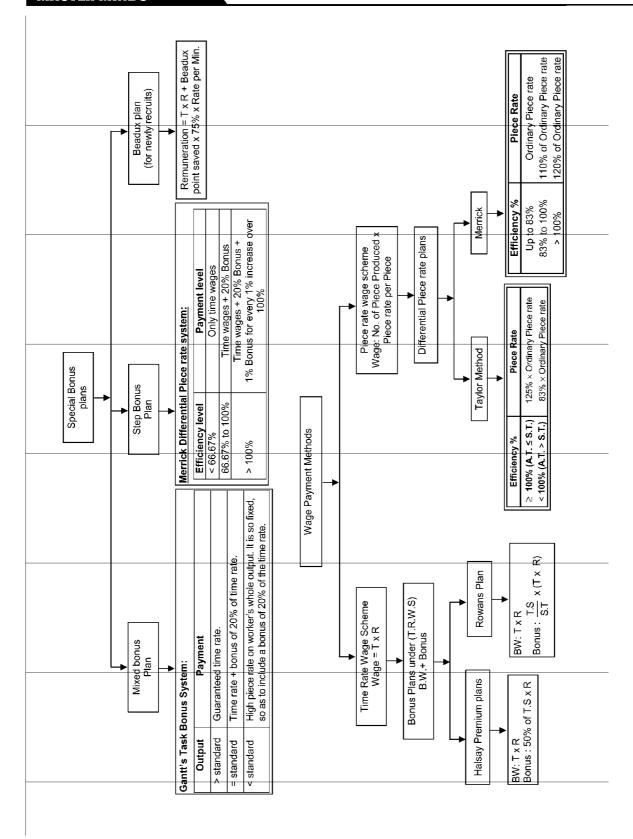




Points to be considered to select plan:

- a) Supervision Facility
- b) Quantity or Quality which is important
- c) Measurement of Output
- d) Standardized Product
- e) Production Process i.e., mechanized (or)manual

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To **MASTER MINDS**, Guntur



Points to be noted:

a) Efficiency Ratio.

Based on time =
$$\frac{ST(\text{ for actual out put})}{AT(\text{ or actual out put})}X100$$

Based on Output =
$$\frac{AO(\text{ for actual time})}{SO(\text{ for actual time})}X100$$

Activity Ratio =
$$\frac{ST}{BT}X100$$

Capacity Ratio =
$$\frac{AT}{BT}X100$$

Standard time = Standard time for actual production.

Standard Production = Standard production for Actual time.

Points to be noted for Bonus calculation:

- a) Find out whether plan is standard (or) Non standard.
- b) Whether it is time based (or) Piece rate based (or) fixed.
- c) Calculate efficiency (or) Time saved depend upon plan.

Time Saved = Standard time for Actual Output – Actual time taken.

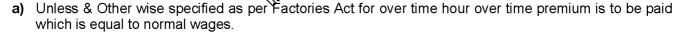
Efficiency =
$$\frac{S.T \text{ for Actual Output}}{AT}$$
 (or) $\frac{Actual Output}{S.O \text{ for Actual Time}}$

- d) Apply the formulas if the plan is standard.
- e) Calculate Basic Wages based on time (or) Output and a the Bonus as per plan.

Over Time:

- If any worker works
- Per day more than 9 hours (or)
- Per week more than 48 hours

It is considered as over time.

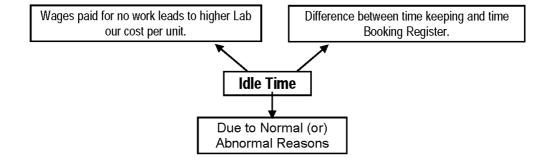


b) It is extra cost to be incurred by the organization.

Treatment of over time Premium:

Reason	Treatment			
1. At the request of customer.	1. Added to direct labour cost for that job.			
2. To cope with demand.	2. Add to factory over head.			
3. Due to abnormal conditions (or) Inefficiency of management	3. Charged to costing Profit & Loss A/c.			
4. It is regular in nature.	4. Charged to Direct Lab our cost by calculating inflated wages.			

Idle Time:



Treatment of Idle time wages:

Re	eason	Treatment		
1.	Due to normal reasons such as rest period, Lunch, Switching over jobs, Teas, Snacks break, etc.,			
2.	Due to abnormal reasons such as Power failure, Raw material shortage, Strikes & lock outs etc.,		The wage paid for the idle time has to be borne by the management i.e., charged to costing P&L A/c Hours & Cost has to be deducted.	

Calculation of comprehensive Labour Cost per Hour:

- a) To charge Labour costs to job it is required to calculate cost pr hour for each type of labour worker and no. of hours worked for each job.
- b) Which calculating cost per hour these points are worth noted.
 - i) Add dearness allowance to basic wages.
 - ii) Add employee's contribution to P.F & ESI if any to calculate total wages.
 - iii) Calculate No. of actual hours worked by the worker.

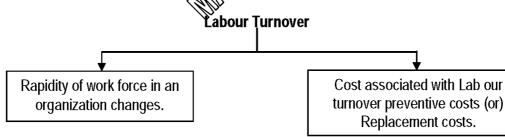
i.e., Total hours - normal idle time - Abnormal idle time if any.

iv) Comprehensive Rate per hour = Total cost to employed Actual hours worked

c) While changing labour cost to jobs

First determine total hours worked for each to which will be calculate from job cards (or) time cards

No. of Hour charged to Job = Total Hour Approximal idle time.



Calculation of Labour Turnover:

- 1. Separation Method = No. of Separations

 Average No. of workers
- 2. Replacement Method = $\frac{\text{No. of Replacements}}{\text{Average No. of workers}}$
- 3. Recruitment Method = Recruitments other than Replacements

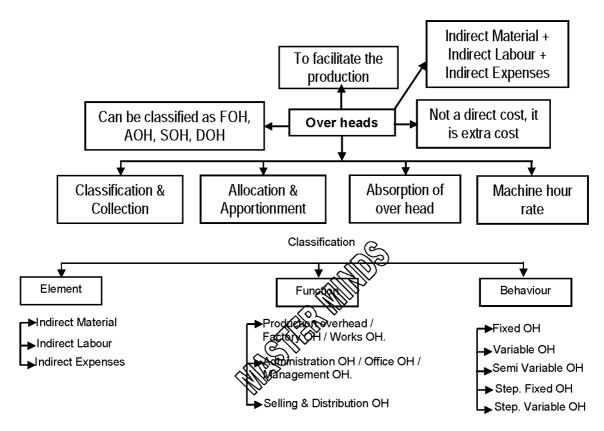
 Average No. of workers
- **4.** Accessions Method = $\frac{\text{Total recruitments}}{\text{Average No. of workers}}$
- 5. Flux Method:
 - Alternative $-1 = \frac{\text{Seperations} + \text{Replacements}}{\text{AverageNo. of workers}}$
 - Alternative II = Seperations + Replacements + New Recruitments
 AverageNo. of workers

Average No. of workers = $\frac{\text{Opening+Closing}}{2}$

Notes:

- To take decision whether to avoid Labour turnover (or) not is depend upon cost of preventing Labour turnover (or) cost of Replacing Labour left.
- **2.** For calculation of cost of Replacing Labour i.e., Training & Recruitment, loss of contribution due to delay in recruitment etc.,
- The Profit with out Labour turnover & the profit with Labour turnover has to be compared for calculation or cost of Labour turnover.

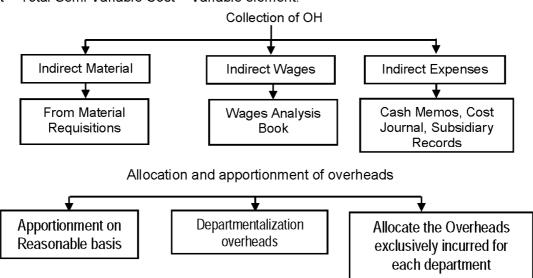
6 & 7. OVERHEADS — I & II



Segregation of Semi Variable OH in to fixed & variable.

Variable OH. Rate = $\frac{\text{Difference in total OH}}{\text{Difference in Activity}}$

Fixed Cost = Total Semi Variable Cost - Variable element.



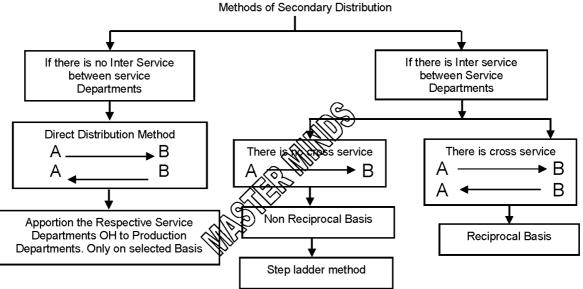
- **1.** If expenses incurred for each department known separately we can allocate the overheads to the respective department.
- 2. In case Expenses incurred are not known for each department, we have to apportion the overheads in between the departments on Reasonable basis as follows.

	Item	Basis
1.	Common Items of Production Overheads	
	a) Factory Rent, Rates & Taxes	Floor area Occupied
	b) Repairs & Maintenance of Factory Building	Floor area Occupied
	c) Insurance of factory building	Floor area Occupied
	d) Depreciation of factory building	Floor area Occupied
2.		
	a) Repairs & Maintenance of plant & Machinery	Capital cost of plant & machinery
	b) Insurance of plant & machinery	Capital cost of plant & machinery
	c) Depreciation of plant & machinery	Capital cost of plant & machinery
3.	Insurance of Stock	Insured Value of Stock
4.		
	a) Supervision	No. of Workers
	b) Canteen, Staff welfare expenses	No. of Workers
	c) Time keeping & Personnel office expenses	No. of Workers
5.		
	a) Compensation to workers	Wages
	b) Employees State Insurance Contribution	Wages
	c) Provident Fund Constribution	Wages
6.	Stores overhead / Stores keeping Expenses	Value of direct materials
7.	Material handling charges	Weight of direct material
8.	Lighting & Heating	No. of light points / area
9.	Power / Steam consumption	Horse Power of machines (or) machine hours

- **1.** Departmentalization of overheads i.e., apportionment & Allocation of overheads can be presented as primary distribution table.
- 2. After completion of primary distribution the service department overhead has to be reapportioned to production department is called secondary overhead distribution table.
- 3. Finally we have to charge whatever the overhead incurred to the production for that first we have to identify the cost centers such as departments either production (or) service departments & apportion and allocate the overhead to find out the overheads for each department.
- **4.** However output produced only at production departments, service departments provides assistance to production departments so that service department overheads has to be Reapportioned to production departments on some reasonable basis as follows.

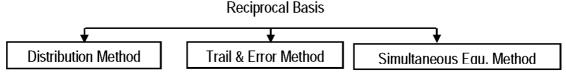
	Service Department	Basis
1.	Purchase Department	Number of purchase orders or Number of purchase Requisitions or Value of materials purchased.
2.	Stores Department	Number of material Requisitions or value of materials issued.
3.	Time-keeping Department, Pay-roll Department	No. of employees or Total Lab our Hours or machine hours.

4.	Personnel Department, Canteen, Welfare, Medical, Recreation Department	No. of Employees or Total wages		
5.	Repairs and Maintenance	No.of Hours worked in each department		
6. Power House		Meter reading (or) H.P Hour for powers, meter reading or floor space of lighting, heat consumed.		
7.	Inspection	Inspection Hours or value of Items inspected		
8.	Drawing Office	No. of drawings made or man-hours worked.		
9.	Accounts Department	No. of workers in each department or time devoted.		
10	. Tool Room	Direct Lab our Hours or machine hours or Wages		



Step Ladder Method:

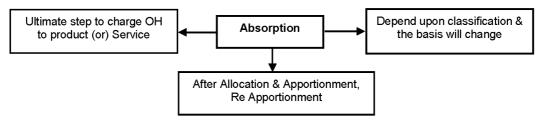
- **1.** First identify the Service Department which provides service to maximum no. of Departments (Production + Service) and apportion that department over head to the rest of Departments.
- 2. Next the Second Service Department which provides service to maximum no.of departments after first one & apportion that Department OH to rest of departments (But not to the First Service Department).
- 3. Continue the procedure for all Departments.
 - a) Selection of Sequence of Service Departments to be apportioned is important in case of Step Ladder Method.
 - **b)** If it is given in the problem follow the given sequence.



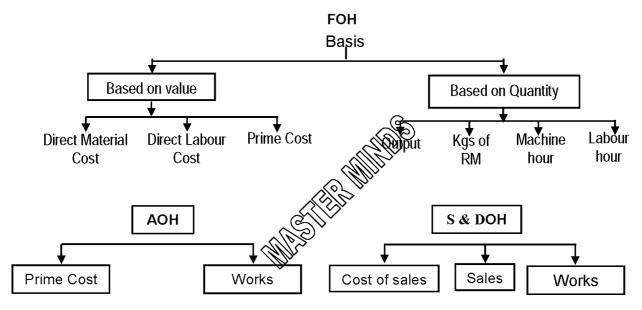
- **1.** Any one of the three methods above can be selected to apportion the Service Departments OH to other Departments [Production + Service]
- 2. Distribution is cyclic in nature until all Service department OH is exhausted.
- **3.** In case of two Service Departments having large amount of OH then select. Simultaneous equation method, otherwise other methods are suitable.

4. What ever the cost incurred at Service Departments treated as OH even though the costs are termed as Direct cost in relation to Service Departments.

For Ex: In a Cement manufacturing company, the Diesel cost incurred to produce power in power house (Service Department) can be termed as direct material cost for power house. But with respect to production (cement). It is Indirect material treated as OH to be reappointed to production Departments.



Different OH's Can be absorbed on Different basis as follows:



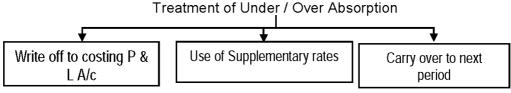
1. While selecting basis we have to consider Various Factors such as the dominant element of cost, production procedure, availability of information, Industrial Norms, connection with overheads etc.

Over head Recovery Rate =
$$\frac{\text{Estimated OH}}{\text{Estimated basis}}$$

Under / Over Absorption:

a) If Actual OH > Absorbed OH => Under Absorption

Actual OH < Absorbed OH => Over Absorption.



b) Depend upon cause for difference, the treatment is different.

Blanket V/S Departmental.

- a) If a single O.H.R.R, is calculated for all Departments it is known as Blanket Recovery Rate.
- **b)** A Separate OHRR is calculated for each department Separately on distinct basis it is known as Departmental Recovery Rate.

c) In case Department wise information is available it is better to, calculate Departmental Recovery Rate, rather than applying Blanket Recovery Rate.

Machine Hour Rate:

1. In case of mechanized Production: To calculate the cost of production. We have to calculate the number of hours the machine is used for each type of job (or) product and the Rate per hour for machine.

Cost to be charged = No. of hours machine used X Rate per hour

To calculate rate per hour for each type of machine the following points has to be considered

- 2. Estimate the capacity of machine either it is practical capacity (or) operating capacity, Normal capacity (or) Capacity based on sales expectances.
- 3. Estimate the cost to be incurred to operate the machine for a given period

Machine Hour Rate =
$$\frac{\text{Estimated Cost}}{\text{No. of hours worked}}$$

While calculating No. of hours due regard to be given for Normal Idle time and Abnormal Idle time.

Comprehensive View of Overheads Chapter:

- 1. Overheads = Indirect material + Indirect Lab our + Indirect expenses
- 2. The costs cannot be identified with cost object.
- 3. some of them incurred periodically irrespective of production.
- 4. Ultimately we have to establish correlation in between each incurred & output produced.
- 5. For that we have to identify the place where Experies incurred, How it can be collected & grouped as per the requirement and Departmentalize by that the ging the overheads to production finally.
- 6. After Absorbing overheads to products. At the end of the period we can compare it with actual overhead's incurred to calculate under or exercises or products.
- 7. Depends upon the reason for under to be absorption we can dispose off.

8 & 10. BOOK KEEPING & RECONCILIATION

- Usually in the business there are two types of transactions occurs, i.e. financial transactions & Cost transactions.
- 2. Cost Control Accounts: These are accounts maintained for the purpose of exercising control over the costing ledgers and also to complete the double entry in cost accounts

There are Two systems of maintain cost accounts as:

Non – Integral System: Financial & Cost books are maintained separately.

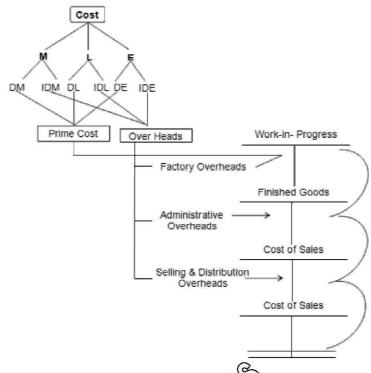
Integral System:

Both financial & cost transactions are recorded in same set of books.

3. Reconciliation: In the Non-Integral System of Accounting, since the cost and financial accounts are kept separately, it is imperative that those should be reconciled; otherwise the cost accounts would not be reliable.

The reason for profit differences in the cost & financial accounts can be of purely financial nature (Income and expenses ignores cost books) and notional nature (Opportunity cost etc. ignores Financial books).

Non Integral System: A system of accounting where both costing and Financial transaction are recorded in the same set of books.



Ledgers in cost books:

- 1. Cost Ledger /General Ledger adjustments or control
- 2. Stores Ledger (raw material components) (Dr).
- 3. WIP Ledger (Dr)
- 4. Finished Goods Ledger(Dr)

Important Control Accounts in cost system: (refer above chart):

- 1. Stored Ledger Control Account
- 2. Wage Control Account
- 3. Factory Overhead Account(under /over applied, Dr/Cr)
- 4. W-I-P Control Account
- 5. Finished Goods Control Accounts
- 6. Administration Overhead Account(under /over applied, Dr/Cr)
- 7. Selling and Distribution Overhead Account(under /over applied, Dr/Cr)
- 8. Cost of Sales Account
- 9. Overhead Adjustment Account
- 10. Costing Profit & Loss Account
- 11. Cost Ledger(G/L) Adjustment Account

Profit Reconciliation: Two of profits based on cost and financial records are reported. There is a need for reconciling the differences between these figures of profits.

List of items causing differences between Cost & Finance Books that affects profit:

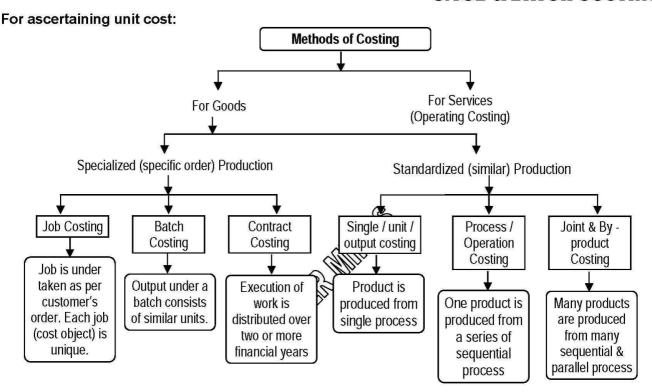
- 1. Differences in Stock Valuation
- 2. Difference in absorption (OH)
- Items included in the Financial but not in Cost Accounts, Vice versa.

Integral System: Is the name given to a system of accounting, whereby cost and financial accounts are kept in the same set of books. It provides relevant information which is necessary for preparing financial statements as per requirement of law.

Advantages:

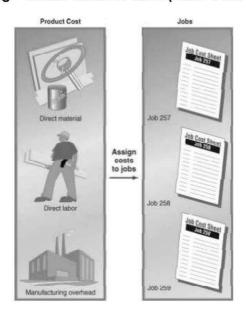
- 1. No need for reconciliation
- 2. Less efforts (due to one set of books)
- 3. Less time consuming
- 4. Economical process (centralization of accounting function)

9. JOB & BATCH COSTING

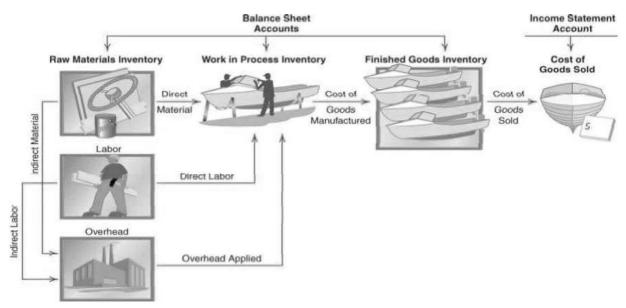


A separate job cost sheet or Job card is used for each job or cost object.

Relating Product Costs to Jobs (Each Cost Object)



Flow of Product Costs in Job Order System



Advantages:

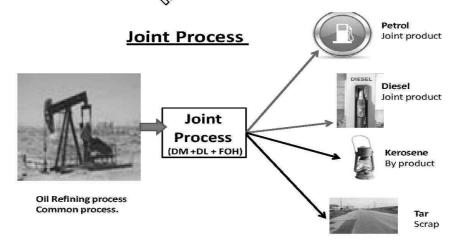
1. To ascertains units cost & profit or loss by each job

2. To control the cost (through efficiency)

3. To know detailed analysis of costs, I.e. Materials, Lawur, Overheads etc.

11. JOINT & BY - PRODUCTS

Joint process - Single process in which product cannot be manufactured without producing others.



A joint process produces;

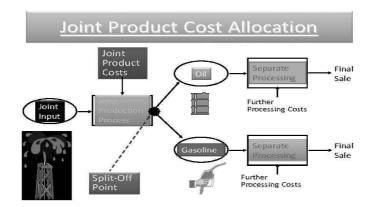
Joint products - Primary outputs of a joint process; substantial revenue-generating ability

By-products – Incidental output of a joint process with a higher sales value than scrap but less than joint products.

Scrap -Incidental output of a joint process with a low sales value

Waste - Residual output with no sales value

JOINT PRODUCT COST



- ▶ The **split- off point** is the stage of production process where one or more products in a joint-cost setting become separately identifiable.
- Joint costs material, labor, and overhead incurred during a joint process
- **Separable costs** are all costs (manufacturing, marketing, distribution, etc.) incurred beyond the split off point that are assignable to one or more individual products.

Why we Allocate Joint Costs?

- To compute inventory cost &measurement of income
- To determine cost reimbursement under contracts
- For Decision making (i.e. Process further or not)

METHOD OF APPORTIONING JOINT COST:

- 1. Physical-Units Method: Allocation based physical measure of the joint products at the Split-off point.
- 2. Average unit Method:
- 3. Contribution Margin Method:
- 4. Technical Evaluation Method:
- 5. Market Value at split off point method:
- 6. Market value after split off point Method:
- 7. NRV method:
- 8. Relative-Sales-Value Method: Allocation based on the relative values of the products at the Split-off point.
- Net-Realizable-Value Method: Allocation based on final sales values less separable processing costs.

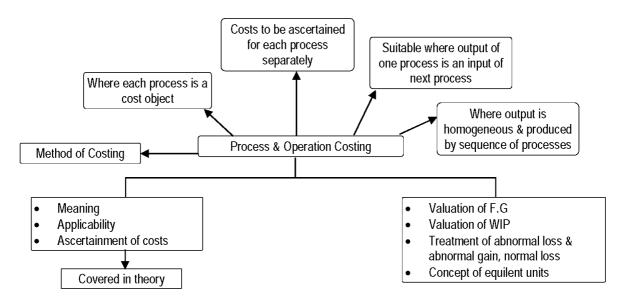
BY-PRODUCT COST

- 1. By-product costs are not individually identifiable until manufacturing reaches a split-off point.
- 2. By-product costs have a relatively insignificant sales value in comparison with other products emerging at split-off.

COST ACCOUNTING TREATMENT:

- 1. When By-Product are of small total value: Credited P/L A/c or Deduct from the total cost of main product.
- 2. When By-Product are of considerable total value: They may be regarded as Joint product rather than By-Product.
- 3. When the By-Product require further processing: The NRV of the By-product at the split-off point may be arrived at by subtracting the further processing cost from the realisable value of By-product.

12. PROCESS COSTING



Process A/c & Valuation of Factory overheads

 $Cost per good unit = \frac{Total cost - Scrap Value of Normal Loss}{Total input - Normal Loss Units}$

Abnormal units=Total input - Normal Loss - Total Action Output

Input – Normal Loss = Expected or Normal Production

Normal Loss = Input x Percentage of Normal

Abnormal Loss = Expected Production - Actual Production

Abnormal Gain Units = Total Actual Output Normal Loss Units - Total input

Abnormal Gain = Actual Production - Expected Production

Actual production = Input - Actual Loss

Actual Loss = Input - Actual Output

Important Points:

- 1. If there is no opening & closing WIP then we can apply above formulas.
- 2. Unless & otherwise specified we can assume abnormal loss. Occurrence is at the end of process i.e. the Abnormal Loss to be calculated equal to finished goods value.
- 3. Abnormal gain is always 100% complete in all respects.

Value of WIP:

- 1. Selection of method is important to value WIP. i.e. FIFO (or) LIFO (or) weightage average.
- 2. Equivalent units statement to be prepare to value the WIP depend upon selected method
- Normal Loss units not to be added to equivalent units.
- 4. Abnormal gain 100%, Complete with respect to all elements i.e. material, labour, overhead, etc.

Specimen format of Equivalent units statements

			Material		Labour		Overhead		
	Input	Particular	Output	% of	Equivalent	% of	Equivalent	% of	Equivalent
L				completion	units	completion	units	completion	units

Treatment of Normal Loss, Abnormal Loss, Abnormal Gain

Normal Loss:

- 1. Expressed as a percentage of either on total input (or) output (or) throughput (or) production etc...
- 2. Normal loss units to be included for match the input & output
- 3. Cost not to be apportion to normal loss if any from cost of process.

Abnormal Loss:

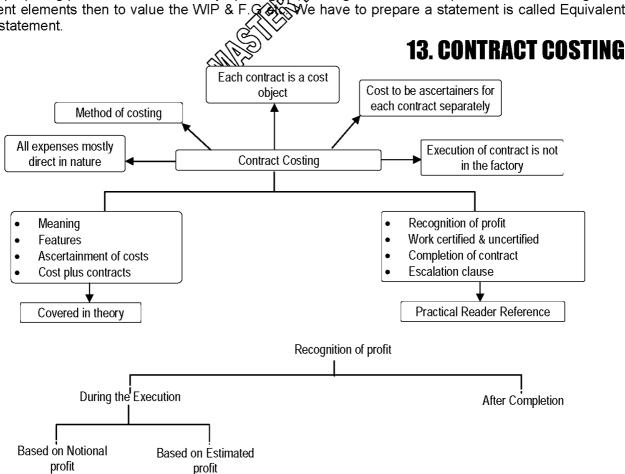
- 1. Abnormal loss occurs when actual output is lower than expected output.
- Unless & otherwise specified we value the abnormal loss equal to finished goods assumed 100% complete with respect to all elements
- 3. If completion stages are given in the problem. We have to value according to that
- 4. While preparing Abnormal Loss A/c Debit with process A/c with cost of Abnormal Loss & Credit with costing P&L Account.

Abnormal Gain:

- Abnormal Gain arises when the actual output (Finished Goods = Closing Working Progress)
- 2. Always values equivalent to finished goods i.e. 100% complete irrespective of completion stages given in the problem.
- 3. While preparing Abnormal Gain Account

Credit with Process A/c & Debit with Normal Loss A/c & costing P&L A/c **Concept of Equivalent Units**

While preparing process a/c it is then any opening (p) Sosing WIP which completed at different stages for different elements then to value the WIP & F. We have to prepare a statement is called Equivalent units statement.



Based on Notional Profit we can recognize the profit out of notional profit depend upon % of completion of contract

- 1. If % of completion of contract is below 25% NIL
- 2. If % of completion of contract is 25% to < 50% 1/3 x Notional Profit x $\frac{\text{Cash received}}{\text{Work certified}}$
- 3. If % of completion of contract is $\geq 50\%$ to < 90% 2/3 x Notional Pr of x $\frac{\text{Cash received}}{\text{Work certified}}$
- **4.** If % of completion of contract is ≥ 90% and above based on estimated profit

% of completion of contract =
$$\frac{\text{Work certified}}{\text{Contract Price}} \times 100$$

Based on Estimated Profit: If contract is completed 90% & above then

- 1) Estimated Pr ofit x $\frac{\text{Work Certified}}{\text{Contract Price}}$
- 2) Estimated Profit x $\frac{\text{Work Certified}}{\text{Contract Price}} \times \frac{\text{Cash Received}}{\text{Work Certified}}$
- 3) Estimated Pr ofit x $\frac{\text{Cost to date}}{\text{Total cost of contract}}$
- 4) Estimated Profit x Cost to date
 Total cost of contract X Work Shiftied

When estimated profit is unable to calculate the

Notional Profit x Work Certified Contract Price

Estimated Profit = Contract Price - Total cost of contract

Total cost of contract = cost to date + Further cost to be incurred to complete the contract

Notional profit = Work Certified + Work Uncertified – Total cost of contract

Notional Profit = Work Certified - Cost of Work Certified

Cost work Certified = Cost incurred up-to-date - Work uncertified

Work Certified = Notional Profit + Cost of work Certified.

Work Certified & Work Uncertified

Work Certified: Total cost of contract + Notional Profit – Cost of work uncertified.

- 1. Work certified if the value certified by the contractee or the work done by contractor. It includes profit element & cost of work certified.
- 2. Work certified is treated as periodical sales to calculate the notional profit.
- **3.** Upon completion of contract the work certified if 100% of contract price until completion of contract work certified to be shown in Balance sheet as a CWIP.

Work Uncertified: Total cost of contract – cost of work certified.

Work certified is that portion of cost which is incurred by the contractor but not certified by contractee. It should be carried at cost only.

Until completion of contract work uncertified to be carried to Balance Sheet.

Escalation Clause

To compensate the contractor from the loss occurred due to unusual increases in prices, the contract deed can contain Escalation Clause.

To calculate the escalation claim amount we have to consider only increase in prices beyond anticipated level but not increases (or) decreases in quantity.

Entry for Escalation Claim Amount:

Contractee A/c - Dr

To Contract A/c

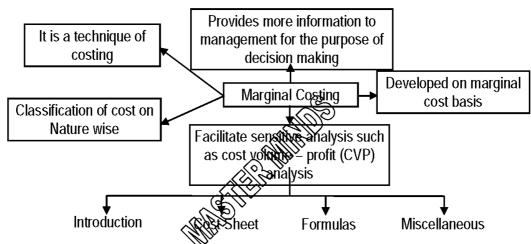
Completion of contract

Upon completion of contract we have to pay

Contractee A/C - Dr.

To contract A/C.

14. MARGINAL COSTING



Proforma of Cost sheet - As per Absorption Costing

Particulars	Amount (Rs.)	Amount (Rs.)
Direct Materials (consumed)	XXXX	
Direct Lab our	XXXX	
Direct Expenses Prime cost	XXXX	XXXX
Add: Factory overheads		XXXX
Gross works cost / Factory cost		XXXX
Add: Opening work in progress	XXX	
Less: Closing work in progress	(XXX)	XXX
Net works cost		XXXX
Add: Administration overhead		XXXX
Cost of goods produced		XXXX
Add: Opening finished goods	XXXX	
Less: Closing finished goods	(XXX)	XXX
Cost of goods sold		XXXX
Add: Selling & Distribution overhead		XXXX
Cost of sales		XXXX
Profit / Loss (B/f)		XXX
Sales (Net off Sales returns)		XXXX

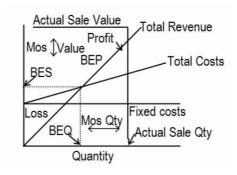
Cost sheet Proforma Under Marginal Costing

10	Particulars	Amount
		(Rs.)
A.	Sales	XX
B.	Variable Cost:	
	Direct Material	XX
	Direct Lab our	XX
	Direct Expenses	XX
	Prime Cost	XXX
	(+) Variable FOH	XX
	Variable Gross Works Cost	XXX
	(+) Opening WIP	XX
	(-) C/S WIP	(XX)
	Variable net works cost	XXX
34	(+) Variable AOH.	XX
	Variable Cost of Goods Produced	XXX
	(+) Opening stock of FG	XX
	(-) Closing stock of FG	(XX)
	Variable cost of goods sold	XXX
(+) Variable selling & Distribution OH		XX
	Total Variable Cost	XXX
C.	Contribution [(A) (-) (B)]	XXX
D.	Fixed Cost: Fixed Factory OH	XX
	Fixed AOH	XX
	Fixed S & DOH	XX
	Total Fixed Cost	XX
E.	Profit: (C) – (D)	XXX

Notes:

- 1. As per absorption costing costs are considered function wise, element wise, and traceability wise.
- 2. Where as for applying marginal costing techniques costs are further classified into Nature wise to provide more information & facilitate decision making.
- **3.** As per absorption costing Direct material, Direct labour, Direct expenses, factory overhead treated as production cost and charged to production.
- **4.** As per marginal costing Direct material, Direct Labour, Direct expenses, variable factory overhead treated as production cost & charged to production.
- 5. The profit will vary as per two methods due to different inventory valuations.
- Marginal costing is developed based on the assumption that Marginal cost = Variable cost
- 7. It is helpful to fix the price on variable cost basis for special circumstances.

Graphical Representation of Marginal Costing:



Marginal cost Basic equation = 'Sales' - 'Variable Cost' = 'Fixed cost' + 'Profit' = 'Contribution

Break Even Point (BEP):

The point at which no Profit (or) no loss situation.

Formulae:

$$BEP = \frac{FixedCost}{P/VRatio}$$

BEP in units
$$= \frac{\text{FixedCost}}{\text{Contribution P.U.}} = \text{Sales} - \text{Margin of Safety} = \text{Sales} (1 - \text{MOS Ratio})$$

Cash BEP =
$$\frac{\text{Cash Fixed Cost}}{\text{Contribution Per Unit}}$$

Shut down BEP =
$$\frac{\text{Avoidable Fixed Cost}}{\text{Contribution Per Unit}}$$

Variable Cost Ratio =
$$\frac{\text{Variable Cost}}{\text{Sales}} \times 100 \text{ (or)} \frac{\text{Variable Cost Per Unit}}{\text{Selling Price Per Unit}} \times 100 \text{ (or)}$$

P/V Ratio:

PV Ratio
$$= \frac{\text{Contribution}}{\text{Sales}} \times 100 = \frac{\text{ContributionPer Unit}}{\text{Selling Price Per Unit}} \times 100 = \frac{\text{Change in Profit}}{\text{Change in Sales}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\text{Profit}}{\text{MOS}} = \frac{\text{Fixed Cost}}{\text{BEP}} = \frac{\text{Fixed Cost} + \text{Profit}}{\text{Sales}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\text{Selling price per unit} - \text{Variable Cost unit}}{\text{Selling price per unit}} \times 100$$

$$= 1 - \text{Variable Cost Ratio}$$

2. MOS ratio =
$$1 - BEP ratio$$

3. MOS units =
$$\frac{\text{Profit}}{\text{Contribution per unit}}$$

4. MOS =
$$\frac{\text{Contribution - Fixed cost}}{\text{P/V Ratio}}$$

Sales = Variable cost + Fixed Cost + Profit = BEP + MOS =
$$\frac{\text{Fixed cost} + \text{Profit}}{\text{P/V Ratio}}$$

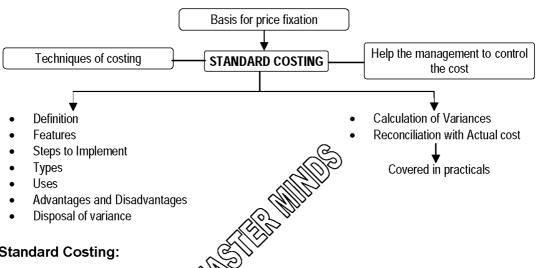
Sales in units
$$=$$
 $\frac{\text{Fixed cost} + \text{Profit}}{\text{Contribution per unit}} = \text{BEP Units} + \text{MOS Units} = \frac{\text{Contibution} + \text{Variable Cost}}{\text{Selling Price Per Unit}}$

$$= \frac{\text{Contribution}}{\text{P/V Ratio}}$$

Important Points:

- 1. For key factor based decision contribution per key factor has to calculate and Rank accordingly.
- 2. To maximize the profit we have to frame optimum product mix based on the ranking subject to market constraints.
- 3. In case of recession (or) slack period the prices can be quoted by applying marginal costing technique i.e., based on variable cost
- 4. For fixing price at special cases we can use differential costing technique also the difference of total cost in between two scenarios.

15. STANDARD COSTING



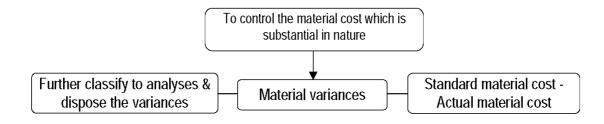
Steps of Standard Costing:

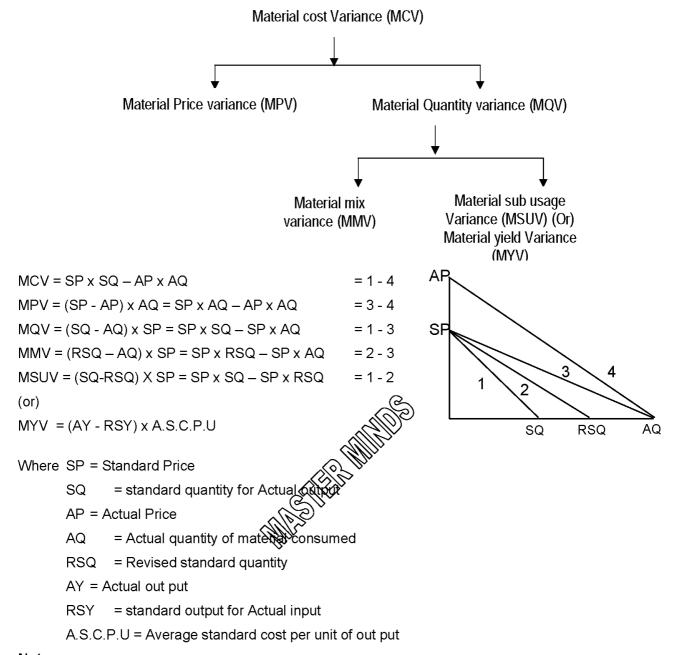
- ts for each Element of cost need to control. Setting up standards (in consultation
- Record the Actual
- Variance Analysis.
- Disposal of variance & Revision of standards if necessary

Variance = Standard Cost - Actual Cost

Types of Variances:

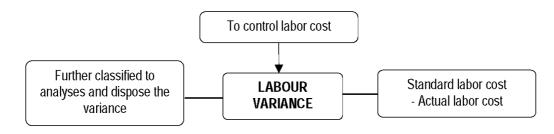
- 1. Material Variance
- 2. Labor variance
- 3. Over variance.
 - a) Fixed overhead Variance
 - b) Variable overhead Variance



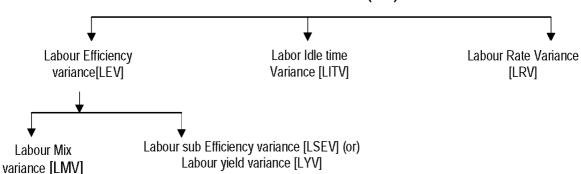


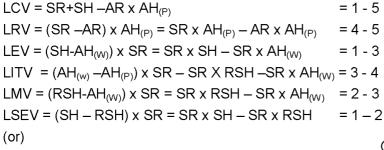
Note:

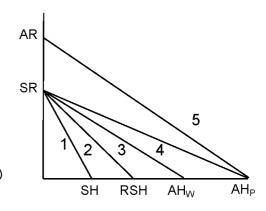
- Standard can be expressed either for one unit of out put (or) on any basis. But standard Quantity has to be calculated for actual out put only.
- Always Assure that total input of RSQ & AQ are same.
- Material mix variance & material subs usage variance is required to calculate only when more than one type of material is used.



LABOUR COST VARIANCE (LCV)







 $LYV = (AY - RSY) \times A.S.C.P.U$

Where SR = Standard Rate per hour

AR = Actual Rate per hour

SH = Standard hours for actual output

AH_(P) = Actual hours paid

AH_(W) = Actual hours worked

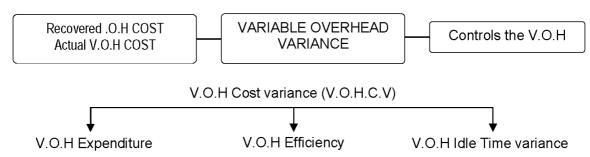
RSH = Revised Standard Hours Actual hours Re-written in standard mix]

A.Y = Actual output

R.S.Y = Revised standard output for Actual Hours

A.S.C.P.C = Average standard cost per unit of output

Note: If more than one type of labour is used then mix variance and sub-usage variance to be calculated.



If V.O.H is recovered based on labour Hours

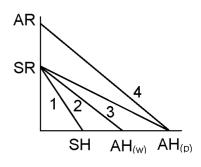
 $AH_{(P)} = 3 - 4$

V.O.H.C.V =
$$SR + SH - AR \times AH_{(P)}$$
 = 1 - 4
V.O.H Expenditure variance = $(SR - AR) \times AH_{(P)} = SR \times AH_{(P)} - AR \times AR \times AH_{(P)}$

V.O.H Efficiency variance =
$$(SH - AH_{(W)}) \times SR = SR \times SH - SR \times AH_{(W)}$$

= 1 - 2

V.O.H Idle time variance =
$$(AH_{(W)} = AH_{(P)}) \times SR = SR \times AH_{(W)} - SR \times AH_{(P)} = 2 - 3$$



If V.O.H is recovered based on units

V.O.H COST Variance = $SR \times AU - AR \times AU = 1 - 3$

V.O.H Expenditure Variance $= SR \times BU - AR \times AU = 2 - 3$

V.O.H Efficiency variance = SR x AU - SR x BU = 1 - 2

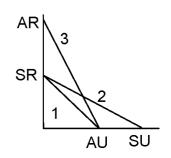
NO Idle time variance

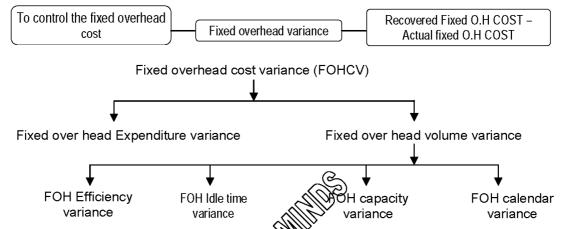
Where SR = Standard Rate per Hour

AR = Actual Rate per Hour

SU = Standard output for Actual Hours

AU = Actual out put





If Fixed over head is recovered based on Labour Hours:

F.O.H.C.V. = $SR \times SH - AR \times AH$ = 1 - 6

F.O.H Expenditure = $SR \times BH - AR \times ABS = 5 - 6$

F.O.H VOL Variance = $SR \times SH - SR \times BH$ = 1 - 5

F.O.H Efficiency variance = $SR \times SH - SR \times AH_{(M)} = 1 - 2$

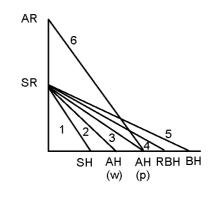
F.O.H Idle time variance = $SR \times AH_{(W)}$ - $SR \times AH_{(P)}$ = 2 - 3

F.O.H Capacity variance = $SR \times AH_{(P)}$ - $SR \times RBH$ = 3 - 4

F.O.H Cal ender variance = SR x RBH - SR x BH = 4 - 5

Where BH = Budgeted Hours

RBH = Revised Budgeted Hour for Actual days



If Fixed over Head is recovered Based on Units:

F.O.H Cost variance = $SR \times AU - AR \times AU = 1-5$

F.O.H Exp variance = $SR \times BU - AR \times AU = 4-5$

F.O.H Vol. Variance $= SR \times AU - SR \times BU = 1-4$

F.O.H Eff. variance = $SR \times AU - SR \times SU = 1-2$

F.O.H Cap Variance $= SR \times SU - SR \times RBU = 2-3$

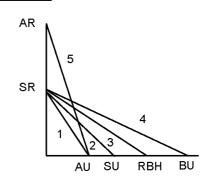
F.O.H Cal variance = SR x RBU - SR x BU = 3-4

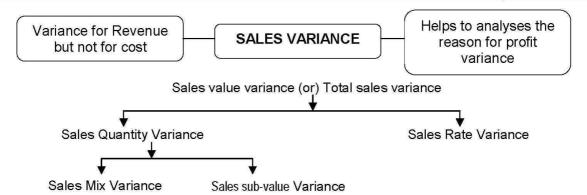
NO addle time variance

Where AU = Actual output

BU = Budgeted output

RBU = Revised Budgeted output for actual days





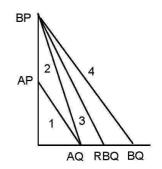
Sales value variance = AP x AQ - BP x BQ = 1-4

Sales Quantity Variance = BP x AQ - BP x BQ = 2-4

Sales Rate Variance = $AP \times AQ - BP \times AQ = 1-2$

Sales Mix Variance = $BP \times AQ - BP \times RBQ = 2-3$

Sales sub-value variance = BP x RBQ - BP x BQ =3-4



16. BUDGETARY CONTROL

Meaning: "A financial and/or quantitative statement prepared and approved prior to a defined Period of time of the policy to be pursued during that period of the purpose of attaining a given objective. It may include income, expenditure and employment of capital".

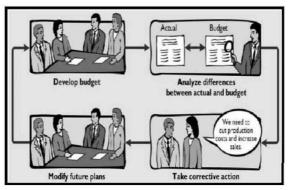
Characteristics:

- Prepared in advance
- Relates to future period
- Expressed in quantitative/ financial terms.

Objectives: To achieve firm's objectives efficiently (minimal resource) & effectively.

- Planning
- Directing and Motivating
- Controlling (Investigation, Management by Exception)

Budgetary Control



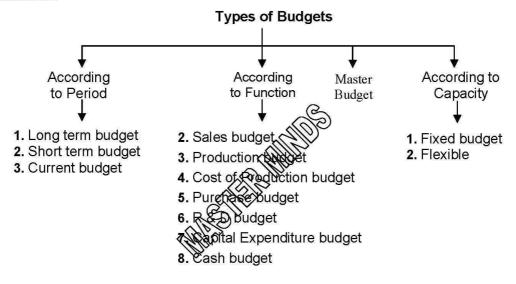
- · Budgets are useful in controlling operations
- Compare actual results with planned objectives.(variance analysis)
- Management by Exception.

Benefits of Budgeting

Thinking Ahead	Communication	Motivation
Forcing managers to look	Communicating	Providing motivation for
ahead and state their goals	management's expectations	employee s to work toward
for the future	and priorities	organizational objectives
Providing lead time to solve	Promoting cooperation and	Providing a benchmark for
potential problems	coordination between functional area s of the organization	evaluating performance

Disadvantages:

- 1. Based on estimation
- 2. Time factor
- 3. Co-operation required
- 4. Expensive
- 5. It is only managerial tool (not substitute my management)
- 6. Rigid document



Fixed Budget: it is remain unchanged irrespective of the level of activity actually achieved.

Flexible Budget: it changes according the level of activity actually achieved.

Budgeting - Master Budget

Components of the Master Budget

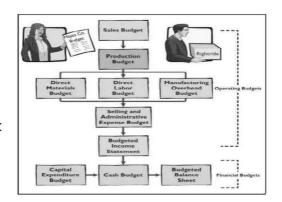
Production = no of units to be sold + Closing Stock of Finished goods – Opening stock of Finished Goods.

Raw Material consumption = Opening stock of Raw Material + Purchases – Closing stock of Raw Material

(Or)

= Production x Consumption per unit

Raw Material purchase = Raw Material Consumption + Closing Stock – Opening Stock



THE END



1. TIME VALUE OF MONEY

IMPORTANT POINTS TO BE REMEMBERED:

a) Money value (or) Nominal Value:

If you have 1000/-, it is always have equal worth.

b) Real Value: It is nothing but the purchasing power of money. It will vary from time to time, because of inflation.

Time value of money doesn't deal with Real value.

So, If time is Increasing : Money value will Increase, because of Interest.

If time is Increasing : Real value will decrease, because of Inflation.

- c) Why interest is considered:
 - i) Inflation
 - ii) Loss of opportunity Income
 - iii) Sacrifice of personal Interest.
- 1. Simple Interest I = PNR/100
- **2.** Compound Interest $I = P \times (1+r)^n$
- 3. Future value of a single Amount:

It explains the value of Re.1 invested today, after in winber of years.

 $FV = PV. FVF_{(r, n)}$

FV = Future Value

PV = Present Value

FVF = Future Value Factor

R = Rate of interest

N = Number of years

Observations:

- a) It is assumed that present value = Re.1
- b) So FVF is always greater than Re.1
- c) As the Rate of Interest (or) No. of years increases FVF is also increases (Vice-Versa)
- **d)** FVF = $(1+r)^n$ i.e., compounding
- e) As the number of compounding (P.A) increases the amount of interest increases.
- 4. Present Value of a Single Amount:-

It explains that, if the investor wants certain sum of money in Future, then how much he has to invest now?

This is Reverse calculation of FVF (i.e., Discounting)

PV = FV. PVF (r, n)

PV = Present Value R = Discounting Rate

IPCC | 36e | Fast Track Material | Financial Management (Problems)

FV = Future Value N = No. of years

PVF = Present Value Factor (or) Discounting Factor

MASTER MINDS

Observations:

- a) PV Factor is always lower than Re.1
- **b)** PV Factor = $\frac{1}{(1+r)^n}$ i.e., Discounting.
- c) As the discounting rate (or) No. of years increases present value factor decreases (Vice-Versa)
- d) PVF & FVF are Reciprocal to each other. i.e., PVF X FVF = 1
- e) PV = FV Interest.
- 5. Annuity: A series of equal and regular payments of a fixed sum of money made at equal intervals of time is called Annuity.
 - a) Future value of ordinary Annuity:
 - i) It is the sum of Future Values of each individual payment.
 - ii) It is assumed that each periodic payment is made at the end of each period
 - iii) Last payment will not earn any interest.

FV of Annuity = PP X FVAF (r,n)

Ordinary Annuity: Cash flows occur at the end of each period.

PP = Periodic Payment

FVAF = Future Value of Annuity Factor

r = Rate of Interest

n = Term of Annuity

Analysis: FVAF ≠ Sum of FVF

b) PV of ordinary Annuity:

It is the sum of Present Value of all payments

PV of Annuity = PP X PVAF (r, n)

PP = Periodic Payment

PVAF = Present Value of Annuity

r = Discounting Rate

n = Term of Annuity

Analysis: PVAF = Sum of PVF

Observations:

- a) If implicit rate of interest is greater than opportunity cost, it is advisable to accept the contract.
- b) Cash down price = Down payment + PV of Annuity
- 6. Perpetuity: An Annuity which is payable forever is called perpetuity. i.e., An infinite series of equal cash flows occurring at regular intervals.

a) PV of perpetuity =
$$\frac{AnnualCF}{r}$$

b) PV of Growing perpetuity =
$$\frac{\text{Cash Flow}}{\text{r-g}}$$

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CF = Cash Flow at the end of First year

r = Rate of Interest, g = Growth Rate (Inflation)

Observations:

As growth rate increases

- The Value of Investment will increase
- b) i.e., Money value will decrease
- c) But it seems to be growth is in increasing trend. (but Not Actual Growth)

SOME IMPORTANT FORMULAS:

1. Simple Interest :(SI) : PNR

2. Compound Interest

If Compounded Annually : $I = P(1+r)^n$

If Compounded Semi Annually : $I = P(1+\frac{r}{2})^2$

If compounded quarterly I = $P(1+\frac{r}{4})^4$

If compounded Monthly I = P $(1+\frac{r}{12})^{12}$

3. Effective rate of Interest = $(1+\frac{r}{n})^n-1$

4. Present value (PV) $: = P_0 = \frac{FV_n}{(1+i)^n} \text{ or } P_0 = FV_n (1+i)^{-n}$

5. Present value of Annuity : $PVA_n = R(PVIFA_{i,n})$

6. Future value of Annuity : $FVA_n = R(FVIFA_{i,n})$ or $FVA_n = R(FVIFA_{i,n})$

7. Present value of perpetuity : AnnualCash flow

8. Equated Annual installment of loan payable

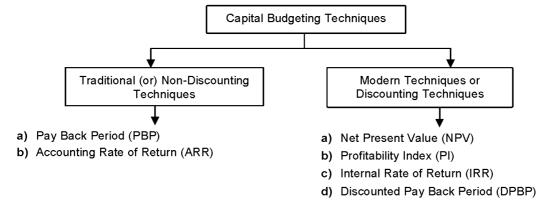
9. Present value of Annuity if steady growth rates $\frac{A}{r-g}$ $\left[1-\frac{(1+g)}{(1+r)}\right]$

10. Present value of perpetuity of steady with rate is 'g' : $\Rightarrow \frac{A}{(r-g)\%}$

2. INVESTMENT DECISIONS

Capital Budgeting is the process of evaluating and selecting long – term investments that are in line with the goal of investors' wealth maximization.

It is the process of Decision Making regarding to investment in fixed assets or capital projects.



1. Traditional Techniques:

a) Payback period: Payback period represents the length of time period required for, complete recovery of the initial investment in the project.

e) E)

PBP (Even cash flows) =
$$\frac{\text{Initial Investment}}{\text{CFAT (P.A)}}$$

i) Pay Back Period (Un-Even cash flows) = Recovered Year +
$$\frac{\text{Un recovered Amount}}{\text{CFAT for next year}}$$

Limitations:

- i) It ignores the time value of money
- ii) It failures to consider an investments total profitability i.e. it ignores cash flows after the payback period.
- iii) Organizations to place too much emphasis on short term pay back period.

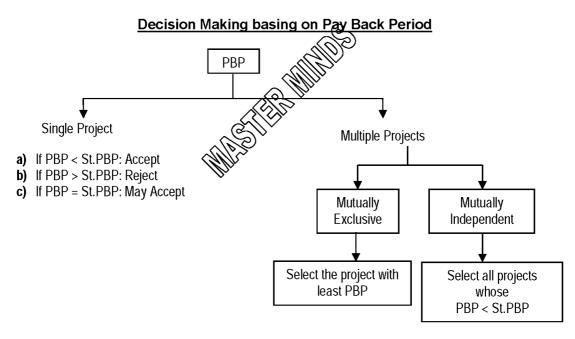
Ignoring the need to invest in long term projects that would enhance its competitive position.

Note: while calculation of cash flows for PBP, we need to reduce interest cost.

Pay Back Reciprocal:

It is a helpful tool for quickly estimating the <u>"Rate of Return"</u> of a project, provided its life is at least twice the payback period and the project generates equal amount of the annual cash inflows.

Pay Back Reciprocal =
$$\frac{\text{Avg Annualcashinflow}}{\text{InitialInvestment}}$$



b) Accounting Rate of Return (ARR):

Accounting or Average Rate of Return means the average annual yield on the project. In this method, PAT (instead of CFAT) is used for project evaluation.

i) Accounting Rate of Return (Even profits):

$$ARR = \frac{Annual Profits after Tax}{Avg. Investment in project} x100$$

ii) Accounting Rate of Return (Un -even profits):

$$ARR = \frac{Avg. Annual net Income (PAT)}{Avg. Investment} x100$$

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Avg. Investment = 1/2 (Initial cost – salvage value) + Salvage value + Additional working capital

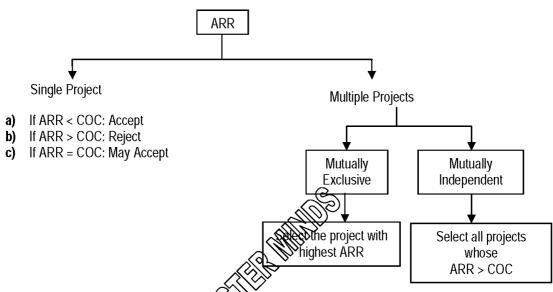
Limitations:

- i) It ignores the time value of money and considers the value of all cash flows to be equal. i.e. depreciation is considered as cash out flow expense.
- ii) This technique depends upon the method of accounting procedures that are adopted. i.e. stock valuation, method of depreciation etc....
- iii) This technique uses "Net Income" rather than "Cash flows".

Net income is useful measure of profitability.

Cash flows is better useful measure of investments performance.

Decision Making basing on ARR



2. Modern Techniques or Discounting Techniques

a) Net Present Value (NPV): The Present Value of an investment proposal is defined as the sum of the present values of all future each inflows less the sum of present values of all cash outflows associated with the proposal.

Thus: NPV = Total PV of cash inflows - PV of cash out flows

i) Steps to Estimation of NPV

Step 1: PV of cash out flows

- Investment in fixed assets
- Investment in current assets eg.: working capital

Step 2: PV of operating cash inflows

Step 3: PV of Terminal cash inflows

- NSP Net sale proceeds on sale of fixed assets
- Recovery of working capital

Step 4: NPV

- ii) Imp. Points:
 - Tax saving on capital loss shall be considered as deemed inflow.
 - Cash flows are assumed to be occurred at the end of the each year.
 - The important thing to be observed is as the cost of capital increases NPV decreases & vice versa.
 - Interest shall not be reduced while calculation of CFAT.

Note:

1. Common cost: it is a cost which cannot be attribute directly to the project. Since common cost exist even if we under take the project or not. So it is ignore for decision.

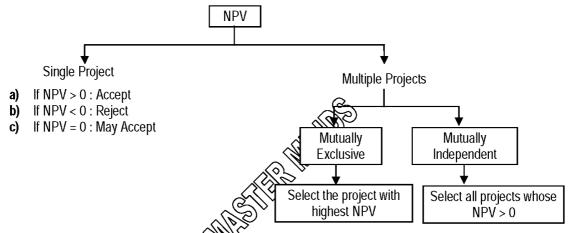
Eg.: over heads allocated, sunk cost etc.....

"Over heads allocated" which was given in the problem are only because of difference in allocation.

<u>"Sunk cost":</u> Money already spent and permanently lost. It is totally irretrievable and therefore, should be considered irrelevant to future decision

- 2. Loss of opportunity income: any income forgone due to new investment proposal shall be considered as part of operating expenditure.
- **3.** Subsidy: Tax free subsidy from the government is for the sake of establishing the industry in a backward area. Therefore it is not necessary to consider the same for calculating depreciation.
- 4. Cost of Research: It is a sunk cost, so it is irrelevant for decision making.

Decision making basing on NPV:



If the projects are mutually exclusive in case of life disparity, size disparity & cash flow disparity:

a) Annualised NPV =
$$\frac{NPV}{PVAF(r, n)}$$

b) Equated Annual Cost =
$$\frac{PV \text{ of cash out flows}}{PVAF(r, n)}$$

c) Terminal value method (or) modified NPV:

Under this method cash flows generated every year are Re-invested in another project at a predetermined rate of interest.

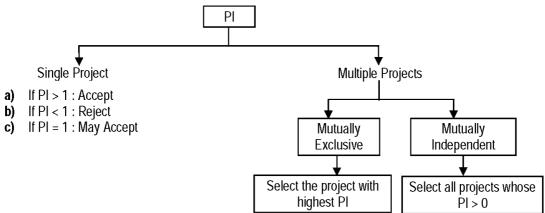
It is also assumed that each cash inflows are re-invested else where immediately until the termination of the project.

b) Profitability Index (PI) (or) Benefit – cost Ratio (or) Present value Index: Profitability index will describes "the value of return against each one rupee of investment"

Reason to calculate PI is if there is a Scarcity of funds, (i.e. Capital Rationing) PI will give order of preference of investment in projects. (i.e in case of projects are mutually exclusive)

$$PI = \frac{PV \text{ of cash Inflows}}{PV \text{ of cash out flows}}$$

Decision making under Profitability Index.



Relationship between NPV, IRR & PI:

NPV	IRR	PI
a) NPV > 0	IRR > COC	PI > 1 Accept
b) NPV < 0	IRR < COC	PI < 1 Reject
c) NPV = 0	IRR = COC	PI = 1 May Accept

c) Internal Rate of Return (IRR): Internal Rate of Return refers to the rate, which equates the present value of all cash inflows with the present value of all cash outflows associated with the project.

The Discounting rate at which NPV is zero is called IRE



Two methods for calculation of IRR:

i) Trail & Error Method

Calculation of NPV at guess rates the MPV = 0

ii) Interpolation:

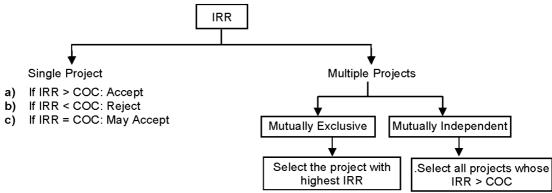
$$IRR = L_1 + \frac{NPV @ L_1}{NPV @ L_1 - NPV @ L_2} (L_2 - L_1)$$

L₁ = Lower guess rate

L₂ = Higher guess rate

It is preferable to take L₂ in such a way that NPV is negative.

Decision making basing on IRR



Financial evaluation of the Project:

1. <u>Total Fund Prospective</u>: Interest is considered as financing cost either it may long term (or) short term it must be ignored in calculation of CFAT.

2. <u>Long Term Fund Prospective</u>: only long term funds interest must be ignored. Where as short term interest should be considered in calculation of CFAT, i.e. treated as operating cost.

Some important formulae:

1. ARR

VERSION 1: ANNUAL BASIS

ARR =
$$\frac{\text{Profit after Depreciation}}{\text{Investment in the begining of the year}} \times 100$$

VERSION 2: TOTAL INVESTMENT BASIS

$$ARR = \frac{Average Annual Profit}{Investment in the begining} \times 100$$

VERSION 3: AVERAGE INVESTMENT BASIS

$$ARR = \frac{Average Annual Profit (after tax)}{Average investment in the project} \times 100$$

Where, Average investment = ½ (Initial Cost + Installation Expenses – Salvage value) + Salvage value + Additional Working Capital.

2. Pay Back period

a) In care of Equal annual each inflows:

= Initial Investment
Annual cash

b) Incase of unequal cash inflows = (year up to which cumulative CFAT is < Total cash outflow)

= Total cash outflow - cumulative CFAT of the year in which cumulative CFAT < Total cash outflow CFAT in next year following the year for which cumulative CFAT has been considered in numbers

3. Discounted pay Back Period

(Same as above, except Time value is considered here)

4. Net present value:

NPV: Present value of cash Inflow - Present value of cash outflow

5. Annualized Equivalent present value: = $\frac{\text{Total present value}}{\text{PVAF}(r\%, n \text{ years})}$

6. Internal Rate of Ration (IRR) = LR + $\frac{NPV \text{ at LR}}{NPV \text{ at LR} - NPV \text{ at HR}} X (HR - LR)$

7. Profitability Index (PI) : Total Present Value of cash inflows

Total Present Value of cash outflows

8. Payback reciprocal : Average Annual Cash Inflow Initial investment

9. Present value Index : NetPresent value Initial cash outflow

10. Rate of Return (K) : $\frac{(p_1 - p_0) + D1}{p_0}$

1. Conflicts of NPV Vs. IRR:

- a) Having mutually exclusive relationship between the projects.
- **b)** Having disparity of two projects.

They are:

- a) Size disparity difference in investment
- b) Life disparity difference in life of project
- c) Cash flow disparity difference in cash inflows.

Resolving the conflict: With the help of Incremental IRR

Decision: if incremental IRR > COC accept the project

Imp. Points:

- a) The objective of financial management is to maximize the shareholders wealth.
- b) NPV ranks the proposals in accordance with this objective.
- c) Therefore it is beneficial to select the project being preferred by NPV

2. Replacement Decisions: 2 approaches

a) Total approach: consider total cost of cash out flows and total value of operating & terminal cash in flows

b) Incremental approach: considering incremental cases lows.

Step: 1 NSP of existing asset as on today (works)

Step: 2 PV of incremental cash out flows

Step: 3 Incremental depreciation (working)

Step: 4 PV of incremental operation cash inflows

Step: 5 NSP of existing & new asset if sold at the end of project life (working)

Step: 6 Incremental NPV = (step:4 + step:5) - step: 2

Conclusion: if the incremental NPV is positive, it is beneficial to replace the existing machine with new machine.

4. COST OF CAPITAL

- 1. Cost of Capital: The minimum rate of return that the organization must earn in order to satisfy the overall rate of return required by its investors. It is also called as Discounting Rate cut-off rate, hurdle rate, minimum rate of return etc.
- 2. Cost of each Source of capital is called Specific cost of capital.

When these specific costs are <u>combined</u> for all the source of capital, then we arrive at " <u>overall cost of capital</u>" for a business.

- 3. The organization should earn in excess of cost of capital to increase its market value.
- 4. Interest is charge against profit.

Dividends are appropriation of profits.

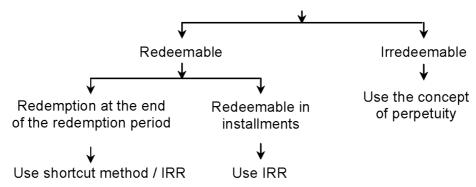
5. Any payment towards interest will reduce the profit and ultimately the companies tax liability would decrease. This phenomenon is called "<u>Tax Shield"</u>

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1. Cost of Debt:

Cost of debt, Bonds, Debentures, etc.



- a) Cost of Irredeemable
 - i) Kd (Post tax) = $\frac{I(1-Tax)}{NP/MP_0}$

Where, I = Annual Interest

NP = Net proceeds

MP₀ = Market price as on today

ii)
$$K_d$$
 (Pre tax) = $\frac{I}{NP/MP_0}$

- b) Cost of Redeemable Debt: (when redemption at the end of the period with Lump sum)
 - i) Short cut method $Kd = \frac{I(1-Tax) + RV RV}{RV RV}$

K_d = Cost of debt after tax

I = annual Interest

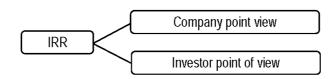
RV = Redemption Value

NP = Net Proceeds

N = Life of debentures

c) Cost of Redeemable Debt: (when redemption on installment basis)

Cost of Redeemable debt = IRR



Note: When flotation cost exists advisable to calculate IRR from investor point view only.

i) Net Proceeds:

Particulars	Amt.
a) Face Value	XXX
b) (-) Discount/+ Premium	XX
c) Issue Price	XXX
d) (-) Floatation Cost	XX
e) Net Proceeds	XXX

ii) Floatation Cost: It is to be calculated as per the direction given in the problem.

If there is no specific direction given in the problem then Floatation Cost is to be calculated on "<u>Face Value</u>" or "<u>Issue Price</u>" which ever is higher.

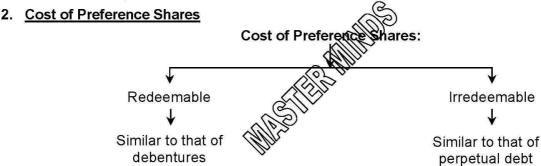
iii) Cost of Debt:

Situation	Cost Increase / Decrease
a. If issue at premium	•
b. If issue at Discount	. ↑
c. If redeemed at premium	†
d. It redeemed at discount	* •↓
e. Because of Tax Rate	1
f. Because of Flotation Cost	· •

- iv) Redeemable Debentures: Unless otherwise stated Debentures will be redeemed at face value.
- v) Theoretical Market Price (or) equilibrium Return: It is the sum of PV of Future economic benefits discounted at investor expected rate of return.

Note:

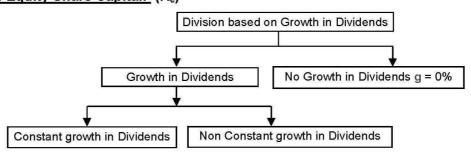
- 1. If theoretical Market price is lower than current Market Price, it means that the values of debentures are over valued in the open market. Therefore it is advisable to sell the debentures.
- 2. If Investors expected rate of return increases fair price of an asset will get decreases and vice versa
- 3. Issue Price / Market Price: It is the sum of present value of all Future cash inflows discounted at investors expected rate of return.



- a) Cost of Irredeemable preference shares $Kp = \frac{PD}{NP}$
 - Kp = Cost of Preference Share Capital
 - PD = Annual Preference Dividend
 - NP = Net Proceeds (i.e., Market Price Flotation Cost)
- **b)** Cost of Redeemable Preference Shares: $Kp = \frac{PD + \frac{RV NP}{N}}{\frac{RV + NP}{2}}$

3. Cost of Equity Share Capital

a) Cost of Equity Share Capital: (Ke)



$Y_0 = D_0 = 2$	$Y_0 = D_0 = 2$
Y_1 g = 10% D_1 = 2.20	$Y_1 = D_1 = 2.2 g = 10\%$
Y_2 g = 10% D_2 = 2.42	$Y_2 = D_2 = 2.31 g = 5\%$
Y_3 g = 10% D_3 = 2.662	$Y_3 = D_3 = 2.49 g = 8\%$

b) Estimation of E.P.S:

	Particulars	Amount
a)	EBIT	XXXX
b)	Less: Interest	XXX
c)	EBT	XXXX
d)	Less: Tax	XXX
e)	EAT/EASH.	XXX
f)	Less: Preference Dividend:	XXX
g)	EA Eq. Sh.	XX
h)	No. of Shares	XXX
i)	EPS=EAESH/No. of Equity shatters	Xxx

- i) Dividend pay out Ratio = EPS (1-Retained Earnings Ratio)
- ii) No Growth in Dividends: i.e., EPS = DPS

iii) In case of Growth in Dividends:
$$Ke = \frac{DPS_1}{MP_0} + g$$
 [DPS₁ = DPS₀ (1+g)]

Ke = Cost of equity

DPS₁ = Expected Dividend at the end of MP₀ = Current Market price $\therefore MP = \frac{DPS_1}{}$

$$\therefore MP = \frac{DPS_1}{Ke - g}$$

(iv) Return on Investment in Equity See Ke =
$$\frac{DPS_1 + (P_1 - P_0)}{P_0} \times 100$$

i.e., Return = Dividend Yield % + Capital Gain Yield %

c) Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM):

$$Ke = R_f + \beta (R_m - R_f)$$

Ke = Cost of equity under CAPM

R_f = Risk free Rate of Return

R_m = Return on market portfolio

 β = Risk is measured with β

$$(R_m - R_f) = Risk Premium$$

<u>Note:</u> Always Market Risk is 1. $\beta_{MKT} = 1$

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Market Price under CAPM

$$MP = \frac{DPS_1}{Ke-g}$$

d) Cost of Retained earnings: Cost of Retaining Earning is the opportunity cost of dividends foregone by Shareholders. Cost of Reserves or Retained Earnings may be measured using – (a) Dividend Price + Growth Approach, or (b) Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) Approach.

i) According to growth model:
$$K_r = K_e = \frac{DPS_1}{MP} + g$$

ii) According to CAPM:
$$K_e = R_f + \beta (R_m - R_f)$$

Note:

- 1. Cost of retained earnings may be considered equivalent to the return forgone by the equity shareholders and it is the opportunity cost of funds not available for reinvestment by the individual shareholders.
- 2. If the cost of retained earnings is not possible to find out in company point of view directly. The investors rate of return has to be calculated and it has to be considered as cost of Retained earnings.

$$\therefore$$
 Kr = r (1- brokerage fee) X (1 – Tax Rate)

e) Realized Yield approach: Investor is interested in Current Dividend & Capital Appreciation (increase in share price) over a specified time – frame.

$$K_e = \frac{DPS_1 + (MPS_t - MPS_{t-1})}{MPS_{t-1}}$$

Numerator = Current Yr Dividend + Increase in MPS in Syear. Denominator = Last Year MPS.

4. Weighted Average cost of capital: (WACC)

It is defined as the Overall Cost of Capital computed by reference to the proportion of each component of capital as weights. It is denoted by K_{\circ} .

i) Weighted Average Cost of Capital (using book value weights):

$$= \left(\frac{\text{ESC}}{\text{TC}} \times K_{\text{e}}\right) + \left(\frac{\text{RE}}{\text{TC}} \times K_{\text{r}}\right) + \left(\frac{\text{PSC}}{\text{TC}} \times K_{\text{P}}\right) + \left(\frac{\text{Debt}}{\text{TC}} \times K_{\text{d}}\right)$$

Where, TC = ESC + Retained earnings (RE) +PSC+ Debt (as per Balance sheet)

ii) Weighted Average cost of capital (using Market Value weights):

$$= \left(\frac{\mathsf{ESC}}{\mathsf{TC}} \mathsf{x} \; \mathsf{K_e}\right) + \left(\frac{\mathsf{PSC}}{\mathsf{TC}} \mathsf{x} \; \mathsf{K_P}\right) + \left(\frac{\mathsf{Debt}}{\mathsf{TC}} \mathsf{x} \; \mathsf{K_d}\right)$$

Where, TC = ESC + PSC + Debt (as per Market Quotations)

SOME IMPORTANT FORMULAS

- 1. Cost of Debt (k_a)
 - a) Cost of perpetual debt: $K_i = \frac{1}{NP}$

I: Interest Rate x Face Value.

b) Cost of debt Redeemable $K_d = \frac{I(1-t) + (RV - NP)/N}{(RV + NP)/2}$

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2. Cost of Preference Share Capital

a) Cost of preference shares

$$K_p$$
: $\frac{Div_1(1+DDT)}{NP}$

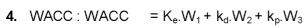
b) Cost of pref. shares Redeemable in lump sum

i) Under Approximation Method

$$K_{p}: \frac{PD(1+DDT) + \left(\frac{RV-NP}{N}\right)}{\frac{RV+NP}{2}}$$

ii) Under Present value Method

- 3. Cost of Equity (K_e)
 - a) If there is no growth $(k_e) = \frac{DPS_1}{MP_0}$
 - **b)** In case of Earnings (k_e) $\frac{EPS_1}{MP_0}$
 - If there is constant growth in dividends perpetually (k_e) : $\frac{DPS_1}{MP_0} + g$
 - c) Realized yield Approal (k_e) : $\frac{DPS_1 + (P_1 P_0)}{P_0}X100$
 - d) Capital Asset Pricing Model CAPM)(k_e) $K_e = R_f + b (R_m R_f)$
 - e) Cost of Retained Earrings $K_s = \frac{D_1}{P_0} + G$



WACC = Weighted average cost of capital

= Cost of equity capital

= After tax cost of debt

K_p = Cost of preference share

W₁ = Proportion of equity capital in capital structure

 W_2 = Proportion of debit in capital structure

= Proportion of preference capital in capital in capital structure

5. CAPITAL STRUCTURE

Capital structure refers to the mix of source from where the long – term funds required in a business may be raised. It refers to the proportion of Debt, Preference Capital and Equity Capital.

a) Estimation of EPS & Market Price:

Particulars	Amount
a) EBIT	XXXX
b) Less: Interest	XXX
c) EBT	XXXX
d) Less: Tax	XXX
e) EAT/EASH.	XXX
f) Less: Preference Dividend:	XXX
g) EA Eq. Sh.	XX
h) No. of Shares	XXX
i) EPS=EAESH/No. of Equity shatters	XXX
j) P/E Ratio	XXX
k) Market price = EPS x P/E Ratio	XXX

Note:

- a) EBIT is independent of Capital Structure
- b) Optimum Capital Structure:
 - i) Where cost is minimum
 - ii) Where the EPS, MP is maximum
- c) EPS is maximum in case of funds raised through debt.
- 1. EBIT = EBT + Interest
- 2. Return on Capital Employed = $\frac{EBIT}{Capital Employed} \times 100$
- Capital Employed after expansion = Capital Employed before expansion + Amount Required for expansion.
- 4. Financial Indifference Point:

It is the level of EBIT at which EPS will be same under both the plans or options.

$$Indifferent point = \frac{\left[(X - Interest)(1 - tax) \right] - Pre.Div.}{no. of Equity shares} = \frac{\left[(X - Interest)(1 - tax) \right] - Pre.Div.}{no. of Equity shares}$$

5. Financial Break even Point:

It is the level of EBIT at which EPS = 0, EA Eq.Sh = 0

i.e., EBIT = Fixed Financial Commitment

Financial Break even Point:

- a) In case of Firm having Equity Shares: E
- b) In case of Firm having Debt : EBIT = The est
- c) It firm having Preference share: $\frac{1}{1 \text{Tax}} = \frac{\text{Preference Dividend}}{(1 \text{Tax})}$

A.
$$K_e = \frac{DPS}{MP}$$

B.
$$K_e = \frac{EPS}{MP}$$
 (In case of 100% Pay out Ratio)

C.
$$MP = \frac{EPS}{K_{e}}$$

D. MV of Eq. =
$$\frac{EA Eq. Sh.}{K_e}$$

E.
$$K_e = \frac{EA Eq. Sh.}{MV \text{ of Eq.}}$$
 (MV of Equity $\approx \frac{1}{K_e}$)

Relationship:

F. MV of Debt =
$$\frac{Interest}{K_i}$$
 (MV of debt $\approx \frac{1}{K_i}$)

Relationship:

If $K_i \uparrow$, MV of debt \downarrow

If K_i↓, MV of debt ↑

G. MV of Firm = MV of Equity + MV of Debt

MV of Firm =
$$\frac{\text{EBIT}}{K_{\varnothing}}$$
 (MV of Firm $\propto \frac{1}{K_{\varnothing}}$)

Relationship:

If $K_{\varphi} \downarrow$, MV of Firm \uparrow

If $K_{\varphi}\uparrow$, MV of Firm \downarrow

H. MV of Levered Firm = MV of un-levered Firm + Tax shield on Debt

Cost of Equity in a Levered firm = $K_e = Ko + \frac{D}{F}(Ko - K_d)$

Some Important Formulas:

1. WACC (K0) Under NI approach
$$K_0 \colon \frac{E.B.I.T.}{Value\, of \, the \, firm}$$

2. Equity capitalization Rate

$$K_e = \frac{E}{Market \text{ value of Equity}}$$

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3. WACC (K₀) under traditional approach

 $K_o = K_e X \frac{S}{V} + K_d X \frac{D}{V}$

4. MM-Approach for unlevered from

	No Tax	<u>Tax</u>
Market value (v ₀₎	V - NOI	v _ NOI(1-T)
O	$V_u - \frac{V_u}{K_e}$	$V_u - \frac{V_u}{K_e}$
Overall capitalization Rate (k ₀)	: k _e as them is no debt	=k as there is no debt

5. MM Approach for levered firm

	No taxes Exist	Taxes exist
Market value (v _o)	$V_i = V_u$	V _{i=} v _u +tax shield on debt
Equity capitalization Rate (K _e)	$K_e = \frac{NOI - I}{V_i - D}$	$K_e = \frac{\text{NOI-I-Tax}}{\text{NOI-I-Tax}}$
Overall capitalization Rate	$V_{\rm e} = \frac{V_{\rm i} - D}{V_{\rm i} - D}$	$V_{e} = \frac{V_{i} - D}{V_{i} - D}$
(K _o)	$K_o = K_o$ of unlevered firm $K_o = K_e \times S/V + K_d \times D/V$	$K_o = (\frac{NOI - I(1 - tax) + I}{V_i}$
		$K_o = K_e \times S/V + K_d \times D/V$

6. LEVERAGES

The term Leverage in general refers to a relationship between two interrelated variables. In financial analysis it represents the influence of one financial variable over some other related financial variable. These financial variables may be costs, output, sales revenue, Earnings before Interest and Tax (EBIT), Earnings per share (EPS) etc.

1. a) Operating Leverage = $\frac{\text{Contribution}}{\text{EBIT}}$

Points to be Remember:

- i) The risk arises due to Operating fixed costs is measured by using Operating Leverage.
- ii) Operating Leverage is also known as operating risk.
- iii) Operating Leverage depends upon fixed costs in our Cost Structure.

b) Degree of Operating Leverage =
$$\frac{\% \text{ Change in EBIT}}{\% \text{ Change in sales}}$$
 (or) $\frac{\frac{\text{Increase in EBIT}}{\text{EBIT}}}{\text{Increase in sales}}$

- i) For every 1% change in sales, EBIT will change by operating Leverage times
- ii) If there are no fixed costs in our cost structure operating leverage is one.
- iii) If fixed costs are high operating leverage will also high and vice versa.
- iv) Operating profit is independent of changes in the bottal Structure.

Points to be Remember:

- i) The risk arises due to fixed financial commitments is measured by using Financial Leverage.
- ii) Financial Leverage is also known as Financial Risk.
- iii) Financial Leverage depends upon Fixed financial commitments in our Capital Structure.
- iv) For every 1% change in EBIT, EPS changes by Financial Leverage times.
- v) If there are no fixed financial commitments in our capital structure then Financial Leverage = 1
- vi) If fixed financial commitments are high, financial leverage will also be high and Vice Versa.
- **3.** a) Combined Leverage = Operating Leverage X Financial Leverage.

$$(\text{or}) \ \frac{\text{Contribution}}{\text{EBT}}$$
 b) Degree of Combined Leverage =
$$\frac{\% \ \text{ChangeinEPS}}{\% \ \text{ChangeinSales}}$$

Points to be Remember:

- i) The risk arises due to both Operating Fixed cost and Fixed financial commitments is measured by using Combined Leverage.
- ii) Combined Leverage is also known as combined risk / total risk / Business risk.

- iii) Combined leverage depends upon both Operating fixed cost and Fixed financial commitments in our Capital Structure.
- iv) For every 1% change in sales, EPS changes by more than 1%.
- v) If there are no fixed financial commitments and Fixed Operating costs in our capital structure and cost structure then combined leverage will be 1.
- vi) If fixed costs and fixed financial commitments are high, combined leverage will also be high and Vice Versa.

Some important formulas

1. Operating Leverages:

a. Operative leverage
$$=$$
 $\frac{\% \text{ change in EBIT}}{\% \text{ change in sales}}$

b. Degree of Operative leverage =
$$\frac{\text{Contribution}}{\text{E.B.I.T}}$$

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2. Financial leverage:

a. Financial Leverage =
$$\frac{\% \text{ Change in E.P.S}}{\% \text{ Change in E.B.I.T.}} = \frac{\text{Increase in E.P.S./E.P.S}}{\text{Increase in E.B.I.T./E.B.I.T.}}$$

b. DLF =
$$\frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{EBT}}$$

(If there is no pref. dividend)

c. DLF =
$$\frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{EBT} - \left(\frac{\text{Pr ef. dividend}}{1 - \text{Tax}}\right)}$$

If there is preference dividend

3. Combined Leverage:

a.
$$DLF = \frac{\% \text{ change in EPS}}{\% \text{ change in Sales}}$$



$$= \frac{Contribution}{E.B.I.T} \times \frac{E.B.I.T}{EBT} = \frac{Contribution}{EBT}$$

4. Indifference point:

$$\frac{\left(\mathsf{EBIT} - \mathsf{I}_1\right)\left(1 - \mathsf{T}\right) - \mathsf{PD}}{\mathsf{ES}_1} = \frac{\left(\mathsf{EBIT} - \mathsf{I}_2\right)\left(1 - \mathsf{T}\right) - \mathsf{PD}}{\mathsf{ES}_2}$$

5. Indifferent point under uncommitted EP_{S} approach

$$\frac{(EBIT - I_1)(1-T)-PD-S_1}{ES_1} = \frac{(EBIT - I_2)(1-T)-PD-S_2}{ES_2}$$

6. Financial Breakeven point:

$$FBEP = Int. + \frac{PD}{(1-T)}$$

7. ROE without using ROI rate:

$$ROE = \frac{EAESH}{Equity shareholders funds} \times 100$$

7. WORKING CAPITAL MANGEMENT

- 1. **Meaning:** Working capital is the amount of funds needed by an enterprise to finance its day to day operation. It is the part of capital employed in short-term operation such as raw materials, semi finished products, sundry debtors.
 - a) Current Assets are called as Gross Working Capital
 - **b)** CA CL = Net working capital
 - c) Working capital requirement is based on level of activity
- 2. Estimation of working capital
 - a) Ratio of sales
- b) Ratio of fixed assets/investment
- c) Operating cycle

Operating cycle / Working Capital Cycle: Working Capital Cycle or Cash Cycle or Operating Cycle indicates the length of time between a company's paying for materials, entering into stock and receiving the cash from sales of finished goods. It can be determined by adding the number of days required for each stage in the cycle.

Operating cycle (or) cash cycle:

Operating Cycle = R + W + F + D - C

Where, R = Raw Material storage Period,

W = Work-in-progress holding period

F = Finished goods storage period,

D = Debtors collection period

C = Credit period availed

a) Accounts receivables are analyzed withe average no. of days it takes to collect.

- b) Inventory is analyzed by the average no. of days it takes to turn over the sale of a product (i.e. from the point it comes in the store to the point it is converted into cash)
- c) Accounts payable are analyzed by the average no. of days of credit period allowed by suppler of raw material, time lag in payment of wages and over heads
- **d)** RM HP (or) RMCP: Raw material holding period: It is the time gap between Date of purchase of RM to Date of Issue for production
- e) <u>WIP HP (or) WIPCP: WIP conversion period</u>: It is the time gap between Date of commencement/Issue for production to Date of completion into Finished goods

Note:

- i) Assuming that production is in continuous process
- ii) Depreciation is excluded

Cost = Raw Material + wages + O.H (Factory)

- f) FGHP: Finished goods holding period: It is the time gap between Date of completion of production to Date of sale of finished goods
- g) <u>DCP: Debtors collection period:</u> It is the time gap between Date of sale of finished goods to Date of realization of cash from debtors
 - ∴ Total operating cycle = RMPH +WIPCP + FGHP +DCP
- h) <u>CPP: Creditors payment period:</u> It is the <u>time lag</u> in payments to suppliers of raw materials and average time lag for payment of wages & O.H

3. Estimation of Current Assets:

a) Raw material Inventory:

 $\frac{\text{Budgeted production (in units)} \times \text{R.M. Cost per unit} \times \text{Avg. Inventory Holding Period}}{12 \, \text{months (365 days)}}$

b) Work – in progress inventory:

Budgetedproduction(in units) x Cost per unit of WIP x Avg.time span of WIP inventory(months/days)

12 months(365 days)

Note:

- i) Administrative overheads are ignored
- ii) Depreciation is excluded
- iii) It is assumed that raw material is completely issued at the start of production and labour, overheads are assumed to be incurred to the extent of 50%

c) Finished goods:

Budgeted Prod. (in units) x Manf. Cost p.u. (Excl. Dep.) x Finished Goods Holding Period (Months/days) 12 months (365 days)

Note:

Cost of production (or) Cost of Goods sold means = Raw material + labour + Factors OH i.e. Excluding depreciation & profit margin

- i) Production Cost = RM + DL + F.O.H
- ii) Cost of goods sold = Production cost
- iii) Cost of sales = production cost + Admin cost
- iv) Gross profit = Sales Production cost
- v) Net Profit = Sales Cost of slaes

d) Debtors:

Budgeted Credit Sales (in units) x Cost et Cales p.u. (Excl. Dep.) x Avg. Debt. Coll. Period (months/days)

e) Cash/Bank balance:

Minimum desired cash and bank balances to be maintained by the firm has to be added in the current assets for the computation of working capital

4. Estimation of Current Liabilities:

a) Trade creditors =

Budgeted Prod (in units) x Raw Material cost p.u. x Credit Period allowed by Creditors (months/days)

12 months (365 days)

b) Direct wages =

Budgeted yearly Prod. (in units) x Direct Labour cost p.u. x Avg. time – lag in payment of wages (months/days)

12 months (365 days)

c) Over heads =

Budgeted yearly Prod. (in units) x Overhead cost p.u. x Finished Goods holding period (months/days) 12 months (365 days)

Note:

- i) The amount of over heads may be separately calculated for different types of overheads
- ii) In case of selling O.H, the relevant item would be sales volume instead of production volume.
- iii) If the wages & O.H paid on 1st day of each month for the expenditure related to the previous month.

Thus on the 1st day of each month outstanding wages will be zero. Last day of the month 30 days of wages will be out standing. So it is required to an average.

Assumptions:

- 1. There is no change in level of activity
- 2. There is no change in cost structure
- 3. There is no change in various components of operating cycle.
- 4. Year we assumed that 52 weeks/360 days/ 12 months
- 5. 100% sales are on credit basis unless specified.
- 6. 100% purchases are on credit basis unless specified
- 7. It is assumed that raw material is completely issued at the start of production and labour, O.H are assumed to be incurred to the extent of 50%
- 8. WIP, FG, Debtors are valued at cash cost basis
- 9. Finished goods are valued on the basis of cash cost of production
- 10. Debtors valued at cash cost of sales

Debtors Valuation:

- 1. Full cost basis: valued at cost of sales (Including Depreciation)
- 2. Cash cost basis: Excluding Depreciation
- 3. Full value basis: Selling price

Valued at cash cost basis is preferable.

Imp. Points:

1. RM consumption = opening + purchases – closing

If the organization is newly formed, there was no opening stock

∴RM Consumed = RM issued for production

RM issued for production = RM involved in + RM required for production of F.G

2. The quantity of material in process (will not change due to double shift working.

Since the work start in the first shift will be completed in the second shift

3. Some time W.I.P can be valued at prime cost as per the company policy.

Prime cost = RM cost + Wages (Fixed + Variable)

Formulas:

- 1. Rate of return on total assets = $\frac{EBIT}{Total Asset}$
- Net working capital = current assets Current Liabilities
- 3. Current assets to fixed assets ratio = $\frac{\text{Current Assets}}{\text{Fixed Assets}}$
- 4. Risk Return trade off:
 - a) Net working capital (or) current ratio is a measure of Risk
 - b) Rate of return on total assets is a measure of Return.

MPBF:

 $Method - I = 0.75 \times (CA-CL)$

Method – II = $(0.75 \times CA)$ – CL

Method – III = $[0.75 \times (CA-CCA)]$ – CL

CCA = Core current assets (i.e. permanent current assets)

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Operating cycle:

- 1. Net operating cycle (NOC) = RMCP + WIP CP + FGCP + RCP DP
 - a) RMCP = $\frac{\text{Avg. RM Inventory}}{\text{RM consumed during the year}} \times 365 \text{ days}$
 - **b)** WIP CP = $\frac{\text{Avg. W.I.P Inventory}}{\text{Total cost of production}} \times 365 \text{ days}$
 - c) FGCP = $\frac{\text{Avg. FG Inventory}}{\text{Total cost of production}} \times 365 \text{ days}$
 - d) DCP (or) RCP = $\frac{\text{Avg.Debtors}}{\text{Total Credit sales}} \times 365 \text{ days}$
 - e) DP = $\frac{\text{Avg.Creditors}}{\text{Total credit Purchases}} x 365 \text{ days}$

DCP = Debtors collection period

RCP = Receivables conversion period

DP = Deferral period

(or) cash turnover

- 2. No. of operating cycles in a year = $\frac{365 \text{ days}}{\text{Net operating cycles in a}}$
- 3. Amount of working capital required = $\frac{\text{Annual operating cost}}{\text{No. of operating cycles}}$
- 4. Optimum cash balance:

Baumol's Model
$$c = \sqrt{\frac{2FT}{r}}$$

C = optimum cash balance

F = Annual funds requirement

T = Transaction cost

R = Rate of interest per rupee per annum

Miller- ORR Model:
$$Z = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3TV}{4i}}$$
 or $Z = [3TV/4i]^{1/3}$

Where, T = Transaction cost of conversion

V = Variance of daily cash flows,

© = Daily % interest rate on investments.

L = lower limit

R = Return Level = L + Z H = Upper limit = 3Z + L Spread = H - L Average Cash Balance = (4R - L)/3

- 5. Cost of not awaiting cash discount = $\frac{d}{1-d} \times \frac{365}{n-p}$
 - d = cash discount
 - n = Net period in days
 - p = Discount period in days

Some Important Formulae

- 1. Working capital = Current Assets Current Liabilities
- 2. Gross operating cycle = R + W + F + D
- 3. Net operating cycle = R + W + F + D C
- 4. Average raw material storage period = Average stock of rawmaterial

 Averagecost of raw material consumption per day
- 5. Average WIP holiday period = $\frac{\text{Average stock of WIP}}{\text{Average cost of WIP per day}}$
- 6. Average finished goods storage period = $\frac{\text{Average stock of FG's}}{\text{Average cost of goods produced per day}}$
- 7. Average debtor's collection period = $\frac{\text{Average trade debtors}}{\text{Averagecost of credit sale per day}}$
- 8. Average creditor's payment period = $\frac{\text{Average trade creditors}}{\text{Average cost of costs}} \text{ sales per day}$
- 9. Average time log in payment of expenses = Average expenses per day
- **10.** No. of operating cycles in a year = $\frac{\text{No. of days in a year}}{\text{Net operating cycle}}$
- **11.** Annual integer saved in case of contraction bankers = (Average collection per day x Reduction in mailing and processing time) x Rate of integer p.a
- **12.** Economic lot size under Boumals model = $\sqrt{\frac{2AT}{H}}$
- **13.** No. of lots per year = $\frac{\text{Total annual cash requirement}}{\text{Economic lot size}}$
- **14.** Economic lot frequency = $\frac{365 \text{ days}}{\text{No. of lots per year}}$
- **15.** Total annual transaction and holding costs at economics lot size = $\sqrt{2ATH}$
- 16. Value of 'z' under Miller Orr-model
 - i. $Z = \frac{\sqrt[3]{3 \times TV \times daily \ cash flow \ variance}}{Holding \ cost \ (i.e. \ daily \ int. \ rate)}$
 - ii. Upper limit = 3Z + L Return point = L + Z Average cash balance = $\frac{(4R-L)}{3}$

8. FINANCIAL RATIO ANALYSIS

Financial Analysis:

Entities interested in Financial Statements Analysis:

Financial statements consist of

- 1. Profit and Loss Account
- 2. Balance sheet and
- 3. Cash flow statement, wherever applicable.

Financial statement Analysis is a meaningful interpretation of Financial Statements, in order to meet the information requirements of the parties who use such financial information.

The users of financial information include:

- 1. Management: For day to day decision making and also for performance evaluation.
- **2. Proprietor / shareholders:** For analyzing performance, profitability and financial position, prospective investors require track record of performance.
- 3. Lenders: Bank & financial Institutions for determining financial position of the company, Debt service coverage, etc.
- 4. Suppliers: to determine the credit worthiness of the company in order to grant credit.
- **5. Customers:** to know the general business viability before entering into long-term contracts and arrangements.
- 6. Government: to ensure prompt collection of direct and motivated tax revenues, to evaluate performance and contribution to social objectives.
- 7. Research Scholars: for study, research and analysis purposes

Types of Financial Statements Analysis:

Financial Statements Analysis may be of following types

1. Internal and External Analysis:

	Internal Analysis	External Analysis
a)	It is done within the company, i.e. by the corporate finance Department	It is done by outside parties Eg: Bankers, Investors etc.
b)	It is more extensive & detailed. It looks into all aspects of functioning and performance, viz. Profitability, Liquidity, Solvency, Coverage, Leverage, Turnover, and overall Return	It is restricted according to the requirements of the user. For example, a trade creditor may be interested in the general profitability and financial standing. A lender may be interested in Debt service coverage, Interest coverage, etc.

2. Inter-Firm and Intra-Firm analysis:

Inter-Firm analysis	Intra-Firm analysis
It involves comparison of Financial Statements of one Firm, with other firms in the same industry.	It involves comparison of Financial Statements of one firm for different time periods or different divisions of the firm for the same year.

3. Horizontal and Vertical Analysis:

	Horizontal Analysis	Vertical Analysis
a)	It involves comparison of financial statements of one year with other years.	It involves analysis of relationship between various items in the financial statements of one year.
b)	Items are compared on a one-to-one basis, e.g. sales increase, comparative net profit for 2 years, etc.	Relationship between items i.e. ratios (or) percentages are considered under this analysis

Techniques of Financial Statement Analysis:

Some techniques of financial statement analysis. are-

1. Ratio analysis.

2. Cash flow statements.

Covered in Inter (IPC) Syllabus.

- 3. Funds flow statements.
- Common size statements.
- 5. Trend Analysis.

Not covered in Inter (IPC) Syllabus.

6. Value Added Statements.

RATIO ANALYSIS

Importance of Ratio Analysis:

Ratio Analysis is a useful tool in the following aspects –

- **1. Evaluation of Liquidity:** The ability of a Firm to meet its short-term payment commitments is called liquidity. Current Ratio and Quick Ratio help to assess the short-term solvency (liquidity) of the Firm.
- 2. Evaluation of Profitability: Profitability Ratios, i.e. Gross Profit Ratio, Operating Profit Ratio, Net Profit Ratio are basic indicators of the profitability of the firm. In addition, various profitability indicators like Return on Capital Employed (ROCE), Earnings Per Share (EPS), Return on Assets (ROA), etc., are used to assess the financial performance.
- 3. Evaluation of Operating Efficiency: Ratios throw Eight on the degree of efficiency in the management and utilization of assets and resources. These are indicated by Activity (or) Performance (or) Turnover Ratios, Eg. Stock Turnover Ratio, Detrois Turnover Ratio, Fixed Assets Turnover Ratio, etc. These indicate the ability of the firm to generate revenue (sales) per rupee of investment in its assets.
- 4. Evaluation of Financial Strength: Long term solvency (or) financial strength is indicated by capital structure ratios like Debt-Equity Ratio Cearing Ratio, Leverage Ratios, etc. These ratios signify the effect of various sources of finance Debt, preference and Equity. They also show whether the firm is exposed to serious financial strain (b) is justified in the use of debt funds.
- 5. Inter-Firm & Intra-Firm comparison: Comparison of the Firm's ratios with the industry average will help evaluate the Firm's position vis-à-vis the industry. It will help in analyzing the Firm's strengths and weaknesses and take corrective action. Trend Analysis of ratios over a period of years will indicate the direction of the firm's financial policies.
- **6. Budgeting:** Ratios are not mere post-mortem of operations. They help in depicting future financial positions. Ratios have predictory value and are helpful in planning and forecasting the business activities of a firm for future periods, e.g. estimation of working capital requirements.

Limitations of Ratio Analysis:

Ratios are useful tools for financial analysis. However the following are the limitations –

- 1. Window Dressing: Ratios depict the picture of performance at a particular point of time. Sometimes, a business can make year-end adjustments in order to result in favourable ratios. (Eg. Current Ratio, Operating Profit Ratio, etc.)
- 2. Impact of Inflation: Financial statements and Ratios are affected by inflation. For example, Fixed Assets are accounted at historical cost, while profits are measured in current rupee terms. In inflationary situations, ROA (or) ROCE may be very high due to less investment in Fixed Assets. Ratios may not indicate the true position in such situations.
- 3. Product Line diversification: Detailed ratios for different divisions, products and market segments, etc. may not be available to the users in order to make an informed judgment. For example, loss in one product may be set-off by substantial profits in another product line. But, the overall NP ratio may be favourable.

- 4. Impact of Seasonal Factors: When the operations do not follow a uniform pattern during the financial period, ratios may not indicate the correct situation. For example, if the peak supply season of a business is between February to June, it will hold substantial stocks on the Balance sheet date in 31st March. This will lead to a very high Current Ratio on that date. But the position for the rest of the year may be entirely different.
- **5. Differences in Accounting Policies:** Difference Firms follow different accounting policies, e.g. rate and methods of depreciation. Straight-jacked comparison of ratios may lead to misleading results.
- 6. Lack of Standards: Even though some norms can be set for ratios, there is no uniformity as to what an "ideal "ratio is. Generally it is said that current Ratio should be 2:1. But if a firm supplies mainly to Government Departments where debt collection period is high, a Current Ratio of 4:1 (or) 5:1, may also be considered normal.
- 7. **High (or) Low:** A number by itself cannot become "good "(or) "bad". The line of difference between "good ratio" and "bad ratio" is very thin.
- 8. Interdependence: Financial Ratios cannot be considered in isolation. Decision taken on the basis of one ratio may be incorrect when a set of ratios are analyzed. Ratios are inter-related and not independent.

Use of Ratios in Cash flow statements:

Cash flow statements can be prepared by reference to the Direct land Indirect Methods, as prescribed by the Accounting Standard-3 issued by the ICAI. The ratios used in cash flow statement Analysis are –

1. Cash Generating Efficiency Ratios:

a) Cash flow yield = Net cash flow from operating Activities

Net income

b) Cash flow to sales = Net cash flow from operation Activities

c) Cash flow to Assets = Net cash flow from operating Activites

Average Total Assets

Note: Cash Generating Efficiency is the ability of the Firm to generate cash from its current (or) continuing operations. This may be measured by any of the ratios given here.

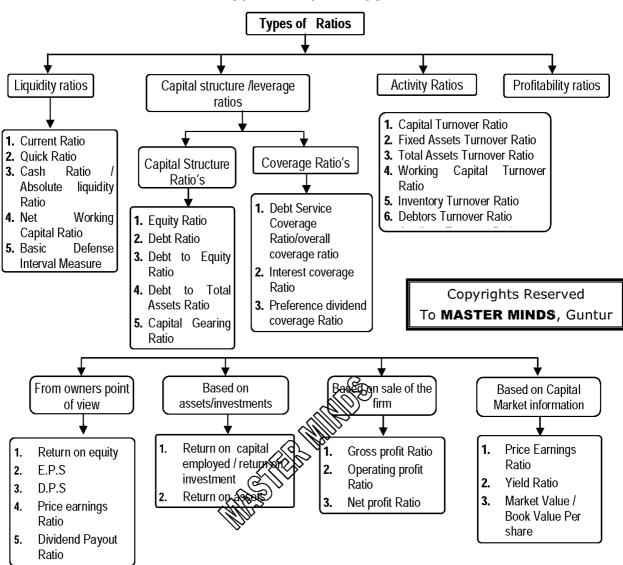
- 2. Free Cash Flow Ratios:
 - a) Price to Free cash flow = $\frac{\text{Market price per share}}{\text{Free cash flow per share}}$
 - **b)** Operating cash flow to profit = $\frac{\text{Operating cash flow}}{\text{Operating Profit}}$
 - c) Self-Financing Investment Ratio = $\frac{Internal funding}{Net Investment}$

Note: Free cash flow represents the amount of cash that remains after deducting current commitments and outflows, i.e., after paying out Operating Expenses, Interest, Loan Installments (if any), Income-Tax, Dividends and Net capital expenditure.

A positive free cash flow will indicate that surplus funds are available for investments (or) repayment of debt.

A negative free cash flow will require sale of investments (or) raising of finance through loans (or) equity.

SUMMARY OF RATIOS



A. Liquidity Ratios - Short Term Solvency

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator	Denominator	Significance
1.	Current Ratio	Current Assets Current Liabilities	Inventories / stocks +Debtors& B/R +Cash&Bank +Receivables + Accruals + Short Term loans + Marketable Investments / Short Term securities	Sundry Creditors + Outstanding expenses + Short term Loans & Advances + Bank over draft / cash credit + Provision for taxation + proposed dividend + unclaimed dividend	Ability to repay short - term liabilities promptly. Ideal Ratio is 2:1 very high ratio indicates existence on idle current assets.
2.	Quick Ratio	Quick Assets Current Liabilities (also called Liquid Ratio (or) Acid Test Ratio)	Current Assets (-)Inventories (-) Prepaid Expenses	Current Liabilities	Ability to meet immediate liabilities .Ideal Ratio is 1:1

3.	Absolute Cash Ratio (or) Absolute Liquidity Ratio	Cash+Marketablesecurites CurrentLiabilities	Cash in Hand + Cash at bank (Dr.) + Marketable Investments / Short Term securities	As per Item 1 above	Availability of cash to meet short-term commitments. No ideal ratio as such. If Ratio > 1, it indicates very liquid resources, which are low in profitability
4.	Basic Defence Interval measure (in days)	Quick Assets Cash expenses per day	Current Assets (-) Inventories (-) Prepaid Expenses	Annual Cash Expenses 365 Cash expenses = Total exps (-) Depreciation & write – offs.	Ability to meet regular cash expenses.

B.

Capital Structure Ratios Indicator of Financing Techniques & Long-Term solvency.

Note: For the capital structure Ratios, the following terms are used with the respective meanings assigned

	Term	Alternative Term	Formula for computation
a)	Debt	Borrowed Funds (or) Loan (1976)	Debentures + Long Term Loans from Banks, Financial Institutions, etc.
b)	Equity	Net worth (or) Share kooses Funds (or) Proprietor's funds (or) Owner's Funds (or) Comprunds.	Equity share capital + Preference share capital + Reserves & Surplus less: Miscellaneous Expenditure (as per B/sheet) and Accumulated losses.
c)	Equity shareholders Funds		Equity as above Less preference share capital, i.e., = Equity share capital + Reserves & Surplus Less: Miscellaneous Expenditure (as per B/sheet) & Accumulated losses.
d)	Total funds	Long Term funds (or) Capital Employed (or) Investment	= Debt + Equity [i.e. (a) + (b) above] Liability Route. = Fixed Assets + Net working capital Assets Route.

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator	Denominator	Significance
1.	Debt to Total Funds Ratio (or) Debt ratio	Debt Total funds	See (a) above	See (d) above	Indicator of use of external funds. Ideal Ratio is 67%
2.	Equity to Total Funds Ratio (or) Equity Ratio	Equity Total funds	See (b) above	See (d) above	Indicates Long Term solvency, mode of financing and extent of own funds used in operations Ideal Ratio is 33%

3.	Debt – Equity Ratio	Debt Equity	See (a) above	See (b) above	Indicates the relationship between Debt & Equity. Ideal Ratio is 2:1
4.	Capital Gearing Ratio	Preference capital + Debt Equity shareholders funds	Preference share capital + Debt as per (a) above	See (c) above	Shown proportion of fixed charge (Dividend (or) Interest) Bearing capital to Equity Funds, and the extent of advantage (or) leverage enjoyed by Equity share holders.

1.	Proprietary Ratio	Proprietary Funds Total Assets	See (b) above	Net tangible Fixed Assets +Total current Assets	Shows extent of owner's funds, i.e., shareholder's funds utilized in financing the assets of the business.
2.	Debt to Total Assets Ratio	Debt Funds Total Assets	See (a) above	Same as above	Shows proportion of Total Assets financed with Debt, and hence, extent of Financial Leverage
3.	Fixed Asset to Long term fund ratio	Fixed Assets Long Term Funds	Net Fixed Assets, i.e., Gross block Depreciation	See (d) above	Shown proportion of Fixed Assets (Long Term Assets) financed by long term funds. Indicates the financing approach followed by the firm, i.e., conservative, Matching (or) Aggressive. Ideal Ratio is less than one.

C. Profitability Ratios Based on Sales

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator	Denominator	Significance
1.	Gross profit Ratio	Gross Profit Sales	Gross profit as per trading Account	Sales net of returns	Indicator of basic profitability
2.	Operating Profit Ratio	Operating Profit Sales	Sales Less cost of sales (or) Net profit as per P&L Account (+) Non-operating Expenses (e.g. Loss on sale of assets, Preliminary Expenses written off, etc.) [see Note 2]. (-) Non operating Incomes (e.g. Rent, Interest & Dividends received.	Sales net of returns	Indicator of operating performance of business
3.	Net Profit Ratio	Net Profit Sales	Net profit as per P & L A/c (either before tax (or) after tax, depending upon data)	Sales net of returns	Indicator of overall Profitability

4.	Contribution sales Ratio (or) Profit Volume Ratio.	Contribution Sales	Sales Less variable costs	Sales returns	net	of	Indicator Profitability Marginal Costing.	of in	
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Notes:

- 1. All the above ratios are expressed in percentage. The higher the ratio, the better it is for the business.
- 2. Depreciation is generally considered as an operating expense (Note: Operating, but Non-cash expenditure)
- 3. Operating Ratio (or) Operating Cost Ratio = $\frac{\text{Operating Cost}}{\text{Sales}}$

= 100% - Operating Profit Ratio.

For this purpose, Operating costs = Materials + Labour + POH + AOH + SOH + Depreciation.

D. Coverage Ratios - Ability to Serve Fixed Liabilities.

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator	Denominator	Significance
1.	Debt Service Coverage Ratio	Earnings for Debt Service Interest + Installment	Net profit after Taxation + Interest on Debt Funds. +Non-cash Operating Exps. (Eg. depreciation & amortizations) + Non-Operating items / Adjustments items / Sale of fixed assets, etc.)	Interest + Principal, i.e., Interest on Debt (+)Installment of Loan Principal.	Indicates extent of current earnings available for meeting commitments of Interest and Installment Ideal Ratio must be between 2 to 3 times.
2.	Interest Coverage Ratio	EBIT Interest	Famings before Interest and Tax	Interest on Debt	Indicates ability to meet interest obligations of the current year should be greater than 1.
3.	Preference Dividend coverage Ratio	EAT Preference Dividend	Earnings after tax	Dividend on Preference Capital	Indicates ability to pay dividend on Preference capital should be greater than 1.

E. Turnover / Activity / Performance Ratios

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator & Denominator	Significance
1.	Raw Material Turnover Ratio	Cost of RM Consumed Average stock of RM	Nr: Opening stock of RM (+) Purchases of RM (-) Closing Stock of RM Dr: Opening RM stock + Closing RM stock 2	Indicates how fast / regularly Raw materials are used in production.
2.	WIP Turnover Ratio	Factory cost Avg. Stock of WIP	Nr: Materials consumed + wages + OH. Dr: Opening WIP + Closing WIP 2	Indicates the WIP movement / Production cycle.

3.	Finished Goods (or) Stock Turnover Ratio	Cost of Goods sold Avg. stock of finished Goods	Nr: a) For Manufacturers: Opg stock of FG + Cost of Production (-) Clg Stock of FG b) For Traders: Opg Stock of FG + Cost of Goods purchased (-) Clg stock of FG. Dr: Opening FG Stock + Closing FG Stock 2	Indicates how fast inventory is used / sold. High T/O shows fast moving FG. Low T/O may mean dead (or) excessive stock
4.	Debtors Turnover Ratio	Credit sales Avg. Accounts Receivable	Nr: Credit sales net of returns Dr: Avg. Accounts Receivable (i.e. Debtors + B/R) Opening DRS & B/R + Closing DRS & B/R	Indicates the speed of collection of credit sales / Debtors.
5.	Creditors Turnover Ratio	Credit Purchases Avg. Accounts Payable	Nr: Credit purchases net of returns. Dr: Avg. Accounts payable (i.e. Creditors + B/P) Opening crs & B/P + Closing crs & B/P 2	Indicates speed/velocity of payment of creditors.
6.	Working capital Turnover Ratio	Turnover Net working capital [also called operating Turnover (or) cash Turnover Ratio]	Nr: Sales net of returns Dr: Current Assets Less Current Assets (Avaluation pening and Closing balances (hay be taken)	Ability to generate sales per rupee of working capital
7.	Fixed Assets Turnover Ratio	Turnover Net Fixed Asset	Mr: Sales net of returns Dr: Net Fixed Assets (Avg. of Opening and Closing balances may be taken)	Ability to generate sales per rupee of Fixed Assets
8.	Capital Turnover Ratio	Turnover Capital Employed	Nr: Sales net of returns Dr: Total funds [Long term funds (or) capital employed (or) Investment = Debt + Equity (i.e. (a+b) above Liability Route = Fixed Assets + Net working capital Assets Route]	Ability to generate sales per rupee of long term investment

Note:

- 1. All the above T/O Ratios are expressed in times. Generally, the higher the T/O Ratio, the better it is.
- 2. In respect of RM, WIP and FG Stocks, Average Stock can also be calculated as Max. Stock + Min. Stock
 2

3. Working capital related T/O Ratios, i.e. Items 1 t 6 above, can also be expressed in terms of days as 365 T/O Ratio

Item	Computation
a) Number of days Average stock of Raw Materials held	365
	Raw Material T/O Ratio

b)	Number of days Average stock of WIP held	365 WIP T/O Ratio
c)	Number of days Average stock of Finished Goods held (or)	365
	Number of days sales in inventory (or) Average stock velocity.	Finished Goods T/o Ratio
d)	Average collection period (of Debtors) (or) Number of days	365
	sales in receivables.	Debtors T/O Ratio
e)	Average payment period (of creditors) (or) Average payment	365
	velocity.	Creditors T/O Ratio
f)	Number of days working capital held [also called operating	365
	cycle (or) cash cycle (or) Working capital cycle]	Working Capital T/O Ratio

Generally, the shorter / lesser the number of days (as computed above), the better it is.

F. Overall Return Ratios – Owner's view point

	Ratio	Formula	Numerator	Denominator	Significance
1.	Return on Investment (ROI) [or] Return on capital employed (ROCE)	Pre tax ROCE: EBIT Equity - Debt Post-tax ROCE: EAT + Interest Equity + Debt	Either pretax (or) post-tax ROCE may be computed. Pre-tax ROCE is generally preferred analysis purchase.	Capital Employed = Investment = Equity + Debt	Overall profitability of the business on the total funds employed.
2.	Return on Equity (ROE) (or) Return on Net worth (RONW)	Pre tax ROE: EBT Equity Post-tax ROE: Equity	Fither Pre- Correction (or) Post- Computed. Post-tax ROE is generally preferred for analysis purposes.	Equity (or) Net Worth (or) Shareholders Funds (or) Proprietor's funds (or) Owner's funds Own funds	Indicates Profitability of Equity funds / Owner's funds invested in the business.
3.	Return on Assets (ROA)	Pre tax ROA: EBT Avg. Total Assets Post-tax ROA: EAT Avg. Total Assets	 Either Pretax (or) Posttax ROA may be computed. Post-tax ROA is generally preferred for analysis purposes. 	Average, i.e., ½ of Opg.& Clg balances of any of the following items Total Assets, (or) Tangible Assets, (or) Fixed Assets	Indicates Net income per rupee of Avg. Total Assets (or) Fixed Assets.
4.	Earnings Per Share (EPS)	Residual Earnings No.of Equity Shares	Residual Earnings, i.e. EAT (-) Preference Dividend	No.of Equity shares outstanding = Residual Earnings No.of Equity Shares	Income per share, whether (or) not distributed as dividends.

5.	Dividend Per Share (DPS)	Total Equity dividend No. of Equity shares	Profits distributed to equity share holders.	As per (4) above.	Profits distributed per equity share.
6.	Dividend payout Ratio	Dividend per share Earnings per share	DPS as per (5) above	EPS as per (4) above	% of EPS paid out & balance retained.
7.	Price Earnings Ratio (PE ratio)	Market price per share Earnings per share	Average market price [(or) closing Market price] as per stock exchange quotations. (Market price per share = MPS)	EPS as calculated in (4) above.	Indicates relationship between MPS and EPS, and share holder's perception of the company
8.	Dividend yield (%)	Dividend Market price per share	Dividend	Average MPS (or closing MPS) as per stock Exchange quotations.	True Return on Investment, based on Market value of shares.
9.	Book Value per share	Net worth No.of Equity shares	Equity (or) Networth [Section B (b)]	No. of Equity shares O/S = Equity capital Facevalue per share	Basis of valuation of share based on book values.
10.	Market value to Book value	Market price per share Book value per share	Conclosing MPS) See Per Stock Exchange quotations.	Ratio as calculated in (a) above	Higher ratio indicates better position for share holders in terms of return & capital gains.

Liquidity Ratio:

a. Current Ratio = $\frac{\text{Current Assets}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$

b. Quick Ratio = $\frac{\text{Quick Assets}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$

Note: Quick Assets = Current assets - Stock - Prepaid expense

c. Absolute cash ratio = $\frac{\text{Cash, bank \& Marketable Securities}}{\text{Current liabilities}}$

d. Defense interval measure = $\frac{\text{Quick Assets}}{\text{Average daily operating expenses}}$

Solvency Ratio:

a. Debt equity ratio = $\frac{\text{Long term debt}}{\text{Share holder's funds (E+P)}}$

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- **b.** Total assets to debt ratio = $\frac{\text{Total Assets}}{\text{Long term debt}}$
- **c.** Proprietary ratio = $\frac{\text{Equity}}{\text{Total assets}}$
- **d.** Capital gearing ratio = $\frac{\text{Fixed interest bearing securities}}{\text{Equity share holders funds}}$
- e. Interest coverage ratio = $\frac{\text{EBIT}}{\text{Interest on long term debt}}$
- **f.** Preference dividend coverage ratio = $\frac{EAT}{Preferece \text{ dividend}}$
- Debt service coverage ratio =

 | earningsavailablefordebtservices | Interest + Instalment |

Activity Ratios:

- **a.** Capital T/o ratio = $\frac{\text{Net sales}}{\text{Capital employed}}$
- **b.** Fixed assets T/o ratio = $\frac{\text{Net sales}}{\text{Net fixed assets}}$
- **c.** Stock T/o ratio = $\frac{\text{COGS}}{\text{Average stock}}$
- **d.** Debtors T/o ratio = $\frac{\text{Net credit sale}}{\text{Average debtors}}$
- e. Creditor T/o ratio = $\frac{\text{Net credit purchases}}{\text{Average creditors}}$

Profitability Ratios:

- i. Operating profit ratio = $\frac{\text{Operating profit}}{\text{Net sales}}$
- ii. Operating ratio = $\frac{\text{Operating cost}}{\text{Net sales}} \times 100$
- iii. GP/NP ratio = $\frac{\text{GP/NP}}{\text{Net sales}} \times 100$
- iv. ROI / Return on capital employed = $\frac{EBIT}{Capital employed} \times 100$
- v. Return on Equity (or) Return on shareholders funds = $\frac{\text{EAT}}{\text{Shareholders funds}} \times 100$
- vi. Price earning ratio = $\frac{\text{Market price}}{\text{FPS}}$
- **vii.** Earning yield = $\frac{EPS}{MP} \times 100$
- **viii.** Dividend yield = $\frac{DPS}{MP}$

9. FUNDS FLOW STATEMENT

Summary of fund flow: (In diagrammatic presentation):

Current Assets

No

Current liabilities

Yes

Noncurrent Assets

Noncurrent liabilities

Flow of funds?

Summary of flow of funds:

Flow of Fund = Fixed asset changes into current asset or current asset changes into fixed assets.

Or

Fixed liability changes into current liability or current liability changes into fixed liability.

Or

Any transaction which attract one current account and open on-current account then it is only flow of fund

<u>Procedure for preparing funds flow statements</u> and s means working capital. The procedure for preparation of Funds Flow Statement is as under

Stage	Procedure				
1.	Prepare the schedule of changes in Net working capital, and ascertain the Increase / Decrease.				
	[Note: Current Assets and current liabilities items will be considered in this schedule]				
2.	 Analyze the Non-current Assets and Non-Current Liability accounts, viz. Fixed Assets, Investments, Capital, Loans, etc. to ascertain movement of funds as under – a) Fixed Assets: Sale / Disposal (or) Fresh purchase of Fixed Assets. b) Investments: Sale of Investments (or) additional investments made during the year. c) Capital: Redemption / Buyback of shares (or) Fresh Issue of capital (at premium, if any). d) Loans: Repayment of Loans (or) Additional borrowing during the year. [Note: In the course of analysis in stage 2, -(a) Non-cash Items (like Depreciation, Transfer to Reserves, etc.) and (b) Non-operating Items / Adjustments (e.g. Profit/loss on sale of assets / investments, etc.) will also be identified.] 				
3.	Compute Funds from Operations (FFO), i.e., surplus generated from activities during the period, as under- Add: Transfers to Reserves out of profits. Add: Proposed Dividends for the current year. Add: provision for taxation for current year. Add: Non-operating and Non-cash Items – Write offs, Depreciation, Amortization, Loss on sale of FA, etc.				
4.	Prepare the statement of sources and Application of Funds (i.e. Funds Flow Statement) showing the various funds movements during the period.				

Example of Sources of Funds		Example of Application of Funds	
1.	Decrease in Net working capital.	1. Increase in Net working capital.	
2.	Issue of Equity / Preference shares	2. Buyback / Redemption of Equity/preference shares.	
3.	Issue of Debentures / Raising of Long Term Loans	3. Redemption of Debentures / Repayment of Long Term Loans	
4.	Sale of Fixed Assets / Investments	4. Purchase of Fixed Assets / Investments.	
		5. Payment of Dividends, payment of Taxes.	
		6. Funds lost in operation (if any).	

Statement or schedule of changes in working capital:

Particulars	Previous	Current	Effect on working capital	
Faiticulais	Year Rs.	Year Rs.	Increase	Decrease
Current Assets				
Cash in hand				
Debtor				
Inventory				
Bills Receivable				
Total Current Assets (A)				
Current Liabilities				
Trade Creditors				
Bills Payable		110)0		
Total Current Liabilities (B)	- Ci	Mr.		
Total Working Capital (A-B)				
Change in Working Capital	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\			

Statamont	of fund from	anarations:
Statement	OI TUITU ITOITI	Operations.

The fund flow statement is prepared as per following Performa:

Statement of Funds from operations for the _____

Particulars	Rs.	Rs.
Net Profit after tax for the year		XXX
Add: Non-Current/Non-Operating Expenses (E.G)		
Depreciation	XX	
Loss on Sale of Fixed Assets	XX	
Interest on Debentures	XX	
Goodwill Written Off	XX	
Provision for Tax	XX	
Proposed Dividend	XX	
Interim Dividend	XX	
Transfer from Statement of Profit & Loss (Profit & Loss Account)	XX	
Other Non-Current & Non-Operating items debited	XX	XXX
Less: Non-Current & Non Operating Incomes (e.g.)		
Interest on Investment	XX	
Dividend Received	XX	
Profit on Sale of Fixed Assets	XX	
Interest on Bank Deposit	XX	
Refund of Tax	XX	
Other Non-Current & Non-Operating items credited	XX	XXX
Net Fund Flow From Operation		XXX

Fund Flow Statement in Account Form

Adjusted Profit & Loss Account for the period _____

Dr.			Cr.
Particulars	Amount Rs.	Particulars	Amount Rs.
To Non-Current & Non-Operating items Charged:		By Balance b/d	XXX
Transfer to General Reserve	XXX	By Non-Current & Non-Operating Items credited	
Proposed Dividend	XXX	Profit on Sale of Fixed Assets	XXX
Goodwill Written Off	XXX	Income from Investment	XXX
Preliminary Expenses	XXX	Other Non-Current & Non Operating Items	XXX
Depreciation	XXX	By Net Fund Flow from Operation (Balancing Figure)	XXX
Provision for Taxation	XXX		
Other Non-Current & Non Operating Items	XXX		
To Balance c/d	XXX		

Advantages and Disadvantages of Funds Flow Statement:

- A. Advantages: The benefits of Funds Flow Analysis are -
 - 1. Evaluation: Funds Flow Statement Provides answer@to questions such as
 - a) How have the profits earned been used / applied by the business?
 - b) What is the relationship between liquidity without and profitability position of the enterprise.
 - c) Why does the Firm have liquidity or inspite of reasonable profits? (or) How is the Firm able to meet its short-term commitments inspite of losses?
 - 2. Sales to Net working capital: Increase in sales can be sustained only with adequate increase in the working capital base. Funds Analysis seeks to ensure this aspect.
 - 3. Funds Management: Funds Flow Analysis helps in determining whether the entity has managed its funds property i.e. proper mix / balance of long-term and short-term sources and application of funds
 - **4. Forecasting:** Projected Funds Flow Statement is one of the tools of financial planning and budgetary control.
- B. Disadvantages: The limitations of Funds flow Statement include
 - 1. **Profit vs Funds flow:** Separate Reconciliation between profitability and Net working capital is necessary for proper understanding of Funds flow statement. It cannot be a substitute for the Income statement.
 - 2. Supplementary to Cash Flow Analysis: Funds flow Analysis is only supplementary to, and does not replace the cash flow analysis.

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THE END