

## **UNIT – III**

### **INTRODUCTION TO MARKET AND PRICING STRATEGIES**

## Pricing

### Introduction

Pricing is an important, if not the most important function of all enterprises. Since every enterprise is engaged in the production of some goods or/and service. Incurring some expenditure, it must set a price for the same to sell it in the market. It is only in extreme cases that the firm has no say in pricing its product; because there is severe or rather perfect competition in the market of the good happens to be of such public significance that its price is decided by the government. In an overwhelmingly large number of cases, the individual producer plays the role in pricing its product.

It is said that if a firm were good in setting its product price it would certainly flourish in the market. This is because the price is such a parameter that it exerts a direct influence on the products demand as well as on its supply, leading to firm's turnover (sales) and profit. Every manager endeavors to find the price, which would best meet with his firm's objective. If the price is set too high the seller may not find enough customers to buy his product. On the other hand, if the price is set too low the seller may not be able to recover his costs. There is a need for the right price further, since demand and supply conditions are variable over time what is a right price today may not be so tomorrow hence, pricing decision must be reviewed and reformulated from time to time.

### **Price**

Price denotes the exchange value of a unit of good expressed in terms of money. Thus the current price of a maruti car around Rs. 2,00,000, the price of a hair cut is Rs. 25 the price of a economics book is Rs. 150 and so on. Nevertheless, if one gives a little, if one gives a little thought to this subject, one would realize that there is nothing like a unique price for any good. Instead, there are multiple prices.

### **Price concepts**

Price of a well-defined product varies over the types of the buyers, place it is received, credit sale or cash sale, time taken between final production and sale, etc.

It should be obvious to the readers, that the price difference on account of the above four factors are more significant. The multiple prices is more serious in the case of items like cars refrigerators, coal, furniture and bricks and is of little significance for items like shaving blade, soaps, tooth pastes, creams and stationeries. Differences in various prices of any good are due to differences in transport cost, storage cost accessories, interest cost, intermediaries' profits etc. Once can still conceive of a basic price, which would be exclusive of all these items of cost and then rationalize other prices by adding the cost of special items attached to the particular transaction, in what follows we shall explain the determination of this basis price alone and thus resolve the problem of multiple prices.

### **Price determinants – Demand and supply**

The price of a product is determined by the demand for and supply of that product. According to Marshall the role of these two determinants is like that of a pair of scissors in cutting cloth. It is possible that at times, while one pair is held fixed, the other is moving to cut the cloth. Similarly, it is conceivable that there could be situations under which either demand or supply is playing a passive role, and the other, which is active, alone appear to be determining the price. However, just as one pair of scissors alone can never cut a cloth, demand or supply alone is insufficient to determine the price.

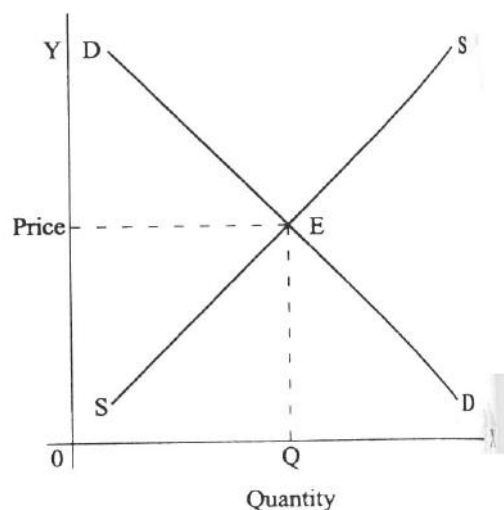
### Equilibrium Price

The price at which demand and supply of a commodity is equal known as equilibrium price. The demand and supply schedules of a good are shown in the table below.

### Demand supply schedule

Price	Demand	Supply
50	100	200
40	120	180
30	150	150
20	200	110
10	300	50

Of the five possible prices in the above example, price Rs.30 would be the market-clearing price. No other price could prevail in the market. If price is Rs. 50 supply would exceed demand and consequently the producers of this good would not find enough customers for their demand, thereby they would accumulate unwanted inventories of output, which, in turn, would lead to competition among the producers, forcing price to Rs.30. Similarly if price were Rs.10, there would be excess demand, which would give rise to competition among the buyers of good, forcing price to Rs.30. At price Rs.30, demand equals supply and thus both producers and consumers are satisfied. The economist calls such a price as equilibrium price.



It was seen in unit 1 that the demand for a good depends on, a number of factors and thus, every factor, which influences either demand or supply is in fact a determinant of price. Accordingly, a change in demand or/and supply causes price change.

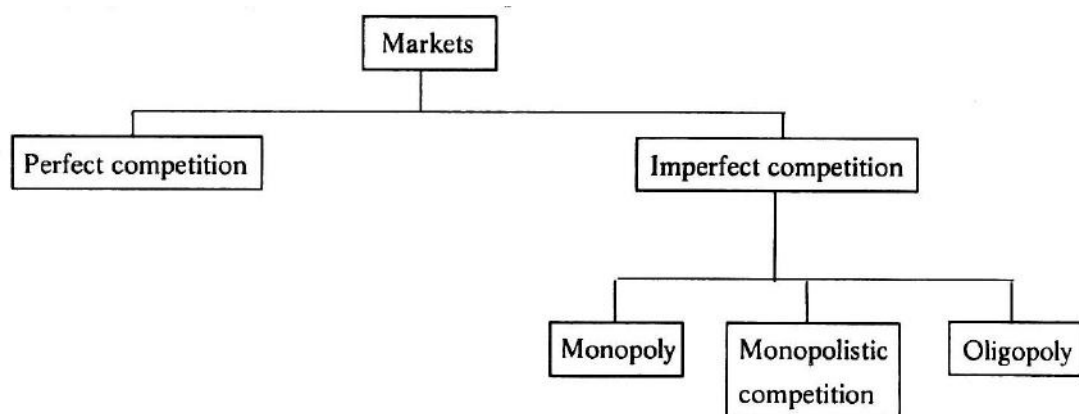
## **MARKET**

Market is a place where buyer and seller meet, goods and services are offered for the sale and transfer of ownership occurs. A market may be also defined as the demand made by a certain group of potential buyers for a good or service. The former one is a narrow concept and later one, a broader concept. Economists describe a market as a collection of buyers and sellers who transact over a particular product or product class (the housing market, the clothing market, the grain market etc.). For business purpose we define a market as people or organizations with wants (needs) to satisfy, money to spend, and the willingness to spend it. Broadly, market represents the structure and nature of buyers and sellers for a commodity/service and the process by which the price of the commodity or service is established. In this sense, we are referring to the structure of competition and the process of price determination for a commodity or service. The determination of price for a commodity or service depends upon the structure of the market for that commodity or service (i.e., competitive structure of the market). Hence the understanding on the market structure and the nature of competition are a pre-requisite in price determination.

### **Different Market Structures**

Market structure describes the competitive environment in the market for any good or service. A market consists of all firms and individuals who are willing and able to buy or sell a particular product. This includes firms and individuals currently engaged in buying and selling a particular product, as well as potential entrants.

The determination of price is affected by the competitive structure of the market. This is because the firm operates in a market and not in isolation. In making decisions concerning economic variables it is affected, as are all institutions in society by its environment.



### **Perfect Competition**

Perfect competition refers to a market structure where competition among the sellers and buyers prevails in its most perfect form. In a perfectly competitive market, a single market price prevails for the commodity, which is determined by the forces of total demand and total supply in the market.

### **Characteristics of Perfect Competition**

The following features characterize a perfectly competitive market:

1. **A large number of buyers and sellers:** The number of buyers and sellers is large and the share of each one of them in the market is so small that none has any influence on the market price.
2. **Homogeneous product:** The product of each seller is totally undifferentiated from those of the others.
3. **Free entry and exit:** Any buyer and seller is free to enter or leave the market of the commodity.
4. **Perfect knowledge:** All buyers and sellers have perfect knowledge about the market for the commodity.
5. **Indifference:** No buyer has a preference to buy from a particular seller and no seller to sell to a particular buyer.
6. **Non-existence of transport costs:** Perfectly competitive market also assumes the non-existence of transport costs.
7. **Perfect mobility of factors of production:** Factors of production must be in a position to move freely into or out of industry and from one firm to the other.

Under such a market no single buyer or seller plays a significant role in price determination. On the other hand all of them jointly determine the price. The price is determined in the industry, which is composed of all the buyers and seller for the commodity. The demand curve facing the industry is the sum of all consumers' demands at various prices. The industry supply curve is the sum of all sellers' supplies at various prices.

### **Pure competition and perfect competition**

The term perfect competition is used in a wider sense. Pure competition has only limited assumptions. When the assumptions, that large number of buyers and sellers, homogeneous products, free entry and exit are satisfied, there exists pure competition. Competition becomes perfect only when all the assumptions (features) are satisfied. Generally pure competition can be seen in agricultural products.

### **Equilibrium of a firm and industry under perfect competition**

Equilibrium is a position where the firm has no incentive either to expand or contract its output. The firm is said to be in equilibrium when it earns maximum profit. There are two conditions for attaining equilibrium by a firm. They are:

Marginal cost is an additional cost incurred by a firm for producing an additional unit of output. Marginal revenue is the additional revenue accrued to a firm when it sells one additional unit of output. A firm increases its output so long as its marginal cost becomes equal to marginal revenue. When marginal cost is more than marginal revenue, the firm reduces output as its costs exceed the revenue. It is only at the point where marginal cost is equal to marginal revenue, and then the firm attains equilibrium. Secondly, the marginal cost curve must cut the

marginal revenue curve from below. If marginal cost curve cuts the marginal revenue curve from above, the firm is having the scope to increase its output as the marginal cost curve slopes downwards. It is only with the upward sloping marginal cost curve, there the firm attains equilibrium. The reason is that the marginal cost curve when rising cuts the marginal revenue curve from below.

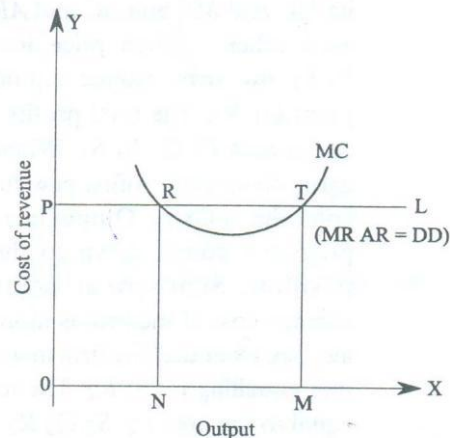


Fig. 6.2

The equilibrium of a perfectly competitive firm may be explained with the help of the fig. 6.2.

In the given fig. PL and MC represent the Price line and Marginal cost curve. PL also represents Marginal revenue, Average revenue and demand. As Marginal revenue, Average revenue and demand are the same in perfect competition, all are equal to the price line. Marginal cost curve is U-shaped curve cutting MR curve at R and T. At point R marginal cost becomes equal to marginal revenue. But MC curve cuts the MR curve from above. So this is not the equilibrium position. The downward sloping marginal cost curve indicates that the firm can reduce its cost of production by increasing output. As the firm expands its output, it will reach equilibrium at point T. At this point, on price line PL; the two conditions of equilibrium are satisfied. Here the marginal cost and marginal revenue of the firm remain equal. The firm is producing maximum output and is in equilibrium at this stage. If the firm continues its output beyond this stage, its marginal cost exceeds marginal revenue resulting in losses. As the firm has no idea of expanding or contracting its size of output, the firm is said to be in equilibrium at point T.

### Pricing under perfect competition

The price or value of a commodity under perfect competition is determined by the demand for and the supply of that commodity.

Under perfect competition there is a large number of sellers trading in a homogeneous product. Each firm supplies only a very small portion of the market demand. No single buyer or seller is powerful enough to influence the price. The demand of all consumers and the supply of all firms together determine the price. The individual seller is only a price taker and not a price maker. An individual firm has no price policy of its own. Thus, the main problem of a firm in a perfectly competitive market is not to determine the price of its product but to adjust its output to the

given price, So that the profit is maximum. Marshall however gives great importance to the time element for the determination of price. He divided the time periods on the basis of supply and ignored the forces of demand. He classified the time into four periods to determine the price as follows.

1. Very short period or Market period
2. Short period
3. Long period
4. Very long period or secular period

**Very short period:** It is the period in which the supply is more or less fixed because the time available to the firm to adjust the supply of the commodity to its changed demand is extremely short; say a single day or a few days. The price determined in this period is known as Market Price.

**Short Period:** In this period, the time available to firms to adjust the supply of the commodity to its changed demand is, of course, greater than that in the market period. In this period altering the variable factors like raw materials, labour, etc can change supply. During this period new firms cannot enter into the industry.

**Long period:** In this period, a sufficiently long time is available to the firms to adjust the supply of the commodity fully to the changed demand. In this period not only variable factors of production but also fixed factors of production can be changed. In this period new firms can also enter the industry. The price determined in this period is known as long run normal price.

**Secular Period:** In this period, a very long time is available to adjust the supply fully to change in demand. This is very long period consisting of a number of decades. As the period is very long it is difficult to lay down principles determining the price.

### **Price Determination in the market period**

The price determined in very short period is known as Market price. Market price is determined by the equilibrium between demand and supply in a market period. The nature of the commodity determines the nature of supply curve in a market period. Under this period goods are classified in to (a) Perishable goods and (b) Non-perishable goods.

**Perishable Goods:** In the very short period, the supply of perishable goods like fish, milk vegetables etc. cannot be increased. And it cannot be decreased also. As a result the supply curve under very short period will be parallel to the Y-axis or Vertical to X-axis. Supply is perfectly inelastic. The price determination of perishable goods in very short period may be shown with the help of the following fig. 6.5

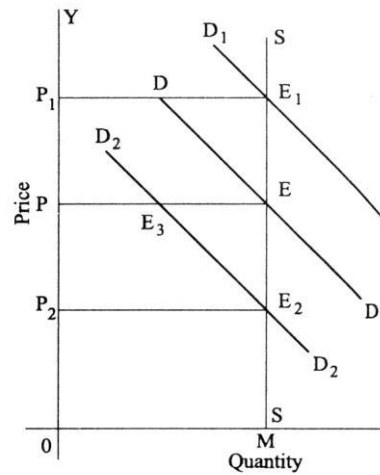


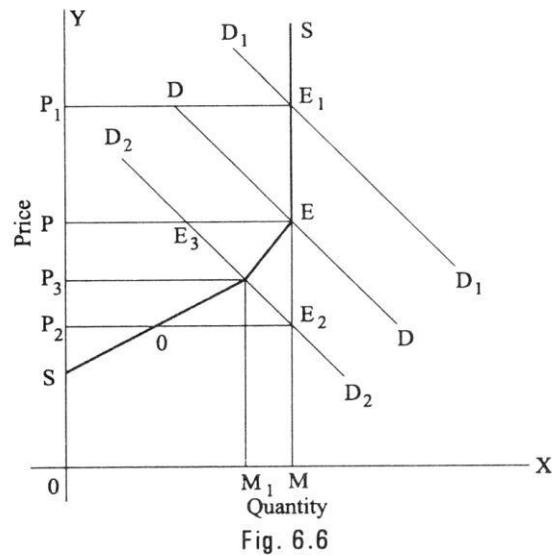
Fig. 6.5

In this figure quantity is represented along X-axis and price is represented along Y-axis. MS is the very short period supply curve of perishable goods. DD is demand curve. It intersects supply curve at E. The price is OP. The quantity exchanged is OM. D1 D1 represents increased demand. This curve cuts the supply curve at E1. Even at the new equilibrium, supply is OM only. But price increases to OP1. So, when demand increases, the price will increase but not the supply. If demand decreases new demand curve will be D2 D2. This curve cuts the supply curve at E2. Even at this new equilibrium, the supply is OM only. But price falls to OP2. Hence in very short period, given the supply, it is the change in demand that influences price. The price determined in a very short period is called Market Price.

**Non-perishable goods:** In the very short period, the supply of non-perishable goods like cloth, pen, watches etc. cannot be increased. But if price falls, preserving some stock can decrease their supply. If price falls too much, the whole stock will be held back from the market and carried over to the next market period. The price below, which the seller will refuse to sell, is called Reserve Price.

The Price determination of non-perishable goods in very short period may be shown with the help of the following fig 6.6.





In the given figure quantity is shown on X-axis and the price on Y-axis. SES is the supply curve. It slopes upward up to the point E. From E it becomes a vertical straight line. This is because the quantity existing with sellers is OM, the maximum amount they have is thus OM. Till OM quantity (i.e., point E) the supply curve sloped upward. At the point S, nothing is offered for sale.

It means that the seller will hold the entire stock if the price is OS. OS is thus the reserve price. As the price rises, supply increases up to point E. At OP price (Point E), the entire stock is offered for sale.

Suppose demand increases, the DD curve shift upward. It becomes D1D1 price raises to OP1. If demand decreases, the demand curve becomes D2D2. It intersects the supply curve at E3. The price will fall to OP3. We find that at OS price, supply is zero. It is the reserve price.

### Price Determination in the short period

Short period is a period in which supply can be increased by altering the variable factors. In this period fixed costs will remain constant. The supply is increased when price rises and vice versa. So the supply curve slopes upwards from left to right.

The price in short period may be explained with the help of a diagram.

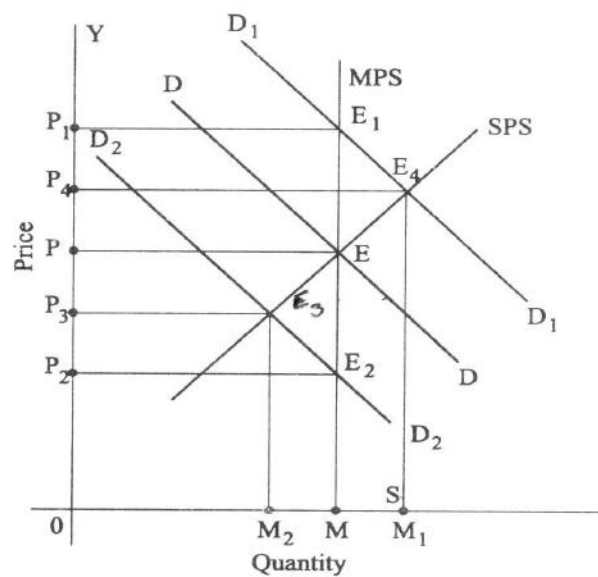


Fig. 6.7

In the given diagram MPS is the market period supply curve. DD is the initial demand curve. It intersects MPS curve at E. The price is OP and output OM. Suppose demand increases, the demand curve shifts upwards and becomes D1D1. In the very short period, supply remains fixed on OM. The new demand curve D1D1 intersects MPS at E1. The price will rise to OP1. This is what happens in the very short-period.

As the price rises from OP to OP1, firms expand output. As firms can vary some factors but not all, the law of variable proportions operates. This results in new short-run supply curve SPS. It intersects D1 D1 curve at E4. The price will fall from OP1 to OP4.

If the demand decreases, DD curve shifts downward and becomes D2D2. It intersects MPS curve at E2. The price will fall to OP2. This is what happens in market period. In the short period, the supply curve is SPS. D2D2 curve intersects SPS curve at E3. The short period price is higher than the market period price.

### Price determination in the long period (Normal Price)

Market price may fluctuate due to a sudden change either on the supply side or on the demand side. A big arrival of milk may decrease the price of that production in the market period. Similarly, a sudden cold wave may raise the price of woolen garments. This type of temporary change in supply and demand may cause changes in market price. In the absence of such disturbing causes, the price tends to come back to a certain level. Marshall called this level is normal price level. In the words of Marshall Normal value (Price) of a commodity is that which economic force would tend to bring about in the long period.

In order to describe how long run normal price is determined, it is useful to refer to the market period as short period also. The market period is so short that no adjustment in the output can be made. Here cost of production has no influence on price. A short period is sufficient only to allow the firms to make only limited output

adjustment. In the long period, supply conditions are fully sufficient to meet the changes in demand. In the long period, all factors are alterable and the new firms may enter into or old firms leave the industry.

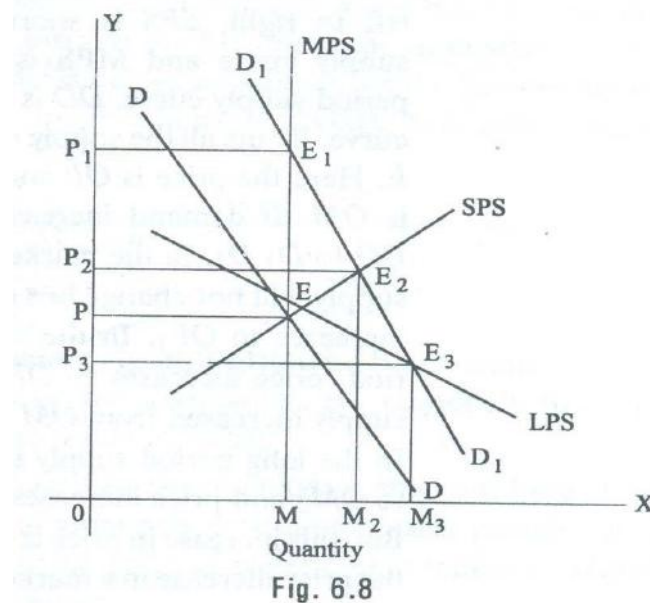
In the long period all costs are variable costs. So supply will be increased only when price is equal to average cost.

Hence, in long period normal price will be equal to minimum average cost of the industry. Will this price be more or less than the short period normal price? The answer depends on the stage of returns to which the industry is subject. There are three stages of return on the stage of returns to which the industry is subject. There are three stages of returns.

1. Increasing returns or decreasing costs.
2. Constant Returns or Constant costs.
3. Diminishing returns or increasing costs.

**1. Determination of long period normal price in decreasing cost industry:**

At this stage, average cost falls due to an increase in the output. So, the supply curve at this stage will slope downwards from left to right. The long period Normal price determination at this stage can be explained with the help of a diagram.



In the diagram, MPS represents market period supply curve. DD is demand curve. DD cuts LPS, SPS and MPS at point E. At point E the supply is OM and the price is OP. If demand increases from DD to D1D1 market price increases to OP1. In the short period it is OP2. In the long period supply increases considerably to OM3. So price has fallen to OP3, which is less than the price of market period.

**2. Determination of Long Period Normal Price in Constant Cost Industry:**

In this case average cost does not change even though the output increases. Hence long period supply curve is horizontal to X-axis. The determination of long period normal price can be explained with the help of the diagram. In the fig. 6.9, LPS is horizontal to X-axis. MPS represents market period supply curve, and SPS represents short period supply curve. At point 'E' the output is OM and price is OP. If demand increases from DD to D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>1</sub> market price increases to OP<sub>1</sub>. In the short period, supply increases and hence the price will be OP<sub>2</sub>. In the long run supply is adjusted fully to meet increased demand. The price remains constant at OP because costs are constant at OP and market is perfect market.

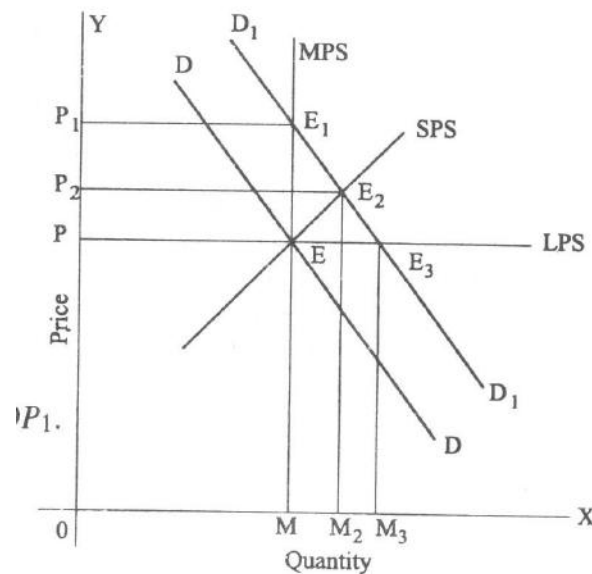
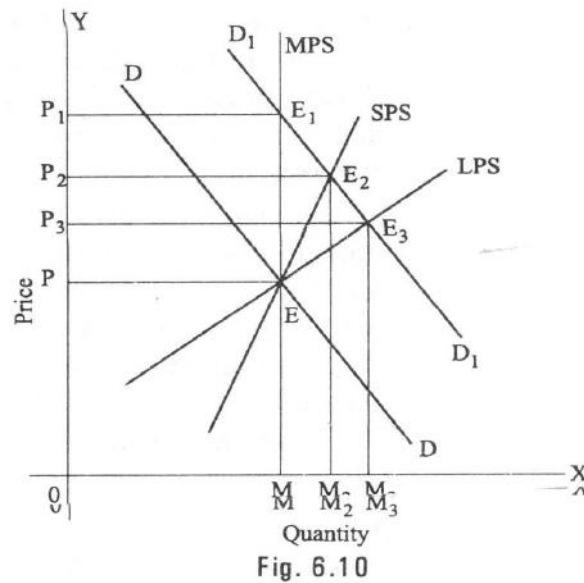


Fig. 6.9

### 3. Determination of long period normal price in increase cost industry:

If the industry is subject to increasing costs (diminishing returns) the supply curve slopes upwards from left to right like an ordinary supply curve. The determination of long period normal price in increasing cost industry can be explained with the help of the following diagram. In the diagram LPS represents long period supply curve. The industry is subject to diminishing return or increasing costs. So, LPS slopes upwards from left to right. SPS is short period supply curve and MPS is market period supply curve. DD is demand curve. It cuts all the supply curves at E. Here the price is OP and output is OM. If demand increases from DD to D<sub>1</sub>D<sub>1</sub> in the market period, supply will not change but the price increases to OP<sub>1</sub>. In the short period, price increases to OP<sub>2</sub> as the supply increased from OM to OM<sub>2</sub>. In the long period supply increases to OM<sub>3</sub> and price increases to OP<sub>3</sub>. But this increase in price is less than the price increase in a market period or short period.



### Monopoly

The word monopoly is made up of two syllables, Mono and poly. Mono means single while poly implies selling. Thus monopoly is a form of market organization in which there is only one seller of the commodity. There are no close substitutes for the commodity sold by the seller. Pure monopoly is a market situation in which a single firm sells a product for which there is no good substitute.

### Features of monopoly

The following are the features of monopoly.

1. **Single person or a firm:** A single person or a firm controls the total supply of the commodity. There will be no competition for monopoly firm. The monopolist firm is the only firm in the whole industry.
2. **No close substitute:** The goods sold by the monopolist shall not have closely competition substitutes. Even if price of monopoly product increase people will not go in far substitute. For example: If the price of electric bulb increase slightly, consumer will not go in for kerosene lamp.
3. **Large number of Buyers:** Under monopoly, there may be a large number of buyers in the market who compete among themselves.
4. **Price Maker:** Since the monopolist controls the whole supply of a commodity, he is a price-maker, and then he can alter the price.
5. **Supply and Price:** The monopolist can fix either the supply or the price. He cannot fix both. If he charges a very high price, he can sell a small amount. If he wants to sell more, he has to charge a low price. He cannot sell as much as he wishes for any price he pleases.
6. **Downward Sloping Demand Curve:** The demand curve (average revenue curve) of monopolist slopes downward from left to right. It means that he can sell more only by lowering price.

### Types of Monopoly

Monopoly may be classified into various types. The different types of monopolies are explained below:

1. **Legal Monopoly**: If monopoly arises on account of legal support or as a matter of legal privilege, it is called Legal Monopoly. Ex. Patent rights, special brands, trade means, copyright etc.
2. **Voluntary Monopoly**: To get the advantages of monopoly some private firms come together voluntarily to control the supply of a commodity. These are called voluntary monopolies. Generally, these monopolies arise with industrial combinations. These voluntary monopolies are of three kinds (a) cartel (b) trust (c) holding company. It may be called artificial monopoly.
3. **Government Monopoly**: Sometimes the government will take the responsibility of supplying a commodity and avoid private interference. Ex. Water, electricity. These monopolies, created to satisfy social wants, are formed on social considerations. These are also called Social Monopolies.
4. **Private Monopoly**: If the total supply of a good is produced by a single private person or firm, it is called private monopoly. Hindustan Lever Ltd. Is having the monopoly power to produce Lux Soap.
5. **Limited Monopoly**: if the monopolist is having limited power in fixing the price of his product, it is called as 'Limited Monopoly'. It may be due to the fear of distant substitutes or government intervention or the entry of rivals firms.
6. **Unlimited Monopoly**: If the monopolist is having unlimited power in fixing the price of his good or service, it is called unlimited monopoly. Ex. A doctor in a village.
7. **Single Price Monopoly**: When the monopolist charges same price for all units of his product, it is called single price monopoly. Ex. Tata Company charges the same price to all the Tata Indica Cars of the same model.
8. **Discriminating Monopoly**: When a Monopolist charges different prices to different consumers for the same product, it is called discriminating monopoly. A doctor may take Rs.20 from a rich man and only Rs.2 from a poor man for the same treatment.
9. **Natural Monopoly**: Sometimes monopoly may arise due to scarcity of natural resources. Nature provides raw materials only in some places. The owner of the place will become monopolist. For Ex. Diamond mine in South Africa.

### Pricing under Monopoly

Monopoly refers to a market situation where there is only one seller. He has complete control over the supply of a commodity. He is therefore in a position to fix any price. Under monopoly there is no distinction between a firm and an industry. This is because the entire industry consists of a single firm.

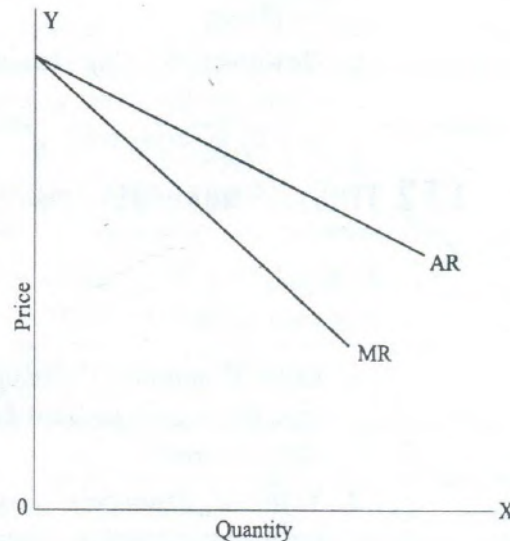


Fig. 6.11

Being the sole producer, the monopolist has complete control over the supply of the commodity. He has also the power to influence the market price. He can raise the price by reducing his output and lower the price by increasing his output. Thus he is a price-maker. He can fix the price to his maximum advantages. But he cannot fix both the supply and the price, simultaneously. He can do one thing at a time. If he fixes the price, his output will be determined by the market demand for his commodity. On the other hand, if he fixes the output to be sold, the market will determine the price for the commodity. Thus his decision to fix either the price or the output is determined by the market demand.

The market demand curve of the monopolist (the average revenue curve) is downward sloping. Its corresponding marginal revenue curve is also downward sloping. But the marginal revenue curve lies below the average revenue curve as shown in the figure. The monopolist faces the down-sloping demand curve because to sell more output, he must reduce the price of his product. The firm's demand curve and industry's demand curve are one and the same. The average cost and marginal cost curve are U shaped curve. Marginal cost falls and rises steeply when compared to average cost.

### **Price output determination (Equilibrium Point)**

The monopolistic firm attains equilibrium when its marginal cost becomes equal to the marginal revenue. The monopolist always desires to make maximum profits. He makes maximum profits when  $MC=MR$ . He does not increase his output if his revenue exceeds his costs. But when the costs exceed the revenue, the monopolist firm incurs losses. Hence the monopolist curtails his production. He produces up to that point where additional cost is equal to the additional revenue ( $MR=MC$ ). Thus point is called equilibrium point. The price output determination under monopoly may be explained with the help of a diagram.

In the diagram 6.12 the quantity supplied or demanded is shown along X-axis. The cost or revenue is shown along Y-axis. AC and MC are the average cost and marginal cost curves respectively. AR and MR curves slope downwards from left to right. AC and MC are U shaped curves. The monopolistic firm attains equilibrium when its marginal cost is equal to marginal revenue ( $MC=MR$ ). Under monopoly, the MC curve may cut the MR curve from below or from a side. In the diagram, the above condition is satisfied at point E. At point E,  $MC=MR$ . The firm is in equilibrium. The equilibrium output is OM.

The above diagram (Average revenue) = MQ or OP

Average cost = MR

Profit per unit = Average Revenue - Average cost =  $MQ - MR = QR$

Total Profit =  $QR \times SR = PQRS$

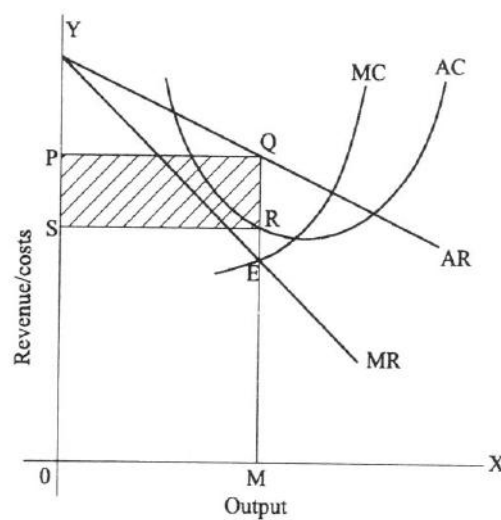


Fig. 6.12

The area PQRS represents the maximum profit earned by the monopoly firm.

But it is not always possible for a monopolist to earn super-normal profits. If the demand and cost situations are not favorable, the monopolist may realize short run losses.

Through the monopolist is a price maker, due to weak demand and high costs; he suffers a loss equal to PABC.

If  $AR > AC$  -> Abnormal or super normal profits.

If  $AR = AC$  -> Normal Profit

If  $AR < AC$  -> Loss

In the long run the firm has time to adjust his plant size or to use existing plant so as to maximize profits.



## Monopolistic competition

Perfect competition and pure monopoly are rare phenomena in the real world. Instead, almost every market seems to exhibit characteristics of both perfect competition and monopoly. Hence in the real world it is the state of imperfect competition lying between these two extreme limits that works. Edward. H. Chamberlain developed the theory of monopolistic competition, which presents a more realistic picture of the actual market structure and the nature of competition.

### Characteristics of Monopolistic Competition

The important characteristics of monopolistic competition are:

1. **Existence of Many firms:** Industry consists of a large number of sellers, each one of whom does not feel dependent upon others. Every firm acts independently without bothering about the reactions of its rivals. The size is so large that an individual firm has only a relatively small part in the total market, so that each firm has very limited control over the price of the product. As the number is relatively large it is difficult for these firms to determine its price- output policies without considering the possible reactions of the rival firms. A monopolistically competitive firm follows an independent price policy.
2. **Product Differentiation:** Product differentiation means that products are different in some ways, but not altogether so. The products are not identical but at the same time they will not be entirely different from each other. It really means that there are various monopolist firms competing with each other. An example of monopolistic competition and product differentiation is the toothpaste produced by various firms. The product of each firm is different from that of its rivals in one or more respects. Different toothpastes like Colgate, Close-up, Forehans, Cibaca, etc., provide an example of monopolistic competition. These products are relatively close substitutes for each other but not perfect substitutes. Consumers have definite preferences for the particular varieties or brands of products offered for sale by various sellers. Advertisement, packing, trademarks, brand names etc. help differentiation of products even if they are physically identical.
3. **Large Number of Buyers:** There are large number buyers in the market. But the buyers have their own brand preferences. So the sellers are able to exercise a certain degree of monopoly over them. Each seller has to plan various incentive schemes to retain the customers who patronize his products.
4. **Free Entry and Exist of Firms:** As in the perfect competition, in the monopolistic competition too, there is freedom of entry and exit. That is, there is no barrier as found under monopoly.
5. **Selling costs:** Since the products are close substitutes much effort is needed to retain the existing consumers and to create new demand. So each firm has to spend a lot on selling cost, which includes cost on advertising and other sales promotion activities.
6. **Imperfect Knowledge:** Imperfect knowledge about the product leads to monopolistic competition. If the buyers are fully aware of the quality of the product they cannot be influenced much by advertisement or other sales promotion techniques. But in the business world we can see that though the quality of certain products is the same, effective advertisement and sales promotion techniques make certain brands

monopolistic. For examples, effective dealer service backed by advertisement-helped popularization of some brands through the quality of almost all the cement available in the market remains the same.

7. **The Group:** Under perfect competition the term industry refers to all collection of firms producing a homogenous product. But under monopolistic competition the products of various firms are not identical through they are close substitutes. Prof. Chamberlin called the collection of firms producing close substitute products as a group.

### Price – Output Determination under Monopolistic Competition

Since under monopolistic competition different firms produce different varieties of products, different prices for them will be determined in the market depending upon the demand and cost conditions. Each firm will set the price and output of its own product. Here also the profit will be maximized when marginal revenue is equal to marginal cost.

#### **Short-run equilibrium of the firm:**

In the short-run the firm is in equilibrium when marginal Revenue = Marginal Cost. In Fig 6.15 AR is the average revenue curve. NMR marginal revenue curve, SMC short-run marginal cost curve, SAC short-run average cost curve, MR and SMC intersect at point E where output in OM and price MQ (i.e. OP). Thus the equilibrium output or the maximum profit output is OM and the price MQ or OP. When the price (average revenue) is above average cost a firm will be making supernormal profit. From the figure it can be seen that AR is above AC in the equilibrium point. As AR is above AC, this firm is making abnormal profits in the short-run. The abnormal profit per unit is QR, i.e., the difference between AR and AC at equilibrium point and the total supernormal profit is OR X OM. This total abnormal profits is represented by the rectangle PQRS. As the demand curve here is highly elastic, the excess price over marginal cost is rather low. But in monopoly the demand curve is inelastic. So the gap between price and marginal cost will be rather large.

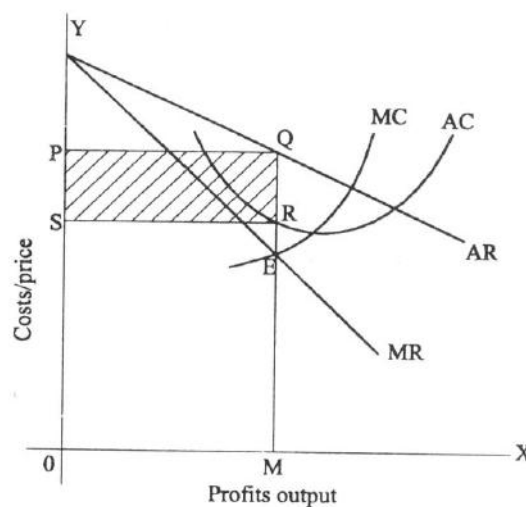
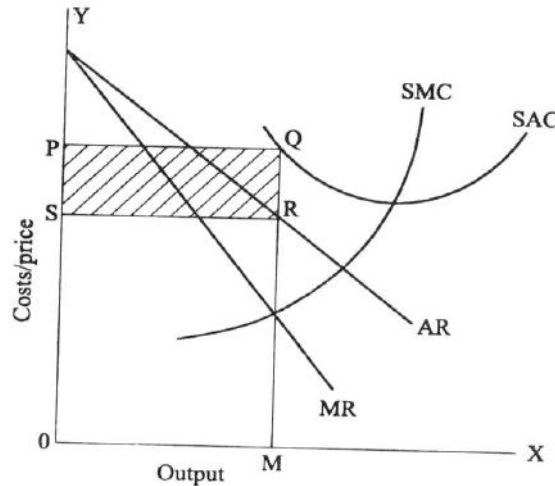


Fig. 6.15

If the demand and cost conditions are less favorable the monopolistically competitive firm may incur loss in the short-run fig 6.16 Illustrates this. A firm incurs loss when the price is less than the average cost of production. MQ is the average cost and OS (i.e. MR) is the price per unit at equilibrium output OM. QR is the loss per unit. The total loss at an output OM is OR X OM. The rectangle PQRS represents the total losses in the short run.



**Long – Run Equilibrium**

Fig. 6.16

**of the Firm:**

A monopolistically competitive firm will be long – run equilibrium at the output level where marginal cost equal to marginal revenue. Monopolistically competitive firm in the long run attains equilibrium where  $MC=MR$  and  $AC=AR$  Fig 6.17 shows this trend.

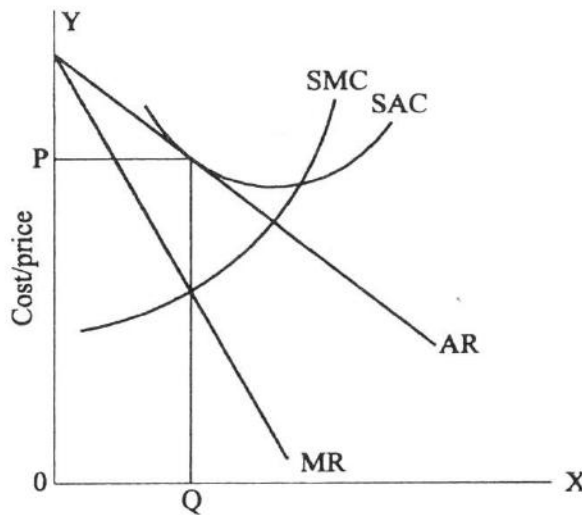


Fig. 6.17

**Oligopoly**

The term oligopoly is derived from two Greek words, oligos meaning a few, and pollen meaning to sell. Oligopoly is the form of imperfect competition where there are a few firms in the market, producing either a homogeneous product or producing products, which are close but not perfect substitute of each other.

### Characteristics of Oligopoly

The main features of oligopoly are:

1. **Few Firms:** There are only a few firms in the industry. Each firm contributes a sizeable share of the total market. Any decision taken by one firm influence the actions of other firms in the industry. The various firms in the industry compete with each other.
2. **Interdependence:** As there are only very few firms, any steps taken by one firm to increase sales, by reducing price or by changing product design or by increasing advertisement expenditure will naturally affect the sales of other firms in the industry. An immediate retaliatory action can be anticipated from the other firms in the industry every time when one firm takes such a decision. He has to take this into account when he takes decisions. So the decisions of all the firms in the industry are interdependent.
3. **Indeterminate Demand Curve:** The interdependence of the firms makes their demand curve indeterminate. When one firm reduces price other firms also will make a cut in their prices. So he firm cannot be certain about the demand for its product. Thus the demand curve facing an oligopolistic firm loses its definiteness and thus is indeterminate as it constantly changes due to the reactions of the rival firms.
4. **Advertising and selling costs:** Advertising plays a greater role in the oligopoly market when compared to other market systems. According to Prof. William J. Banumol “it is only oligopoly that advertising comes fully into its own”. A huge expenditure on advertising and sales promotion techniques is needed both to retain the present market share and to increase it. So Banumol concludes “under oligopoly, advertising can become a life-and-death matter where a firm which fails to keep up with the advertising budget of its competitors may find its customers drifting off to rival products.”
5. **Price Rigidity:** In the oligopoly market price remain rigid. If one firm reduced price it is with the intention of attracting the customers of other firms in the industry. In order to retain their consumers they will also reduce price. Thus the pricing decision of one firm results in a loss to all the firms in the industry. If one firm increases price. Other firms will remain silent there by allowing that firm to lost its customers. Hence, no firm will be ready to change the prevailing price. It causes price rigidity in the oligopoly market.

### **OTHER MARKET STRUCTURES**

#### **Duopoly**

Duopoly refers to a market situation in which there are only two sellers. As there are only two sellers any decision taken by one seller will have reaction from the other Eg. Coca-Cola and Pepsi. Usually these two sellers may agree to co-operate each other and share the market equally between them, So that they can avoid harmful competition.

The duopoly price, in the long run, may be a monopoly price or competitive price, or it may settle at any level between the monopoly price and competitive price. In the short period, duopoly price may even fall below the level competitive price with the both the firms earning less than even the normal price.

## **Monopsony**

Mrs. Joan Robinson was the first writer to use the term monopsony to refer to market, which there is a single buyer. Monopsony is a single buyer or a purchasing agency, which buys the show, or nearly whole of a commodity or service produced. It may be created when all consumers of a commodity are organized together and/or when only one consumer requires that commodity which no one else requires.

## **Bilateral Monopoly**

A bilateral monopoly is a market situation in which a single seller (Monopoly) faces a single buyer (Monopsony). It is a market of monopoly-monoposy.

## **Oligopsony**

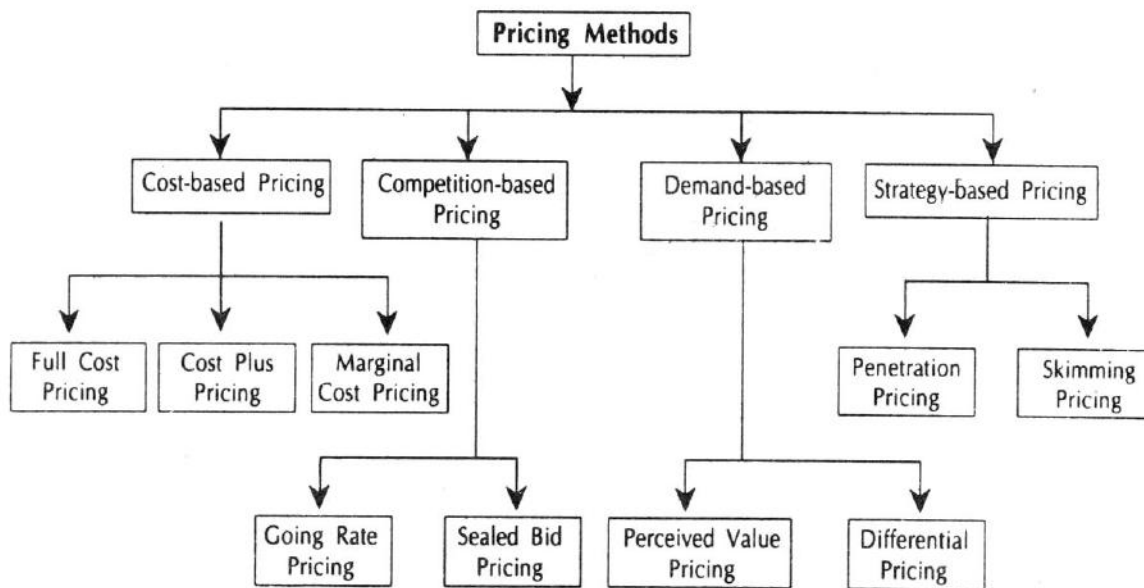
Oligopsony is a market situation in which there will be a few buyers and many sellers. As the sellers are more and buyers are few, the price of product will be comparatively low but not as low as under monopoly.

## **PRICING METHODS**

The micro – economic principle of profit maximization suggests pricing by the marginal analysis. That is by equating MR to MC. However the pricing methods followed by the firms in practice around the world rarely follow this procedure. This is for two reasons; uncertainty with regard to demand and cost function and the deviation from the objective of short run profit maximization.

It was seen that there is no unique theory of firm behavior. While profit certainly on important variable for which every firm cares. Maximization of short – run profit is not a popular objective of a firm today. At the most firms seek maximum profit in the long run. If so the problem is dynamic and its solution requires accurate knowledge of demand and cost conditions over time. Which is impossible to come by?

In view of these problems economic prices are a rare phenomenon. Instead, firms set prices for their products through several alternative means. The important pricing methods followed in practice are shown in the chart.



### **Cost Based Pricing**

There are three versions of the cost – based pricing. Full – cost or break even pricing, cost plus pricing and the marginal cost pricing. Under the first version, price just equals the average (total) cost. In the second version, some mark-up is added to the average cost in arriving at the price. In the last version, price is set equal to the marginal cost. While all these methods appear to be easy and straight forward, they are in fact associated with a number of difficulties. Even though difficulties are there, the cost- oriented pricing is quite popular today.

The cost – based pricing has several strengths as well as limitations. The advantages are its simplicity, acceptability and consistency with the target rate of return on investment and the price stability in general. The limitations are difficulties in getting accurate estimates of cost (particularly of the future cost rather than the historic cost) Volatile nature of the variable cost and its ignoring of the demand side of the market etc.

### **Competition based pricing**

Some commodities are priced according to the competition in their markets. Thus we have the going rate method of price and the sealed bid pricing technique. Under the former a firm prices its new product according to the prevailing prices of comparable products in the market. If the product is new in the country, then its import cost – inclusive of the costs of certificates, insurance, and freight and customs duty, is used as the basis for pricing, Incidentally, the price is not necessarily equal to the import cost, but to the firm is either new in the country, or is a close substitute or complimentary to some other products, the prices of hitherto existing bands or / and of the related goods are taken in to a account while deciding its price. Thus, when television was first manufactures in India, its import cost must have been a guiding force in its price determination. Similarly, when

maruti car was first manufactured in India, it must have taken into account the prices of existing cars, price of petrol, price of car accessories, etc. Needless to say, the going rate price could be below or above the average cost and it could even be an economic price.

The sealed bid pricing method is quite popular in the case of construction activities and in the disposition of used produces. In this method the prospective seller (buyers) are asked to quote their prices through a sealed cover, all the offers are opened at a preannounce time in the presence of all the competitors, and the one who quoted the least is awarded the contract (purchase / sale deed). As it sound, this method is totally competition based and if the competitors unit by any change, the buyers (seller) may have to pay (receive) an exorbitantly high (too low) price, thus there is a great degree of risk attached to this method of pricing.

### **Demand Based Pricing**

The demand – based pricing and strategy – based pricing are quite related. The seller knows rather well that the demand for its product is a decreasing function of the price its sets for product. Thus if seller wishes to sell more he must reduce the price of his product, and if he wants a good price for his product, he could sell only a limited quantity of his good. Demand oriented pricing rules imply establishment of prices in accordance with consumer preference and perceptions and the intensity of demand.

Two general types demand oriented pricing rules can be identified.

- i. Perceived value pricing and
- ii. Differential pricing

Perceived value pricing considers the buyer's perception of the value of the product ad the basis of pricing. Here the pricing rule is that the firm must develop procedures for measuring the relative value of the product as perceived by consumers. Differential pricing is nothing but price discrimination. In involves selling a product or service for different prices in different market segments. Price differentiation depends on geographical location of the consumers, type of consumer, purchasing quantity, season, time of the service etc. E.g. Telephone charges, APSRTC charges.

### **Strategy based pricing (new product pricing)**

A firm which products a new product, if it is also new to industry, can earn very good profits it if handles marketing carefully, because of the uniqueness of the product. The price fixed for the new product must keep the competitors away. Earn good profits for the firm over the life of the product and must help to get the product accepted. The company can select either skimming pricing or penetration pricing.

While there are some firms, which follow the strategy of price penetration, there are some others who opt for price – skimming. Under the former, firms sell their new product at a low price in the beginning in order to catch the attention of consumers, once the product image and credibility is established, the seller slowly starts jacking up the price to reap good profits in future. Under this strategy, a firm might well sell its product below the cost of production and thus runs into losses to start with but eventually it recovers all its losses and even makes good overall profits. The Rin washing soap perhaps falls into this category. This soap was sold at a rather low price in the beginning and the firm even distributed free samples. Today, it is quite an expensive brand and yet it is selling very well. Under the price – skimming strategy, the new product is priced high in the beginning, and its price is reduced gradually as it faces a dearth of buyers such a strategy may be beneficial for products, which are fancy, but of poor quality and / or of insignificant use over a period of time.

A prudent producer follows a good mix of the various pricing methods rather than adapting any once of them. This is because no method is perfect and every method has certain good features further a firm might adopt one method at one time and another method at some other accession.



## **BUSINESS AND NEW ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT**

Imagine you want to do business. Which are you interested in? For example, you want to get into InfoTech industry. What can you do in this industry? Which one do you choose? The following are the alternatives you have on hand:

- You can buy and sell
- You can set up a small/medium/large industry to manufacture
- You can set up a workshop to repair
- You can develop software
- You can design hardware
- You can be a consultant/trouble-shooter

If you choose any one or more of the above, you have chosen the line of activity. The next step for you is to decide whether.

- You want to be only owner (It means you want to be sole trader) or
- You want to take some more professionals as co-owners along with you (It means you want to form partnership with others as partners) or
- You want to be a global player by mobilizing large resources across the country/world
- You want to bring all like-minded people to share the benefits of the common enterprise (You want to promote a joint stock company) or
- You want to involve government in the IT business (here you want to suggest government to promote a public enterprise!)

To decide this, it is necessary to know how to evaluate each of these alternatives.

### **Factors affecting the choice of form of business organization**

Before we choose a particular form of business organization, let us study what factors affect such a choice? The following are the factors affecting the choice of a business organization:

1. **Easy to start and easy to close:** The form of business organization should be such that it should be easy to close. There should not be hassles or long procedures in the process of setting up business or closing the same.
2. **Division of labour:** There should be possibility to divide the work among the available owners.
3. **Large amount of resources:** Large volume of business requires large volume of resources. Some forms of business organization do not permit to raise larger resources. Select the one which permits to mobilize the large resources.
4. **Liability:** The liability of the owners should be limited to the extent of money invested in business. It is better if their personal properties are not brought into business to make up the losses of the business.

5. **Secrecy:** The form of business organization you select should be such that it should permit to take care of the business secrets. We know that century old business units are still surviving only because they could successfully guard their business secrets.
6. **Transfer of ownership:** There should be simple procedures to transfer the ownership to the next legal heir.
7. **Ownership, Management and control:** If ownership, management and control are in the hands of one or a small group of persons, communication will be effective and coordination will be easier. Where ownership, management and control are widely distributed, it calls for a high degree of professional's skills to monitor the performance of the business.
8. **Continuity:** The business should continue forever and ever irrespective of the uncertainties in future.
9. **Quick decision-making:** Select such a form of business organization, which permits you to take decisions quickly and promptly. Delay in decisions may invalidate the relevance of the decisions.
10. **Personal contact with customer:** Most of the times, customers give us clues to improve business. So choose such a form, which keeps you close to the customers.
11. **Flexibility:** In times of rough weather, there should be enough flexibility to shift from one business to the other. The lesser the funds committed in a particular business, the better it is.
12. **Taxation:** More profit means more tax. Choose such a form, which permits to pay low tax.

These are the parameters against which we can evaluate each of the available forms of business organizations.

## **SOLE TRADER**

The sole trader is the simplest, oldest and natural form of business organization. It is also called sole proprietorship. 'Sole' means one. 'Sole trader' implies that there is only one trader who is the owner of the business.

It is a one-man form of organization wherein the trader assumes all the risk of ownership carrying out the business with his own capital, skill and intelligence. He is the boss for himself. He has total operational freedom. He is the owner, Manager and controller. He has total freedom and flexibility. Full control lies with him. He can take his own decisions. He can choose or drop a particular product or business based on its merits. He need not discuss this with anybody. He is responsible for himself. This form of organization is popular all over the world. Restaurants, Supermarkets, pan shops, medical shops, hosiery shops etc.

### **Features**

- It is easy to start a business under this form and also easy to close.
- He introduces his own capital. Sometimes, he may borrow, if necessary
- He enjoys all the profits and in case of loss, he lone suffers.
- He has unlimited liability which implies that his liability extends to his personal properties in case of loss.
- He has a high degree of flexibility to shift from one business to the other.
- Business secretes can be guarded well
- There is no continuity. The business comes to a close with the death, illness or insanity of the sole trader. Unless, the legal heirs show interest to continue the business, the business cannot be restored.

- He has total operational freedom. He is the owner, manager and controller.
- He can be directly in touch with the customers.
- He can take decisions very fast and implement them promptly.
- Rates of tax, for example, income tax and so on are comparatively very low.

### Advantages

The following are the advantages of the sole trader form of business organization:

1. **Easy to start and easy to close:** Formation of a sole trader form of organization is relatively easy even closing the business is easy.
2. **Personal contact with customers directly:** Based on the tastes and preferences of the customers the stocks can be maintained.
3. **Prompt decision-making:** To improve the quality of services to the customers, he can take any decision and implement the same promptly. He is the boss and he is responsible for his business Decisions relating to growth or expansion can be made promptly.
4. **High degree of flexibility:** Based on the profitability, the trader can decide to continue or change the business, if need be.
5. **Secrecy:** Business secrets can well be maintained because there is only one trader.
6. **Low rate of taxation:** The rate of income tax for sole traders is relatively very low.
7. **Direct motivation:** If there are profits, all the profits belong to the trader himself. In other words. If he works more hard, he will get more profits. This is the direct motivating factor. At the same time, if he does not take active interest, he may stand to lose badly also.
8. **Total Control:** The ownership, management and control are in the hands of the sole trader and hence it is easy to maintain the hold on business.
9. **Minimum interference from government:** Except in matters relating to public interest, government does not interfere in the business matters of the sole trader. The sole trader is free to fix price for his products/services if he enjoys monopoly market.
10. **Transferability:** The legal heirs of the sole trader may take the possession of the business.

### Disadvantages

The following are the disadvantages of sole trader form:

1. **Unlimited liability:** The liability of the sole trader is unlimited. It means that the sole trader has to bring his personal property to clear off the loans of his business. From the legal point of view, he is not different from his business.
2. **Limited amounts of capital:** The resources a sole trader can mobilize cannot be very large and hence this naturally sets a limit for the scale of operations.
3. **No division of labour:** All the work related to different functions such as marketing, production, finance, labour and so on has to be taken care of by the sole trader himself. There is nobody else to take his burden. Family members and relatives cannot show as much interest as the trader takes.

4. **Uncertainty:** There is no continuity in the duration of the business. On the death, insanity or insolvency the business may come to an end.
5. **Inadequate for growth and expansion:** This form is suitable for only small size, one-man-show type of organizations. This may not really work out for growing and expanding organizations.
6. **Lack of specialization:** The services of specialists such as accountants, market researchers, consultants and so on, are not within the reach of most of the sole traders.
7. **More competition:** Because it is easy to set up a small business, there is a high degree of competition among the small businessmen and a few who are good in taking care of customer requirements along can service.
8. **Low bargaining power:** The sole trader is the in the receiving end in terms of loans or supply of raw materials. He may have to compromise many times regarding the terms and conditions of purchase of materials or borrowing loans from the finance houses or banks.

## **PARTNERSHIP**

Partnership is an improved form of sole trader in certain respects. Where there are like-minded persons with resources, they can come together to do the business and share the profits/losses of the business in an agreed ratio. Persons who have entered into such an agreement are individually called 'partners' and collectively called 'firm'. The relationship among partners is called a partnership.

Indian Partnership Act, 1932 defines partnership as the relationship between two or more persons who agree to share the profits of the business carried on by all or any one of them acting for all.

### **Features**

1. **Relationship:** Partnership is a relationship among persons. It is relationship resulting out of an agreement.
2. **Two or more persons:** There should be two or more number of persons.
3. **There should be a business:** Business should be conducted.
4. **Agreement:** Persons should agree to share the profits/losses of the business
5. **Carried on by all or any one of them acting for all:** The business can be carried on by all or any one of the persons acting for all. This means that the business can be carried on by one person who is the agent for all other persons. Every partner is both an agent and a principal. Agent for other partners and principal for himself. All the partners are agents and the 'partnership' is their principal.

The following are the other features:

- (a) **Unlimited liability:** The liability of the partners is unlimited. The partnership and partners, in the eye of law, are not different but one and the same. Hence, the partners have to bring their personal assets to clear the losses of the firm, if any.
- (b) **Number of partners:** According to the Indian Partnership Act, the minimum number of partners should be two and the maximum number if restricted, as given below:
  - 10 partners in case of banking business

- 20 in case of non-banking business
- (c) **Division of labour:** Because there are more than two persons, the work can be divided among the partners based on their aptitude.
- (d) **Personal contact with customers:** The partners can continuously be in touch with the customers to monitor their requirements.
- (e) **Flexibility:** All the partners are likeminded persons and hence they can take any decision relating to business.

### **Partnership Deed**

The written agreement among the partners is called 'the partnership deed'. It contains the terms and conditions governing the working of partnership. The following are contents of the partnership deed.

1. Names and addresses of the firm and partners
2. Nature of the business proposed
3. Duration
4. Amount of capital of the partnership and the ratio for contribution by each of the partners.
5. Their profit sharing ration (this is used for sharing losses also)
6. Rate of interest charged on capital contributed, loans taken from the partnership and the amounts drawn, if any, by the partners from their respective capital balances.
7. The amount of salary or commission payable to any partner
8. Procedure to value good will of the firm at the time of admission of a new partner, retirement or death of a partner
9. Allocation of responsibilities of the partners in the firm
10. Procedure for dissolution of the firm
11. Name of the arbitrator to whom the disputes, if any, can be referred to for settlement.
12. Special rights, obligations and liabilities of partners(s), if any.

### **KIND OF PARTNERS**

The following are the different kinds of partners:

1. **Active Partner:** Active partner takes active part in the affairs of the partnership. He is also called working partner.
2. **Sleeping Partner:** Sleeping partner contributes to capital but does not take part in the affairs of the partnership.
3. **Nominal Partner:** Nominal partner is partner just for namesake. He neither contributes to capital nor takes part in the affairs of business. Normally, the nominal partners are those who have good business connections, and are well placed in the society.
4. **Partner by Estoppels:** Estoppels means behavior or conduct. Partner by estoppels gives an impression to outsiders that he is the partner in the firm. In fact he neither contributes to capital, nor takes any role in the affairs of the partnership.

5. **Partner by holding out:** If partners declare a particular person (having social status) as partner and this person does not contradict even after he comes to know such declaration, he is called a partner by holding out and he is liable for the claims of third parties. However, the third parties should prove they entered into contract with the firm in the belief that he is the partner of the firm. Such a person is called partner by holding out.
6. **Minor Partner:** Minor has a special status in the partnership. A minor can be admitted for the benefits of the firm. A minor is entitled to his share of profits of the firm. The liability of a minor partner is limited to the extent of his contribution of the capital of the firm.

### **Right of partners**

Every partner has right

- (a) To take part in the management of business
- (b) To express his opinion
- (c) Of access to and inspect and copy and book of accounts of the firm
- (d) To share equally the profits of the firm in the absence of any specific agreement to the contrary
- (e) To receive interest on capital at an agreed rate of interest from the profits of the firm
- (f) To receive interest on loans, if any, extended to the firm.
- (g) To be indemnified for any loss incurred by him in the conduct of the business
- (h) To receive any money spent by him in the ordinary and proper conduct of the business of the firm.

### **Advantages**

The following are the advantages of the partnership from:

1. **Easy to form:** Once there is a group of like-minded persons and good business proposal, it is easy to start and register a partnership.
2. **Availability of larger amount of capital:** More amount of capital can be raised from more number of partners.
3. **Division of labour:** The different partners come with varied backgrounds and skills. This facilitates division of labour.
4. **Flexibility:** The partners are free to change their decisions, add or drop a particular product or start a new business or close the present one and so on.
5. **Personal contact with customers:** There is scope to keep close monitoring with customers requirements by keeping one of the partners in charge of sales and marketing. Necessary changes can be initiated based on the merits of the proposals from the customers.
6. **Quick decisions and prompt action:** If there is consensus among partners, it is enough to implement any decision and initiate prompt action. Sometimes, it may more time for the partners on strategic issues to reach consensus.
7. **The positive impact of unlimited liability:** Every partner is always alert about his impending danger of unlimited liability. Hence he tries to do his best to bring profits for the partnership firm by making good use of all his contacts.

### **Disadvantages:**

The following are the disadvantages of partnership:

1. **Formation of partnership is difficult:** Only like-minded persons can start a partnership. It is sarcastically said, 'it is easy to find a life partner, but not a business partner'.
2. **Liability:** The partners have joint and several liabilities beside unlimited liability. Joint and several liability puts additional burden on the partners, which means that even the personal properties of the partner or partners can be attached. Even when all but one partner become insolvent, the solvent partner has to bear the entire burden of business loss.
3. **Lack of harmony or cohesiveness:** It is likely that partners may not, most often work as a group with cohesiveness. This result in mutual conflicts, an attitude of suspicion and crisis of confidence. Lack of harmony results in delay in decisions and paralyses the entire operations.
4. **Limited growth:** The resources when compared to sole trader, a partnership may raise little more. But when compare to the other forms such as a company, resources raised in this form of organization are limited. Added to this, there is a restriction on the maximum number of partners.
5. **Instability:** The partnership form is known for its instability. The firm may be dissolved on death, insolvency or insanity of any of the partners.
6. **Lack of Public confidence:** Public and even the financial institutions look at the unregistered firm with a suspicious eye. Though registration of the firm under the Indian Partnership Act is a solution of such problem, this cannot revive public confidence into this form of organization overnight. The partnership can create confidence in other only with their performance.

## **JOINT STOCK COMPANY**

The joint stock company emerges from the limitations of partnership such as joint and several liability, unlimited liability, limited resources and uncertain duration and so on. Normally, to take part in a business, it may need large money and we cannot foretell the fate of business. It is not literally possible to get into business with little money. Against this background, it is interesting to study the functioning of a joint stock company. The main principle of the joint stock company from is to provide opportunity to take part in business with a low investment as possible say Rs.1000. Joint Stock Company has been a boon for investors with moderate funds to invest.

The word 'company' has a Latin origin, com means 'come together', pany means 'bread', joint stock company means, people come together to earn their livelihood by investing in the stock of company jointly.

### **Company Defined**

Lord justice Lindley explained the concept of the joint stock company from of organization as ‘an association of many persons who contribute money or money’s worth to a common stock and employ it for a common purpose.

### Features

This definition brings out the following features of the company:

1. **Artificial person:** The Company has no form or shape. It is an artificial person created by law. It is intangible, invisible and existing only, in the eyes of law.
2. **Separate legal existence:** it has an independence existence, it separate from its members. It can acquire the assets. It can borrow for the company. It can sue other if they are in default in payment of dues, breach of contract with it, if any. Similarly, outsiders for any claim can sue it. A shareholder is not liable for the acts of the company. Similarly, the shareholders cannot bind the company by their acts.
3. **Voluntary association of persons:** The Company is an association of voluntary association of persons who want to carry on business for profit. To carry on business, they need capital. So they invest in the share capital of the company.
4. **Limited Liability:** The shareholders have limited liability i.e., liability limited to the face value of the shares held by him. In other words, the liability of a shareholder is restricted to the extent of his contribution to the share capital of the company. The shareholder need not pay anything, even in times of loss for the company, other than his contribution to the share capital.
5. **Capital is divided into shares:** The total capital is divided into a certain number of units. Each unit is called a share. The price of each share is priced so low that every investor would like to invest in the company. The companies promoted by promoters of good standing (i.e., known for their reputation in terms of reliability character and dynamism) are likely to attract huge resources.
6. **Transferability of shares:** In the company form of organization, the shares can be transferred from one person to the other. A shareholder of a public company can sell his holding of shares at his will. However, the shares of a private company cannot be transferred. A private company restricts the transferability of the shares.
7. **Common Seal:** As the company is an artificial person created by law has no physical form, it cannot sign its name on a paper; so, it has a common seal on which its name is engraved. The common seal should affix every document or contract; otherwise the company is not bound by such a document or contract.
8. **Perpetual succession:** ‘Members may come and members may go, but the company continues for ever and ever’ A. company has uninterrupted existence because of the right given to the shareholders to transfer the shares.
9. **Ownership and Management separated:** The shareholders are spread over the length and breadth of the country, and sometimes, they are from different parts of the world. To facilitate administration, the shareholders elect some among themselves or the promoters of the company as directors to a Board, which looks after the management of the business. The Board recruits the managers and employees at different levels in the management. Thus the management is separated from the owners.
10. **Winding up:** Winding up refers to the putting an end to the company. Because law creates it, only law can put an end to it in special circumstances such as representation from creditors of financial institutions, or shareholders against the company that their interests are not safeguarded. The company is not affected by the death or insolvency of any of its members.



11. **The name of the company ends with 'limited'**: it is necessary that the name of the company ends with limited (Ltd.) to give an indication to the outsiders that they are dealing with the company with limited liability and they should be careful about the liability aspect of their transactions with the company.

## **Formation of Joint Stock company**

There are two stages in the formation of a joint stock company. They are:

- (a) To obtain Certificates of Incorporation
- (b) To obtain certificate of commencement of Business

**Certificate of Incorporation:** The certificate of Incorporation is just like a 'date of birth' certificate. It certifies that a company with such and such a name is born on a particular day.

**Certificate of commencement of Business:** A private company need not obtain the certificate of commencement of business. It can start its commercial operations immediately after obtaining the certificate of Incorporation.

The persons who conceive the idea of starting a company and who organize the necessary initial resources are called promoters. The vision of the promoters forms the backbone for the company in the future to reckon with.

The promoters have to file the following documents, along with necessary fee, with a registrar of joint stock companies to obtain certificate of incorporation:

- (a) **Memorandum of Association**: The Memorandum of Association is also called the charter of the company. It outlines the relations of the company with the outsiders. It furnishes all its details in six clauses such as (i) Name clause (ii) situation clause (iii) objects clause (iv) Capital clause and (v) subscription clause duly executed by its subscribers.
- (b) **Articles of association**: Articles of Association furnishes the byelaws or internal rules governing the internal conduct of the company.
- (c) The list of names and address of the proposed directors and their willingness, in writing to act as such, in case of registration of a public company.
- (d) A statutory declaration that all the legal requirements have been fulfilled. The declaration has to be duly signed by any one of the following: Company secretary in whole practice, the proposed director, legal solicitor, chartered accountant in whole time practice or advocate of High court.

The registrar of joint stock companies peruses and verifies whether all these documents are in order or not. If he is satisfied with the information furnished, he will register the documents and then issue a certificate of incorporation, if it is private company, it can start its business operation immediately after obtaining certificate of incorporation.

## **Advantages**

The following are the advantages of a joint Stock Company

1. **Mobilization of larger resources:** A joint stock company provides opportunity for the investors to invest, even small sums, in the capital of large companies. The facilities rising of larger resources.
2. **Separate legal entity:** The Company has separate legal entity. It is registered under Indian Companies Act, 1956.
3. **Limited liability:** The shareholder has limited liability in respect of the shares held by him. In no case, does his liability exceed more than the face value of the shares allotted to him.
4. **Transferability of shares:** The shares can be transferred to others. However, the private company shares cannot be transferred.
5. **Liquidity of investments:** By providing the transferability of shares, shares can be converted into cash.
6. **Inculcates the habit of savings and investments:** Because the share face value is very low, this promotes the habit of saving among the common man and mobilizes the same towards investments in the company.
7. **Democracy in management:** the shareholders elect the directors in a democratic way in the general body meetings. The shareholders are free to make any proposals, question the practice of the management, suggest the possible remedial measures, as they perceive, The directors respond to the issue raised by the shareholders and have to justify their actions.
8. **Economics of large scale production:** Since the production is in the scale with large funds at
9. **Continued existence:** The Company has perpetual succession. It has no natural end. It continues forever and ever unless law put an end to it.
10. **Institutional confidence:** Financial Institutions prefer to deal with companies in view of their professionalism and financial strengths.
11. **Professional management:** With the larger funds at its disposal, the Board of Directors recruits competent and professional managers to handle the affairs of the company in a professional manner.
12. **Growth and Expansion:** With large resources and professional management, the company can earn good returns on its operations, build good amount of reserves and further consider the proposals for growth and expansion.

All that shines is not gold. The company from of organization is not without any disadvantages. The following are the disadvantages of joint stock companies.

### **Disadvantages**

1. **Formation of company is a long drawn procedure:** Promoting a joint stock company involves a long drawn procedure. It is expensive and involves large number of legal formalities.
2. **High degree of government interference:** The government brings out a number of rules and regulations governing the internal conduct of the operations of a company such as meetings, voting, audit and so on, and any violation of these rules results into statutory lapses, punishable under the companies act.
3. **Inordinate delays in decision-making:** As the size of the organization grows, the number of levels in organization also increases in the name of specialization. The more the number of levels, the more is the delay in decision-making. Sometimes, so-called professionals do not respond to the urgencies as required. It promotes delay in administration, which is referred to 'red tape and bureaucracy'.

4. **Lack or initiative**: In most of the cases, the employees of the company at different levels show slack in their personal initiative with the result, the opportunities once missed do not recur and the company loses the revenue.
5. **Lack of responsibility and commitment**: In some cases, the managers at different levels are afraid to take risk and more worried about their jobs rather than the huge funds invested in the capital of the company lose the revenue.
6. **Lack of responsibility and commitment**: In some cases, the managers at different levels are afraid to take risk and more worried about their jobs rather than the huge funds invested in the capital of the company. Where managers do not show up willingness to take responsibility, they cannot be considered as committed. They will not be able to handle the business risks.

## **PUBLIC ENTERPRISES**

Public enterprises occupy an important position in the Indian economy. Today, public enterprises provide the substance and heart of the economy. Its investment of over Rs.10,000 crore is in heavy and basic industry, and infrastructure like power, transport and communications. The concept of public enterprise in Indian dates back to the era of pre-independence.

### **Genesis of Public Enterprises**

In consequence to declaration of its goal as socialistic pattern of society in 1954, the Government of India realized that it is through progressive extension of public enterprises only, the following aims of our five years plans can be fulfilled.

- Higher production
- Greater employment
- Economic equality, and
- Dispersal of economic power

The government found it necessary to revise its industrial policy in 1956 to give it a socialistic bent.

### **Need for Public Enterprises**

The Industrial Policy Resolution 1956 states the need for promoting public enterprises as follows:

- To accelerate the rate of economic growth by planned development
- To speed up industrialization, particularly development of heavy industries and to expand public sector and to build up a large and growing cooperative sector.
- To increase infrastructure facilities
- To disperse the industries over different geographical areas for balanced regional development

- To increase the opportunities of gainful employment
- To help in raising the standards of living
- To reducing disparities in income and wealth (By preventing private monopolies and curbing concentration of economic power and vast industries in the hands of a small number of individuals)

### **Achievements of public Enterprises**

The achievements of public enterprise are vast and varied. They are:

1. Setting up a number of public enterprises in basic and key industries
2. Generating considerably large employment opportunities in skilled, unskilled, supervisory and managerial cadres.
3. Creating internal resources and contributing towards national exchequer for funds for development and welfare.
4. Bringing about development activities in backward regions, through locations in different areas of the country.
5. Assisting in the field of export promotion and conservation of foreign exchange.
6. Creating viable infrastructure and bringing about rapid industrialization (ancillary industries developed around the public sector as its nucleus).
7. Restricting the growth of private monopolies
8. Stimulating diversified growth in private sector
9. Taking over sick industrial units and putting them, in most of the vases, in order,
10. Creating financial systems, through a powerful networking of financial institutions, development and promotional institutions, which has resulted in social control and social orientation of investment, credit and capital management systems.
11. Benefiting the rural areas, priority sectors, small business in the fields of industry, finance, credit, services, trade, transport, consultancy and so on.

Let us see the different forms of public enterprise and their features now.

### **Forms of public enterprises**

Public enterprises can be classified into three forms:

- (a) Departmental undertaking
- (b) Public corporation
- (c) Government company

These are explained below

#### **Departmental Undertaking**

This is the earliest form of public enterprise. Under this form, the affairs of the public enterprise are carried out under the overall control of one of the departments of the government. The government department appoints a managing director (normally a civil servant) for the departmental undertaking. He will be given the executive authority to take necessary decisions. The departmental undertaking does not have a budget of its own. As and when it wants, it draws money from the government exchequer and when it has surplus money, it deposits it in the government exchequer. However, it is subject to budget, accounting and audit controls.

Examples for departmental undertakings are Railways, Department of Posts, All India Radio, Doordarshan, Defence undertakings like DRDL, DLRL, ordinance factories, and such.

### **Features**

1. **Under the control of a government department:** The departmental undertaking is not an independent organization. It has no separate existence. It is designed to work under close control of a government department. It is subject to direct ministerial control.
2. **More financial freedom:** The departmental undertaking can draw funds from government account as per the needs and deposit back when convenient.
3. **Like any other government department:** The departmental undertaking is almost similar to any other government department.
4. **Budget, accounting and audit controls:** The departmental undertaking has to follow guidelines (as applicable to the other government departments) underlying the budget preparation, maintenance of accounts, and getting the accounts audited internally and by external auditors.
5. **More a government organization, less a business organization.** The set up of a departmental undertaking is more rigid, less flexible, slow in responding to market needs.

### **Advantages**

1. **Effective control:** Control is likely to be effective because it is directly under the Ministry.
2. **Responsible Executives:** Normally the administration is entrusted to a senior civil servant. The administration will be organized and effective.
3. **Less scope for mystification of funds:** Departmental undertaking does not draw any money more than is needed, that too subject to ministerial sanction and other controls. So chances for mis-utilisation are low.
4. **Adds to Government revenue:** The revenue of the government is on the rise when the revenue of the departmental undertaking is deposited in the government account.

### **Disadvantages**

1. **Decisions delayed:** Control is centralized. This results in lower degree of flexibility. Officials in the lower levels cannot take initiative. Decisions cannot be fast and actions cannot be prompt.

2. **No incentive to maximize earnings**: The departmental undertaking does not retain any surplus with it. So there is no incentive for maximizing the efficiency or earnings.
3. **Slow response to market conditions**: Since there is no competition, there is no profit motive; there is no incentive to move swiftly to market needs.
4. **Redtapism and bureaucracy**: The departmental undertakings are in the control of a civil servant and under the immediate supervision of a government department. Administration gets delayed substantially.
5. **Incidence of more taxes**: At times, in case of losses, these are made up by the government funds only. To make up these, there may be a need for fresh taxes, which is undesirable.

Any business organization to be more successful needs to be more dynamic, flexible, and responsive to market conditions, fast in decision making and prompt in actions. None of these qualities figure in the features of a departmental undertaking. It is true that departmental undertaking operates as an extension to the government. With the result, the government may miss certain business opportunities. So as not to miss business opportunities, the government has thought of another form of public enterprise, that is, Public corporation.

## **PUBLIC CORPORATION**

Having realised that the routine government administration would not be able to cope up with the demand of its business enterprises, the Government of India, in 1948, decided to organize some of its enterprises as statutory corporations. In pursuance of this, Industrial Finance Corporation, Employees' State Insurance Corporation was set up in 1948.

Public corporation is a 'right mix of public ownership, public accountability and business management for public ends'. The public corporation provides machinery, which is flexible, while at the same time retaining public control.

### **Definition**

A public corporation is defined as a 'body corporate created by an Act of Parliament or Legislature and notified by the name in the official gazette of the central or state government. It is a corporate entity having perpetual succession, and common seal with power to acquire, hold, dispose off property, sue and be sued by its name'.

Examples of a public corporation are Life Insurance Corporation of India, Unit Trust of India, Industrial Finance Corporation of India, Damodar Valley Corporation and others.

### **Features**

1. **A body corporate**: It has a separate legal existence. It is a separate company by itself. It can raise resources, buy and sell properties, by name sue and be sued.
2. **More freedom and day-to-day affairs**: It is relatively free from any type of political interference. It enjoys administrative autonomy.

3. **Freedom regarding personnel:** The employees of public corporation are not government civil servants. The corporation has absolute freedom to formulate its own personnel policies and procedures, and these are applicable to all the employees including directors.
4. **Perpetual succession:** A statute in parliament or state legislature creates it. It continues forever and till a statute is passed to wind it up.
5. **Financial autonomy:** Through the public corporation is fully owned government organization, and the initial finance are provided by the Government, it enjoys total financial autonomy, Its income and expenditure are not shown in the annual budget of the government, it enjoys total financial autonomy. Its income and expenditure are not shown in the annual budget of the government. However, for its freedom it is restricted regarding capital expenditure beyond the laid down limits, and raising the capital through capital market.
6. **Commercial audit:** Except in the case of banks and other financial institutions where chartered accountants are auditors, in all corporations, the audit is entrusted to the comptroller and auditor general of India.
7. **Run on commercial principles:** As far as the discharge of functions, the corporation shall act as far as possible on sound business principles.

### **Advantages**

1. **Independence, initiative and flexibility:** The corporation has an autonomous set up. So it is independent, take necessary initiative to realize its goals, and it can be flexible in its decisions as required.
2. **Scope for Redtapism and bureaucracy minimized:** The Corporation has its own policies and procedures. If necessary they can be simplified to eliminate redtapism and bureaucracy, if any.
3. **Public interest protected:** The corporation can protect the public interest by making its policies more public friendly, Public interests are protected because every policy of the corporation is subject to ministerial directives and board parliamentary control.
4. **Employee friendly work environment:** Corporation can design its own work culture and train its employees accordingly. It can provide better amenities and better terms of service to the employees and thereby secure greater productivity.
5. **Competitive prices:** the corporation is a government organization and hence can afford with minimum margins of profit, It can offer its products and services at competitive prices.
6. **Economics of scale:** By increasing the size of its operations, it can achieve economics of large-scale production.
7. **Public accountability:** It is accountable to the Parliament or legislature; it has to submit its annual report on its working results.

### **Disadvantages**

1. **Continued political interference:** the autonomy is on paper only and in reality, the continued.
2. **Misuse of Power:** In some cases, the greater autonomy leads to misuse of power. It takes time to unearth the impact of such misuse on the resources of the corporation. Cases of misuse of power defeat the very purpose of the public corporation.

3. **Burden for the government:** Where the public corporation ignores the commercial principles and suffers losses, it is burdensome for the government to provide subsidies to make up the losses.

## **Government Company**

Section 617 of the Indian Companies Act defines a government company as “any company in which not less than 51 percent of the paid up share capital” is held by the Central Government or by any State Government or Governments or partly by Central Government and partly by one or more of the state Governments and includes and company which is subsidiary of government company as thus defined”.

A government company is the right combination of operating flexibility of privately organized companies with the advantages of state regulation and control in public interest.

Government companies differ in the degree of control and their motive also.

Some government companies are promoted as

- industrial undertakings (such as Hindustan Machine Tools, Indian Telephone Industries, and so on)
- Promotional agencies (such as National Industrial Development Corporation, National Small Industries Corporation, and so on) to prepare feasibility reports for promoters who want to set up public or private companies.
- Agency to promote trade or commerce. For example, state trading corporation, Export Credit Guarantee Corporation and so such like.
- A company to take over the existing sick companies under private management (E.g. Hindustan Shipyard)
- A company established as a totally state enterprise to safeguard national interests such as Hindustan Aeronautics Ltd. And so on.
- Mixed ownership company in collaboration with a private consult to obtain technical know how and guidance for the management of its enterprises, e.g. Hindustan Cables)

## **Features**

The following are the features of a government company:

1. **Like any other registered company:** It is incorporated as a registered company under the Indian companies Act. 1956. Like any other company, the government company has separate legal existence. Common seal, perpetual succession, limited liability, and so on. The provisions of the Indian Companies Act apply for all matters relating to formation, administration and winding up. However, the government has a right to exempt the application of any provisions of the government companies.
2. **Shareholding:** The majority of the share are held by the Government, Central or State, partly by the Central and State Government(s), in the name of the President of India, It is also common that the collaborators and allotted some shares for providing the transfer of technology.
3. **Directors are nominated:** As the government is the owner of the entire or majority of the share capital of the company, it has freedom to nominate the directors to the Board. Government may consider the requirements of the company in terms of necessary specialization and appoints the directors accordingly.



4. **Administrative autonomy and financial freedom:** A government company functions independently with full discretion and in the normal administration of affairs of the undertaking.
5. **Subject to ministerial control:** Concerned minister may act as the immediate boss. It is because it is the government that nominates the directors, the minister issue directions for a company and he can call for information related to the progress and affairs of the company any time.

### **Advantages**

1. **Formation is easy:** There is no need for an Act in legislature or parliament to promote a government company. A Government company can be promoted as per the provisions of the companies Act. Which is relatively easier?
2. **Separate legal entity:** It retains the advantages of public corporation such as autonomy, legal entity.
3. **Ability to compete:** It is free from the rigid rules and regulations. It can smoothly function with all the necessary initiative and drive necessary to complete with any other private organization. It retains its independence in respect of large financial resources, recruitment of personnel, management of its affairs, and so on.
4. **Flexibility:** A Government company is more flexible than a departmental undertaking or public corporation. Necessary changes can be initiated, which the framework of the company law. Government can, if necessary, change the provisions of the Companies Act. If found restricting the freedom of the government company. The form of Government Company is so flexible that it can be used for taking over sick units promoting strategic industries in the context of national security and interest.
5. **Quick decision and prompt actions:** In view of the autonomy, the government company take decision quickly and ensure that the actions and initiated promptly.
6. **Private participation facilitated:** Government company is the only from providing scope for private participation in the ownership. The facilities to take the best, necessary to conduct the affairs of business, from the private sector and also from the public sector.

### **Disadvantages**

1. **Continued political and government interference:** Government seldom leaves the government company to function on its own. Government is the major shareholder and it dictates its decisions to the Board. The Board of Directors gets these approved in the general body. There were a number of cases where the operational polices were influenced by the whims and fancies of the civil servants and the ministers.
2. **Higher degree of government control:** The degree of government control is so high that the government company is reduced to mere adjuncts to the ministry and is, in majority of the cases, not treated better than the subordinate organization or offices of the government.
3. **Evades constitutional responsibility:** A government company is creating by executive action of the government without the specific approval of the parliament or Legislature.
4. **Poor sense of attachment or commitment:** The members of the Board of Management of government companies and from the ministerial departments in their ex-officio capacity. The lack the sense of attachment and do not reflect any degree of commitment to lead the company in a competitive environment.

5. **Divided loyalties:** The employees are mostly drawn from the regular government departments for a defined period. After this period, they go back to their government departments and hence their divided loyalty dilutes their interest towards their job in the government company.
6. **Flexibility on paper:** The powers of the directors are to be approved by the concerned Ministry, particularly the power relating to borrowing, increase in the capital, appointment of top officials, entering into contracts for large orders and restrictions on capital expenditure. The government companies are rarely allowed to exercise their flexibility and independence.

## UNIT- IV

### CAPITAL AND CAPITAL BUDGETING

the Financial Management can be broken down in to three major decisions or functions of finance. They are: (i) the investment decision, (ii) the financing decision and (iii) the dividend policy decision.

#### **Investment Decision**

The investment decision relates to the selection of assets in which funds will be invested by a firm. The assets as per their duration of benefits, can be categorized into two groups: (i) long-term assets which yield a return over a period of time in future (ii) short-term or current assets which in the normal course of business are convertible into cash usually within a year. Accordingly, the asset selection decision of a firm is of two types. The investment in long-term assets is popularly known as capital budgeting and in short-term assets, working capital management.

1. **Capital budgeting:** Capital budgeting – the long – term investment decision – is probably the most crucial financial decision of a firm. It relates to the selection of an asset or investment proposal or course of action that benefits are likely to be available in future over the lifetime of the project.

The long-term investment may relate to acquisition of new asset or replacement of old assets. Whether an asset will be accepted or not will depend upon the relative benefits and returns associated with it. The measurement of the worth of the investment proposals is, therefore, a major element in the capital budgeting exercise. The second element of the capital budgeting decision is the analysis of risk and uncertainty as the benefits from the investment proposals pertain the future, which is uncertain. They have to be estimated under various assumptions and thus there is an element of risk involved in the exercise. The return from the capital budgeting decision should, therefore, be evaluated in relation to the risk associated with it.

The third and final element is the ascertainment of a certain norm or standard against which the benefits are to be judged. The norm is known by different names such as cut-off rate, hurdle rate, required rate, minimum rate of return and so on. This standard is broadly expressed in terms of the cost of capital is,

thus, another major aspect of the capital; budgeting decision. In brief, the main elements of the capital budgeting decision are: (i) The total assets and their composition (ii) The business risk complexion of the firm, and (iii) concept and measurement of the cost of capital.

2. **Working Capital Management**: Working capital management is concerned with the management of the current assets. As we know, the short-term survival is a pre-requisite to long-term success. The major thrust of working capital management is the trade-off between profitability and risk (liquidity), which are inversely related to each other. If a firm does not have adequate working capital it may not have the ability to meet its current obligations and thus invite the risk of bankrupt. On the other hand if the current assets are too large the firm will be losing the opportunity of making a good return and thus may not serve the requirements of suppliers of funds. Thus, the profitability and liquidity are the two major dimensions of working capital management. In addition, the individual current assets should be efficiently managed so that neither inadequate nor unnecessary funds are locked up.

### **Finance Decision**

The second major decision involved in financial management is the financing decision, which is concerned with the financing – mix or capital structure of leverage. The term capital structure refers to the combination of debt (fixed interest sources of financing) and equity capital (variable – dividend securities/source of funds). The financing decision of a firm relates to the choice of the proportion of these sources to finance the investment requirements. A higher proportion of debt implies a higher return to the shareholders and also the higher financial risk and vice versa. A proper balance between debt and equity is a must to ensure a trade – off between risk and return to the shareholders. A capital structure with a reasonable proportion of debt and equity capital is called the optimum capital structure.

The second aspect of the financing decision is the determination of an appropriate capital structure, which will result, is maximum return to the shareholders and in turn maximizes the worth of the firm. Thus, the financing decision covers two inter-related aspects: (a) capital structure theory, and (b) capital structure decision.

### **Dividend Policy decision**

The third major decision of financial management is relating to dividend policy. The firm has two alternatives with regard to management of profits of a firm. They can be either distributed to the shareholder in the form of dividends or they can be retained in the business or even distribute some portion and retain the remaining. The course of action to be followed is a significant element in the dividend decision. The dividend pay out ratio i. e. the proportion of net profits to be paid out to the shareholders should be in tune with the investment opportunities available within the firm. The second major aspect of the dividend decision is the study of factors determining dividend policy of a firm in practice.

## **WORKING CAPITAL ANALYSIS**

Finance is required for two purpose viz. for it establishment and to carry out the day-to-day operations of a business. Funds are required to purchase the fixed assets such as plant, machinery, land, building, furniture, etc, on long-term basis. Investments in these assets represent that part of firm's capital, which is blocked on a permanent of fixed basis and is called fixed capital. Funds are also needed for short-term purposes such as the purchase of raw materials, payment of wages and other day-to-day expenses, etc. and these funds are known as working capital. In simple words working capital refers that part of the firm's capital, which is required for financing short term or current assets such as cash, marketable securities, debtors and inventories. The investment in these current assets keeps revolving and being constantly converted into cash and which in turn financed to acquire current assets. Thus the working capital is also known as revolving or circulating capital or short-term capital.

### Concept of working capital

There are two concepts of working capital:

1. Gross working capital
2. Net working capital

#### **Gross working capital:**

In the broader sense, the term working capital refers to the gross working capital. The notion of the gross working capital refers to the capital invested in total current assets of the enterprise. Current assets are those assets, which in the ordinary course of business, can be converted into cash within a short period, normally one accounting year.

Examples of current assets:

1. Cash in hand and bank balance
2. Bills receivables or Accounts Receivables
3. Sundry Debtors (less provision for bad debts)
4. Short-term loans and advances.
5. Inventories of stocks, such as:
  - (a) Raw materials
  - (b) Work – in process
  - (c) Stores and spares
  - (d) Finished goods
6. Temporary Investments of surplus funds.
7. Prepaid Expenses
8. Accrued Incomes etc.

#### **Net working capital:**

In a narrow sense, the term working capital refers to the net working capital. Networking capital represents the excess of current assets over current liabilities.

Current liabilities are those liabilities, which are intended to be paid in the ordinary course of business within a short period, normally one accounting year out of the current assets or the income of the business. Net working capital may be positive or negative. When the current assets exceed the current liabilities net working capital is positive and the negative net working capital results when the liabilities are more than the current assets.

Examples of current liabilities:

1. Bills payable
2. Sundry Creditors or Accounts Payable.
3. Accrued or Outstanding Expenses.
4. Short term loans, advances and deposits.
5. Dividends payable
6. Bank overdraft
7. Provision for taxation etc.

### **Classification or kinds of working capital**

Working capital may be classified in two ways:

- a. On the basis of concept.
- b. On the basis of time permanency

On the basis of concept, working capital is classified as gross working capital and net working capital is discussed earlier. This classification is important from the point of view of the financial manager. On the basis of time, working capital may be classified as:

1. Permanent or fixed working capital
2. Temporary or variable working capital

1. **Permanent or fixed working capital**: There is always a minimum level of current assets, which is continuously required by the enterprise to carry out its normal business operations and this minimum is known as permanent or fixed working capital. For example, every firm has to maintain a minimum level of raw materials, work in process; finished goods and cash balance to run the business operations smoothly and profitably. This minimum level of current assets is permanently blocked in current assets. As the business grows, the requirement of permanent working capital also increases due to the increases in current assets. The permanent working capital can further be classified into regular working capital and reserve working capital. Regular working capital is the minimum amount of working capital required to ensure circulation of current assets from cash to inventories, from inventories to receivables and from receivable to cash and so on. Reserve working capital is the excess amount over the requirement for regular working capital which may be provided for contingencies that may arise at unstated period such as strikes, rise in prices, depression etc.

2. **Temporary or variable working capital**: Temporary or variable working capital is the amount of working capital, which is required to meet the seasonal demands and some special exigencies. Thus the variable working capital can be further classified into seasonal working capital and special working capital. While seasonal working capital is required to meet certain seasonal demands, the special working capital is that part of working capital which is required to meet special exigencies such as launching of extensive marketing campaigns, for conducting research etc.

Temporary working capital differs from permanent working capital in the sense that it is required for short periods and cannot be permanently employed gainfully in the business. Figures given below illustrate the different between permanent and temporary working capital.

### **Importance of working capital**

Working capital is referred to be the lifeblood and nerve center of a business. Working capital is as essential to maintain the smooth functioning of a business as blood circulation in a human body. No business can run successfully without an adequate amount of working capital. The main advantages of maintaining adequate amount of working capital are as follows:

1. **Solvency of the business**: Adequate working capital helps in maintaining solvency of the business by providing uninterrupted flow of production.
2. **Good will**: Sufficient working capital enables a business concern to make prompt payment and hence helps in creating and maintaining good will.
3. **Easy loans**: A concern having adequate working capital, high solvency and good credit standing can arrange loans from banks and others on easy and favorable terms.
4. **Cash Discounts**: Adequate working capital also enables a concern to avail cash discounts on the purchases and hence it reduces costs.
5. **Regular supply of raw materials**: Sufficient working capital ensures regular supply of raw materials and continuous production.
6. **Regular payments of salaries wages and other day to day commitments**: A company which has ample working capital can make regular payment of salaries, wages and other day to day commitments which raises the morale of its employees, increases their efficiency, reduces wastage and cost and enhances production and profits.
7. **Exploitation of favorable market conditions**: The concerns with adequate working capital only can exploit favorable market conditions such as purchasing its requirements in bulk when the prices are lower.
8. **Ability to face crisis**: Adequate working capital enables a concern to face business crisis in emergencies.
9. **Quick and regular return on Investments**: Every investor wants a quick and regular return on his investment. Sufficiency of working capital enables a concern to pay quick and regular dividends to its investors, as there may not be much pressure to plough back profits. This gains the confidence of its investors and creates a favorable market to raise additional funds in the future.
10. **High morale**: Adequacy of working capital creates an environment of security, confidence, and high morale and creates overall efficiency in a business. Every business concern should have

adequate working capital to run its business operations. It should have neither redundant excess working capital nor inadequate shortage of working capital. Both, excess as well as short working capital positions are bad for any business. However, out of the two, it is the inadequacy of working capital which is more dangerous from the point of view of the firm.

### **The need or objectives of working capital**

The need for working capital arises mainly due to the time gap between production and realization of cash. The process of production and sale cannot be done instantaneously and hence the firm needs to hold the current assets to fill-up the time gaps. There are time gaps in purchase of raw materials and production; production and sales; and sales and realization of cash. The working capital is needed mainly for the following purposes:

1. For the purchase of raw materials.
2. To pay wages, salaries and other day-to-day expenses and overhead cost such as fuel, power and office expenses, etc.
3. To meet the selling expenses such as packing, advertising, etc.
4. To provide credit facilities to the customers and
5. To maintain the inventories of raw materials, work-in-progress, stores and spares and finishes stock etc.

Generally, the level of working capital needed depends upon the time gap (known as operating cycle) and the size of operations. Greater the size of the business unit generally, larger will be the requirements of working capital. The amount of working capital needed also goes on increasing with the growth and expansion of business. Similarly, the larger the operating cycle, the larger the requirement for working capital. There are many other factors, which influence the need of working capital in a business, and these are discussed below in the following pages.

### **Factors determining the working capital requirements**

There are a large number of factors such as the nature and size of business, the character of their operations, the length of production cycle, the rate of stock turnover and the state of economic situation etc. that decide requirement of working capital. These factors have different importance and influence on firm differently. In general following factors generally influence the working capital requirements.

1. **Nature or character of business**: The working capital requirements of a firm basically depend upon the nature of its business. Public utility undertakings like electricity, water supply and railways need very limited working capital as their sales are on cash and are engaged in provision of services only. On the other hand, trading firms require more investment in inventories, receivables and cash and such they need large amount of working capital. The manufacturing undertakings also require sizable working capital.
2. **Size of business or scale of operations**: The working capital requirements of a concern are directly influenced by the size of its business, which may be measured in terms of scale of operations. Greater the size of a business unit, generally, larger will be the requirements of working capital. However, in some cases, even a smaller concern may need more working capital due to high overhead charges, inefficient use of available resources and other economic disadvantages of small size.

3. **Production policy**: If the demand for a given product is subject to wide fluctuations due to seasonal variations, the requirements of working capital, in such cases, depend upon the production policy. The production could be kept either steady by accumulating inventories during slack periods with a view to meet high demand during the peak season or the production could be curtailed during the slack season and increased during the peak season. If the policy is to keep the production steady by accumulating inventories it will require higher working capital.
4. **Manufacturing process/Length of production cycle**: In manufacturing business, the requirements of working capital will be in direct proportion to the length of manufacturing process. Longer the process period of manufacture, larger is the amount of working capital required, as the raw materials and other supplies have to be carried for a longer period.
5. **Seasonal variations**: If the raw material availability is seasonal, they have to be bought in bulk during the season to ensure an uninterrupted material for the production. A huge amount is, thus, blocked in the form of material, inventories during such season, which give rise to more working capital requirements. Generally, during the busy season, a firm requires larger working capital than in the slack season.
6. **Working capital cycle**: In a manufacturing concern, the working capital cycle starts with the purchase of raw material and ends with the realization of cash from the sale of finished products. This cycle involves purchase of raw materials and stores, its conversion into stocks of finished goods through work-in-progress with progressive increment of labour and service costs, conversion of finished stock into sales, debtors and receivables and ultimately realization of cash. This cycle continues again from cash to purchase of raw materials and so on. In general the longer the operating cycle, the larger the requirement of working capital.
7. **Credit policy**: The credit policy of a concern in its dealings with debtors and creditors influences considerably the requirements of working capital. A concern that purchases its requirements on credit requires lesser amount of working capital compared to the firm, which buys on cash. On the other hand, a concern allowing credit to its customers shall need larger amount of working capital compared to a firm selling only on cash.
8. **Business cycles**: Business cycle refers to alternate expansion and contraction in general business activity. In a period of boom, i.e., when the business is prosperous, there is a need for larger amount of working capital due to increase in sales. On the contrary, in the times of depression, i.e., when there is a down swing of the cycle, the business contracts, sales decline, difficulties are faced in collection from debtors and firms may have to hold large amount of working capital.
9. **Rate of growth of business**: The working capital requirements of a concern increase with the growth and expansion of its business activities. The retained profits may provide for a part of working capital but the fast growing concerns need larger amount of working capital than the amount of undistributed profits.

## **SOURCE OF FINANCE**

In case of proprietorship business, the individual proprietor generally invests his own savings to start with, and may borrow money on his personal security or the security of his assets from others. Similarly, the capital of a partnership firm consists partly of funds contributed by the partners and partly of borrowed funds. But the company form of organization enables the promoters to raise necessary funds from the public who may contribute capital and become members (share holders) of the company. In course of its business, the company can raise



loans directly from banks and financial institutions or by issue of securities (debentures) to the public. Besides, profits earned may also be reinvested instead of being distributed as dividend to the shareholders.

Thus for any business enterprise, there are two sources of finance, viz, funds contributed by owners and funds available from loans and credits. In other words the financial resources of a business may be own funds and borrowed funds.

### **Owner funds or ownership capital:**

The ownership capital is also known as 'risk capital' because every business runs the risk of loss or low profits, and it is the owner who bears this risk. In the event of low profits they do not have adequate return on their investment. If losses continue the owners may be unable to recover even their original investment. However, in times of prosperity and in the case of a flourishing business the high level of profits earned accrues entirely to the owners of the business. Thus, after paying interest on loans at a fixed rate, the owners may enjoy a much higher rate of return on their investment. Owners contribute risk capital also in the hope that the value of the firm will appreciate as a result of higher earnings and growth in the size of the firm.

The second characteristic of this source of finance is that ownership capital remains permanently invested in the business. It is not refundable like loans or borrowed capital. Hence a large part of it is generally used for acquiring long – lived fixed assets and to finance a part of the working capital which is permanently required to hold a minimum level of stock of raw materials, a minimum amount of cash, etc.

Another characteristic of ownership capital related to the management of business. It is on the basis of their contribution to equity capital that owners can exercise their right of control over the management of the firm. Managers cannot ignore the owners in the conduct of business affairs. The sole proprietor directly controls his own business. In a partnership firm, the active partner will take part in the management of business. A company is managed by directors who are elected by the members (shareholders).

### **Merits:**

Arising out of its characteristics, the advantages of ownership capital may be briefly stated as follows:

1. It provides risk capital
2. It is a source of permanent capital
3. It is the basis on which owners 'acquire their right of control over management
4. It does not require security of assets to be offered to raise ownership capital

### **Limitations:**

There are also certain limitations of ownership capital as a source of finance. These are:

The amount of capital, which may be raised as owners fund depends on the number of persons, prepared to take the risks involved. In a partnership confer, a few persons cannot provide ownership capital beyond a certain limit and this limitation is more so in case of proprietary form of organization.

A joint stock company can raise large amount by issuing shares to the public. Bus it leads to an increased number of people having ownership interest and right of control over management. This may reduce the original investors' power of control over management. Being a permanent source of capital, ownership funds are not refundable as long as the company is in existence, even when the funds remain idle.

A company may find it difficult to raise additional ownership capital unless it has high profit-earning capacity or growth prospects. Issue of additional shares is also subject to so many legal and procedural restrictions.

**Borrowed funds and borrowed capital:** It includes all funds available by way of loans or credit. Business firms raise loans for specified periods at fixed rates of interest. Thus borrowed funds may serve the purpose of long-term, medium-term or short-term finance. The borrowing is generally at against the security of assets from banks and financial institutions. A company to borrow the funds can also issue various types of debentures.

Interest on such borrowed funds is payable at half yearly or yearly but the principal amount is being repaid only at the end of the period of loan. These interest and principal payments have to be met even if the earnings are low or there is loss. Lenders and creditors do not have any right of control over the management of the borrowing firm. But they can sue the firm in a law court if there is default in payment, interest or principal back.

### **Merits:**

From the business point of view, borrowed capital has several merits.

1. It does not affect the owner's control over management.
2. Interest is treated as an expense, so it can be charged against income and amount of tax payable thereby reduced.
3. The amount of borrowing and its timing can be adjusted according to convenience and needs, and
4. It involves a fixed rate of interest to be paid even when profits are very high, thus owners may enjoy a much higher rate of return on investment then the lenders.

### **Limitations:**

There are certain limitations, too in case of borrowed capacity. Payment of interest and repayment of loans cannot be avoided even if there is a loss. Default in meeting these obligations may create problems for the business and result in decline of its credit worthiness. Continuing default may even lead to insolvency of firm.

Secondly, it requires adequate security to be offered against loans. Moreover, high rates of interest may be charged if the firm's ability to repay the loan in uncertain.

## Source of Company Finance

Based upon the time, the financial resources may be classified into (1) sources of long term (2) sources of short – term finance. Some of these sources also serve the purpose of medium – term finance.

### **I. The source of long – term finance are:**

1. Issue of shares
2. Issue debentures
3. Loan from financial institutions
4. Retained profits and
5. Public deposits

### **II. Sources of Short-term Finance are:**

1. Trade credit
2. Bank loans and advances and
3. Short-term loans from finance companies.

## Sources of Long Term Finance

1. **Issue of Shares**: The amount of capital decided to be raised from members of the public is divided into units of equal value. These units are known as share and the aggregate values of shares are known as share capital of the company. Those who subscribe to the share capital become members of the company and are called shareholders. They are the owners of the company. Hence shares are also described as ownership securities.
2. **Issue of Preference Shares**: Preference share have three distinct characteristics. Preference shareholders have the right to claim dividend at a fixed rate, which is decided according to the terms of issue of shares. Moreover, the preference dividend is to be paid first out of the net profit. The balance, if any, can be distributed among other shareholders that is, equity shareholders. However, payment of dividend is not legally compulsory. Only when dividend is declared, preference shareholders have a prior claim over equity shareholders.

Preference shareholders also have the preferential right of claiming repayment of capital in the event of winding up of the company. Preference capital has to be repaid out of assets after meeting the loan obligations and claims of creditors but before any amount is repaid to equity shareholders.

Holders of preference shares enjoy certain privileges, which cannot be claimed by the equity shareholders. That is why; they cannot directly take part in matters, which may be discussed at the general meeting of shareholders, or in the election of directors.

Depending upon the terms of conditions of issue, different types of preference shares may be issued by a company to raises funds. Preference shares may be issued as:

1. Cumulative or Non-cumulative
2. Participating or Non-participating
3. Redeemable or Non-redeemable, or as
4. Convertible or non-convertible preference shares.

In the case of cumulative preference shares, the dividend unpaid if any in previous years gets accumulated until that is paid. No cumulative preference shares have any such provision.

Participatory shareholders are entitled to a further share in the surplus profits after a reasonable dividend has been paid to equity shareholders. Non-participating preference shares do not enjoy such right. Redeemable preference shares are those, which are repaid after a specified period, whereas the irredeemable preference shares are not repaid. However, the company can also redeem these shares after a specified period by giving notice as per the terms of issue. Convertible preference shares are those, which are entitled to be converted into equity shares after a specified period.

#### **Merits:**

Many companies due to the following reasons prefer issue of preference shares as a source of finance.

1. It helps to enlarge the sources of funds.
2. Some financial institutions and individuals prefer to invest in preference shares due to the assurance of a fixed return.
3. Dividend is payable only when there are profits.
4. It does not affect the equity shareholders' control over management

#### **Limitations:**

The limitations of preference shares relate to some of its main features:

1. Dividend paid cannot be charged to the company's income as an expense; hence there is no tax saving as in the case of interest on loans.
2. Even though payment of dividend is not legally compulsory, if it is not paid or arrears accumulate there is an adverse effect on the company's credit.
3. Issue of preference share does not attract many investors, as the return is generally limited and not exceed the rates of interest on loan. On the other hand, there is a risk of no dividend being paid in the event of falling income.

**1. Issue of Equity Shares:** The most important source of raising long-term capital for a company is the issue of equity shares. In the case of equity shares there is no promise to shareholders a fixed dividend. But if the company is successful and the level profits are high, equity shareholders enjoy very high returns on their investment. This feature is very attractive to many investors even though they run the risk of having no return if the profits are

inadequate or there is loss. They have the right of control over the management of the company and their liability is limited to the value of shares held by them.

From the above it can be said that equity shares have three distinct characteristics:

1. The holders of equity shares are the primary risk bearers. It is the issue of equity shares that mainly provides 'risk capital', unlike borrowed capital. Even compared with preference capital, equity shareholders are to bear ultimate risk.
2. Equity shares enable much higher return to be earned by shareholders during prosperity because after meeting the preference dividend and interest on borrowed capital at a fixed rate, the entire surplus of profit goes to equity shareholders only.
3. Holders of equity shares have the right of control over the company. Directors are elected on the vote of equity shareholders.

#### **Merits:**

From the company's point of view; there are several merits of issuing equity shares to raise long-term finance.

1. It is a source of permanent capital without any commitment of a fixed return to the shareholders. The return on capital depends ultimately on the profitability of business.
2. It facilitates a higher rate of return to be earned with the help of borrowed funds. This is possible due to two reasons. Loans carry a relatively lower rate of interest than the average rate of return on total capital. Secondly, there is tax saving as interest paid can be charged to income as an expense before tax calculation.
3. Assets are not required to give as security for raising equity capital. Thus additional funds can be raised as a loan against the security of assets.

#### **Limitations:**

Although there are several advantages of issuing equity shares to raise long-term capital.

1. The risks of fluctuating returns due to changes in the level of earnings of the company do not attract many people to subscribe to equity capital.
2. The value of shares in the market also fluctuates with changes in business conditions, this is another risk, which many investors want to avoid.

## **2. Issue of Debentures:**

When a company decides to raise loans from the public, the amount of loan is divided into units of equal. These units are known as debentures. A debenture is the instrument or certificate issued by a company to acknowledge its debt. Those who invest money in debentures are known as 'debenture holders'. They are creditors of the company. Debentures are therefore called 'creditor ship' securities. The value of each debentures is generally fixed in multiples of 10 like Rs. 100 or Rs. 500, or Rs. 1000.

Debentures carry a fixed rate of interest, and generally are repayable after a certain period, which is specified at the time of issue. Depending upon the terms and conditions of issue there are different types of debentures. There are:

- a. Secured or unsecured Debentures and
- b. Convertible or Non convertible Debentures.

If debentures are issued on the security of all or some specific assets of the company, they are known as secured debentures. The assets are mortgaged in favor of the debenture holders. Debentures, which are not secured by a charge or mortgage of any assets, are called unsecured debentures. The holders of these debentures are treated as ordinary creditors.

Sometimes under the terms of issue debenture holders are given an option to convert their debentures into equity shares after a specified period. Or the terms of issue may lay down that the whole or part of the debentures will be automatically converted into equity shares of a specified price after a certain period. Such debentures are known as convertible debentures. If there is no mention of conversion at the time of issue, the debentures are regarded as non-convertible debentures.

#### **Merits:**

Debentures issue is a widely used method of raising long-term finance by companies, due to the following reasons.

1. Interest payable on Debentures can be fixed at low rates than rate of return on equity shares. Thus Debentures issue is a cheaper source of finance.
2. Interest paid can be deducted from income tax purpose; there by the amount of tax payable is reduced.
3. Funds raised for the issue of debentures may be used in business to earn a much higher rate of return than the rate of interest. As a result the equity shareholders earn more.
4. Another advantage of debenture issue is that funds are available from investors who are not entitled to have any control over the management of the company.
5. Companies often find it convenient to raise debenture capital from financial institutions, which prefer to invest in debentures rather than in shares. This is due to the assurance of a fixed return and repayment after a specified period.

#### **Limitations:**

Debenture issue as a source of finance has certain limitations too.

1. It involves a fixed commitment to pay interest regularly even when the company has low earnings or incurring losses.
2. Debentures issue may not be possible beyond a certain limit due to the inadequacy of assets to be offered as security.

**Methods of Issuing Securities:** The firm after deciding the amount to be raised and the type of securities to be issued, must adopt suitable methods to offer the securities to potential investors. There are for common methods followed by companies for the purpose.

When securities are offered to the general public a document known as Prospectus, or a notice, circular or advertisement is issued inviting the public to subscribe to the securities offered thereby all particulars about the company and the securities offered are made to the public. Brokers are appointed and one or more banks are authorized to collect subscription.

Some times the entire issue is subscribed by an organization known as Issue House, which in turn sells the securities to the public at a suitable time.

The company may negotiate with large investors of financial institutions who agree to take over the securities. This is known as 'Private Placement' of securities.

When an exiting company decides to raise funds by issue of equity shares, it is required under law to offer the new shares to the existing shareholders. This is described as right issue of equity shares. But if the existing shareholders decline, the new shares can be offered to the public.

### **3. Loans from financial Institutions:**

Government with the main object of promoting industrial development has set up a number of financial institutions. These institutions play an important role as sources of company finance. Besides they also assist companies to raise funds from other sources.

These institutions provide medium and long-term finance to industrial enterprises at a reason able rate of interest. Thus companies may obtain direct loan from the financial institutions for expansion or modernization of existing manufacturing units or for starting a new unit.

Often, the financial institutions subscribe to the industrial debenture issue of companies some of the institutions (ICICI) and (IDBI) also subscribe to the share issued by companies.

All such institutions also underwrite the public issue of shares and debentures by companies. Underwriting is an agreement to take over the securities to the extent there is no public response to the issue. They may guarantee loans, which may be raised by companies from other sources.

Loans in foreign currency may also be granted for the import of machinery and equipment wherever necessary from these institutions, which stand guarantee for re-payments. Apart from the national level institutions

mentioned above, there are a number of similar institutions set up in different states of India. The state-level financial institutions are known as State Financial Corporation, State Industrial Development Corporations, State Industrial Investment Corporation and the like. The objectives of these institutions are similar to those of the national-level institutions. But they are mainly concerned with the development of medium and small-scale industrial units. Thus, smaller companies depend on state level institutions as a source of medium and long-term finance for the expansion and modernization of their enterprise.

#### **4. Retained Profits:**

Successful companies do not distribute the whole of their profits as dividend to shareholders but reinvest a part of the profits. The amount of profit reinvested in the business of a company is known as retained profit. It is shown as reserve in the accounts. The surplus profits retained and reinvested may be regarded as an internal source of finance. Hence, this method of financing is known as self-financing. It is also called sloughing back of profits.

Since profits belong to the shareholders, the amount of retained profit is treated as ownership fund. It serves the purpose of medium and long-term finance. The total amount of ownership capital of a company can be determined by adding the share capital and accumulated reserves.

#### **Merits:**

This source of finance is considered to be better than other sources for the following reasons.

1. As an internal source, it is more dependable than external sources. It is not necessary to consider investor's preference.
2. Use of retained profit does not involve any cost to be incurred for raising the funds. Expenses on prospectus, advertising, etc, can be avoided.
3. There is no fixed commitment to pay dividend on the profits reinvested. It is a part of risk capital like equity share capital.
4. Control over the management of the company remains unaffected, as there is no addition to the number of shareholder.
5. It does not require the security of assets, which can be used for raising additional funds in the form of loan.

#### **Limitations:**

However, there are certain limitations on the part of retained profit.

1. Only well established companies can be avail of this sources of finance. Even for such companies retained profits cannot be used to an unlimited extent.
2. Accumulation of reserves often attract competition in the market,
3. With the increased earnings, shareholders expect a high rate of dividend to be paid.
4. Growth of companies through internal financing may attract government restrictions as it leads to concentration of economic power.



## **5. Public Deposits:**

An important source of medium – term finance which companies make use of is public deposits. This requires advertisement to be issued inviting the general public of deposits. This requires advertisement to be issued inviting the general public to deposit their savings with the company. The period of deposit may extend up to three years. The rate of interest offered is generally higher than the interest on bank deposits. Against the deposit, the company mentioning the amount, rate of interest, time of repayment and such other information issues a receipt.

Since the public deposits are unsecured loans, profitable companies enjoying public confidence only can be able to attract public deposits. Even for such companies there are rules prescribed by government limited its use.

## **Sources of Short Term Finance**

The major sources of short-term finance are discussed below:

1. **Trade credit:** Trade credit is a common source of short-term finance available to all companies. It refers to the amount payable to the suppliers of raw materials, goods etc. after an agreed period, which is generally less than a year. It is customary for all business firms to allow credit facility to their customers in trade business. Thus, it is an automatic source of finance. With the increase in production and corresponding purchases, the amount due to the creditors also increases. Thereby part of the funds required for increased production is financed by the creditors. The more important advantages of trade credit as a source of short-term finance are the following:

It is readily available according to the prevailing customs. There are no special efforts to be made to avail of it. Trade credit is a flexible source of finance. It can be easily adjusted to the changing needs for purchases.

Where there is an open account for any creditor failure to pay the amounts on time due to temporary difficulties does not involve any serious consequence Creditors often adjust the time of payment in view of continued dealings. It is an economical source of finance.

However, the liability on account of trade credit cannot be neglected. Payment has to be made regularly. If the company is required to accept a bill of exchange or to issue a promissory note against the credit, payment must be made on the maturity of the bill or note. It is a legal commitment and must be honored; otherwise legal action will follow to recover the dues.

2. **Bank loans and advances:** Money advanced or granted as loan by commercial banks is known as bank credit. Companies generally secure bank credit to meet their current operating expenses. The most common forms are cash credit and overdraft facilities. Under the cash credit arrangement the maximum limit of credit is fixed in advance on the security of goods and materials in stock or against the personal security of directors. The total amount drawn is not to exceed the limit fixed. Interest is charged on the