

(Deemed to be University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

Coimbatore – 641 021.

Semester IV

LTPC

17CMP201

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING

COURSE OBJECTIVES:

- To familiarizes students with the various concepts and elements of cost
- To Create cost consciousness among the students
- To provide the students knowledge about use of costing data for Planning, Control and decision making

LEARNING OUTCOME:

- To acquaint the students with basic concepts used in cost accounting, various methods involved in cost ascertainment and cost accounting book keeping systems.
- ➤ To familiarize the students in Material Cost, Labour Cost, Overheads, Process Costing, Activity Based Costing and Target Costing.

UNIT-I

Introduction: Cost Accounting – Meaning and Objectives – Importance – Limitations – Limitations of Financial Accounting – Differences between Cost Accounting and Financial Accounting, Cost Accounting and Management Accounting – Methods of Costing – Elements of Cost – Preparation of Cost Sheet – Tender – Quotations – Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounting

UNIT-II

Material Control – Objectives – Levels of Inventory – EOQ – Methods of Inventory Control – Methods of Valuing Material Issues – Control over Wages – Scrap and Spoilage - Labour - Labour Cost Control – Importance – Systems of Wage Payment – Incentives – Idle Time – Control Over Idle Time – Labour Turnover.

UNIT-III

Overheads – Classification of Overheads – Allocation, Apportionment and Absorption of Overheads – Methods of Absorption of Overheads

UNIT-IV

Process Costing – Features – General Principles – Comparison between Job Costing and Process Costing – Process Losses – Normal Loss – Abnormal Loss – Abnormal Gains – Inter Process Profit – Equivalent Production – Procedure for Evaluation – Joint Product and by Product

UNIT-V

Activity Based Costing: Meaning and Methodology of Activity Based Costing (ABC Analysis)-Merits, Demerits and Suitability of Activity Based Costing-Implementation of Activity Based Costing- Draw Back of Conventional Costing - Target costing: Meaning-Characteristics-Principles-Implementation of Target Costing-Installation of Target Costing-Target Costing Vs. Traditional Costing- Life Cycle Costing-Meaning-Definition-Applications of LCC -Importance-Process of LCC

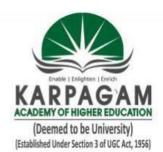
Suggested Readings:

Text Books

1. S.P. Jain and KL. Narang. (2012) *Cost Accounting* New Delhi, Kalyani Publishers.

Reference Books

- 1. Iyengar, S.P.(2013) Cost Accounting. [10th edition]. New Delhi, Sultan Chand & Sons
- **2.** Pillai, R.S.N., and Bhagavathi (2010). *Cost Accounting*. New Delhi, Sultan Chand and Sons Private Limited.
- 3. Maheswari, S.N. (2013). *Cost Accounting*. New Delhi, Sultan Chand and Sons Private Limited.



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LECTURE PLAN DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

STAFF NAME: PATHMA PRIYA .D

SUBJECT NAME: APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING SUB.CODE:17CCP201

SEMESTER: II CLASS: I M.COM CA

UNIT 1

Lecture			G4
S. No	Duration	Topics to be Covered	Support
	(hour)		Material/Page Nos
1	1	Introduction of Cost Accounting - Definition of Cost	T1: I-1 - 2
2	1	An Overview of Costing and Cost Accounting	T1:I-1 - 3
3	1	Objectives of Cost Accounting	T1: I-4 – 5 R1: I- 5
4	1	Importance of Cost Accounting.	T1: I-6
5	1	Limitations of Cost Accounting	T1:I- 6 – 7
6	1	Limitations of Financial Accounting	T1: I-1 - 2
7	1	Differences between Cost Accounting and Financial Accounting	T1: I-10
8	1	Differences between Cost Accounting and Management Accounting	T1: I-10
9	1	Methods of Costing	R1: 23 - 26
10	1	Elements of Cost	T1:I28 - 29
11	1	Preparation of Cost Sheet	T1: I-30-32
12	1	Calculation of Stock of Work in Progress	T1: I-32-38
13	1	Tender, Quotations - Problems	R1:398-399
14	1	Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounting	R1:334-337
15	1	Recapitulation and Important Question Discussion	
Total N	o. of Hours pla	nned for Unit – I	15 Hours

UNIT II

S.No	Lecture Duration (hour)	Topics to be Covered	Support Materials
1	1	Meaning and Essentials of Material Control	T1: II 4 - 6
2	1	Objectives of Material Control	Т1: II 4 - 6
3	1	Levels of Material Control	T1: II 4
4	1	Economic Ordering Quantity - Problems	T1: II 15-17
5	1	Methods of Inventory Control	T1: II 6
6	1	Methods of valuing material issues Cost Price Method Market Price Method	T1: II 62 - 74
7	1	 Standard Price Method Methods of pricing- Problems to be worked in FIFO 	
8	1	Problems to be worked for LIFO method Simple and Weighted Average Method – Problems	R1: 111 - 117 R1: 111 - 117
9 10	1	Treatment of Material Losses – Waste, Scrap, Defectives and Spoilage	R1: 163 T1: II – 91-95
11	1	Introduction to Labour cost Types of Labour	T1: II -106
12	1	Control Over Labour Cost; Personnel Department Engineering Department Time and Motion Study Departments	T1:II 107 - 118
13	1	Concept of Idle Time, Over Time, Labour Turnover	T1: II 127 - 139
14	1	Remuneration and Incentive Schemes - Problems	T1: II 154 - 156
15	1	Recapitulation and Important Question Discussion	
otal No	o. of Hours p	blanned for Unit – II	15 Hours

UNIT III

S No.	Lecture Duratio n (hour)	Topics to be Covered	Support Materials
1	1	Introduction to Overheads and Classification of Overheads.	T1: II -209
2	1	Allocation and Apportionment of Overhead Expenses	T1: II -211
3	1	Difference between Allocation and Apportionment of Overhead Expenses	Т1: II -212
4	1	Absorption: Meaning and Overhead Absorption Rate	Т1: II -218
5	1	Methods of Absorption of Manufacture overheads	Т1: II -222-230
6	1	Methods of Absorption –Prime Cost Method, Hour Rate Method	T1: II -222-230
7	1	Overhead Absorption Rate: Problems	T1: II -218 - 230
8	1	Under- Absorption –Problems	Т1: II -231
9	1	Over – Absorption: Problems	T1: II -231
10	1	Over – Absorption: Problems	T1: II -231
11	1	Capital Levels & Costs	Т1: II -232
12	1	Treatment of Interest on Capital and Packing Expenses in Costing	T1: II -233
13	1	Treatment of Bad debts and Research in Costing	Т1: II -235
14	1	Development Expenses; Activity Based Cost Allocation.	T1: II -236
15	1	Recapitulation and Important Question Discussion	
Total No	o. of Hours	planned for Unit – III	15 Hours

UNIT IV

S.No	Lecture Duratio n (hour)	Topics to be Covered	Support Materials
1	1	Introduction to Process Costing and its Features.	T1: IV 130
2	1	General Principles of Process Costing	T1: IV 63- 74
3	1	Unit Costing -Problems	T1: IV 63- 74
4	1	Difference Between Job and Process Costing	T1: IV 131-140
5	1	Process Costing Problems	T1: IV 133
6	1	Process Costing (Normal Process Loss) - Problems	T1: IV 134
7	1	Process Costing (Abnormal Process Loss) - Problems	T1: IV 135
8	1	Process Costing (Abnormal Process Gain) - Problems	T1: IV 137
9	1	Inter Process Profits - Problems	T1: IV 139
10	1	Meaning and Different Methods of Equivalent Production	T1: IV 144
11	1	Procedure for Evaluation	T1: IV 145
12	1	Statement of Equivalent Production - Problems	T1: IV 146
13	1	Statement of Cost - Problems	T1: IV 147
14	1	Statement of Evaluation	T1: IV 149
15	1	Recapitulation and Important Question Discussion	
Γotal	No. of Ho	ours planned for Unit – IV	15 Hours

UNIT V

S.No	Lecture Duration (hour)	Topics to be Covered	Support Materials
1	1	Meaning and Methodology of Activity Based Costing (ABC Analysis)	R1: 375 - 376
2	1	Merits, Demerits and Suitability of Activity Based Costing	R1: 377
3	1	Implementation of Activity Based Costing	R1: 383 - 384
4	1	Draw Back of Conventional Costing	R1: 374 - 375
5	1	Target Costing: Meaning-Characteristics- Principles	R1: 395 - 396
6	1	Implementation of Target Costing	R1: 399
7	1	Installation of Target Costing	R1: 399 - 401
8	1	Target Costing Vs. Traditional Costing	W1
9	1	Meaning-Definition-Applications of Life Cycle Costing	R1: 401 - 402
10	1	Importance of Life Cycle Costing	R1: 402
11	1	Process of Life Cycle Costing	R1: 404-407
12	1	Recapitulation and Important Question Discussion	
13	1	Revision: Discussion of Previous Year ESE Question Papers	
14	1	Discussion of Previous Year ESE Question Papers	
15	1	Discussion of Previous Year ESE Question Papers	
Total N		s planned for Unit – V& ESE Question paper	15 Hrs.

TEXT BOOK:

T1: S. P. Jain and K.L. Narang (2016) Cost Accounting-Kalyani publishers. Ludhiana.

REFERNECES:

R1: R. S. N. Pillai and V. Bagavathi (2010) Cost accounting New Delhi S. Chand and Co.

WEB ADDRESS

W1: http://accountlearning.com/differences-traditional-method-costing-target-costing.

W2: www.yourarticllibrary.com/cost.../labour-turnover-formula

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UNIT: I

BATCH-2017-2019

<u>UNIT-I</u>

SYLLABUS

Introduction : Cost Accounting – Meaning and Objectives – Importance – Limitations – Limitations of Financial Accounting – Differences between Cost Accounting and Financial Accounting, Cost Accounting and Management Accounting – Methods of Costing – Elements of Cost – Preparation of Cost Sheet – Tender – Quotations – Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounting.

UNIT I INTRODUCTION TO COST ACCOUNTING

Cost:

The word cost is used very often in our day –to –day affairs. The committee on terminology, American institute of certified public accountants defined as:

"Cost is the amount, measured in money, of cash expended or other property transferred, capital stock issued, services performed, or liability incurred, in consideration of goods or services received or to be received".

Costing:

It is referred to as classifying, recording and appropriate allocation of expenditure for the determination of the costs of products or services".

Cost Accounting:

The institute of cost and works accountants, India defines" cost accounting is the technique and process of ascertainment of costs. Cost accounting is the process of accounting for costs, which begins with recording of expenses or the bases on which they are calculated and ends with preparation of statistical data".

Uses of Cost, financial and management accounting:

Cost Accounting is a branch of accounting, which has been developed because of the limitations of Financial Accounting from the point of view of management control and internal reporting.

Financial accounting performs admirably, the function of portraying a true and fair overall picture of the results or activities carried on by an enterprise during a period and its financial position at the end of the year.

Also, on the basis of financial accounting, effective control can be exercised on the property and assets of the enterprise to ensure that they are not misused or misappropriated.

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To that extent financial accounting helps to assess the overall progress of a concern, its strength and weaknesses by providing the figures relating to several previous years.

Data provided by Cost and Financial Accounting is further used for the management of all processes associated with the efficient acquisition and deployment of short, medium and long term financial resources.

Such a process of management is known as Financial Management. The objective of Financial Management is to maximize the wealth of shareholders by taking effective Investment, Financing and Dividend decisions. Investment decisions relate to the effective deployment of scarce resources in terms of funds while the Financing decisions are concerned with acquiring optimum finance for attaining financial objectives.

The last and very important 'Dividend decision' relates to the determination of the amount and frequency of cash which can be paid out of profits to shareholders.

On the other hand, Management Accounting refers to managerial processes and technologies that are focused on adding value to organizations by attaining the effective use of resources, in dynamic and competitive contexts.

Hence, Management Accounting is a distinctive form of resource management which facilitates management's 'decision making' by producing information for managers within an organization.

SCOPE OF COST ACCOUNTING

The terms 'costing' and 'cost accounting' are many times used interchangeably. However, the scope of cost accounting is broader than that of costing. Following functional activities are included in the scope of cost accounting:

- **1. Cost book-keeping:** It involves maintaining complete record of all costs incurred from their incurrence to their charge to departments, products and services. Such recording is preferably done on the basis of double entry system.
- **2. Cost system:** Systems and procedures are devised for proper accounting for costs.
- **3. Cost ascertainment:** Ascertaining cost of products, processes, jobs, services, etc., is the important function of cost accounting. Cost ascertainment becomes the basis of managerial decision making such as pricing, planning and control.
- **4. Cost Analysis:** It involves the process of finding out the causal factors of actual costs varying from the budgeted costs and fixation of responsibility for cost increases.
- **5.** Cost comparisons: Cost accounting also includes comparisons between cost from alternative courses of action such as use of technology for production, cost of making different products and activities, and cost of same product/ service over a period of time.

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6. Cost Control: Cost accounting is the utilization of cost information for exercising control. It involves a detailed examination of each cost in the light of benefit derived from the incurrence of the cost. Thus, we can state that cost is analyzed to know whether the current level of costs is satisfactory in the light of standards set in advance.

7. Cost Reports: Presentation of cost is the ultimate function of cost accounting. These reports are primarily for use by the management at different levels. Cost Reports form the basis for planning and control, performance appraisal and managerial decision making.

OBJECTIVES OF COST ACCOUNTING

There is a relationship among information needs of management, cost accounting objectives, and techniques and tools used for analysis in cost accounting. Cost accounting has the following main objectives to serve:

1. Determining selling price

The objective of determining the cost of products is of main importance in cost accounting. The total product cost and cost per unit of product are important in deciding selling price of product. Cost accounting provides information regarding the cost to make and sell product or services. Other factors such as the quality of product, the condition of the market, the area of distribution, the quantity which can be supplied etc., are also to be given consideration by the management before deciding the selling price, but the cost of product plays a major role.

2. Controlling cost

Cost accounting helps in attaining aim of controlling cost by using various techniques such as Budgetary Control, Standard costing, and inventory control. Each item of cost [viz. material, labour, and expense] is budgeted at the beginning of the period and actual expenses incurred are compared with the budget. This increases the efficiency of the enterprise.

3. Providing information for decision-making

Cost accounting helps the management in providing information for managerial decisions for formulating operative policies. These policies relate to the following matters:

- (i) Determination of cost-volume-profit relationship.
- (ii) Make or buy a component
- (iii)Shut down or continue operation at a loss
- (iv)Continuing with the existing machinery or replacing them by improved and economical machines.

4. Ascertaining costing profit

Cost accounting helps in ascertaining the costing profit or loss of any activity on an objective basis by matching cost with the revenue of the activity.

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5. Facilitating preparation of financial and other statements

Cost accounting helps to produce statements at short intervals as the management may require. The financial statements are prepared generally once a year or half year to meet the needs of the management. In order to operate the business at high efficiency, it is essential for management to have a review of production, sales and operating results. Cost accounting provides daily, weekly or monthly statements of units produced, accumulated cost with analysis. Cost accounting system provides immediate information regarding stock of raw material, semi-finished and finished goods. This helps in preparation of financial statements.

Some other Objectives of Cost accounting are as follows:

- To ascertain the cost per unit of the different products manufactured by the business concern.
- To provide a correct analysis of cost both by process or operations and by different elements of cost.
- To disclose sources of wastage whether of material, time or expense or in the use of machinery equipment & tools.
- To provide requisite data & serve as a guide to price fixing of products manufactured or services rendered.
- To ascertain the profitability for advising the management.
- To exercise effective control of stock, raw materials, working progress & finished products.
- To reveal the sources of economy.
- To help in supervising.
- To organize the internal systems, Cost reduction programs.
- To provide specialized services of cost audit.
- To find out costing Profit or Loss.

Merits of Cost Accounting

1. Helpful in Planning and Decision Making:

- Cost information brings to light the profitable activities of the organisation.
- It provided the sound and rational basis for planning, the changes in products, plants, processes and techniques of production.
- The information provided by cost accounting is also useful in evaluating the various

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alternatives involved in a situation before taking any final decision.

2. Inventory Control:

• As an efficient stores accounting system is essential to an adequate system of cost accounts, in effective check is provided on all materials and stores.

3. Ascertainment of Costs:

- Cost accounting is very helpful in calculating the cost of an article being produced by the enterprise.
- It helps in fixing the selling price of the product.

4. Standard Costs:

- It helps the production manger not only to find what various jobs and processes have cost but also what they should have cost.
- The pre-planned standard costs are used for comparison of the cost of the products.

5. Assistance in Manufacturing:

- Cost accounting pinpoints lapses in purchases of raw materials and other articles, their utilization.
- It indicates where wastages are occurring long before the production is finished. It helps to take immediate steps to avoid such losses and wastes.

6. Promotion of Sales:

- Cost accounting is also very helpful in the promotion of sales by adopting an appropriate price policy.
- The technique of break even analysis serves as constant remembers to increase the sales to the break even point.
- It also seeks to control the selling and distribution coasts.

7. Evaluation of Profitability:

• It helps in elimination unprofitable activities and operations.

8. Profit can be maximized:

 Cost accounting helps the management in maximizing profits by eliminating all wastes and uneconomical processes. This cost accounts help in increasing points and minimizing loses.

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Limitations of cost accounting:

• It lacks a uniform procedure.

• Many formalities are to be observed.

• Handling future situations has not been much.

• It is very expensive.

• It is failure in many cases.

Relationship of cost and financial accounting

S. No.	Basis	Financial accounting	Cost accounting	
1	Distinction	Transaction is recorded for	Transaction is identified with	
	period/amount	a definite period.	cost units.	
2	Purpose	Prepared to show the final	It aims to guide the	
		results during a particular	management for proper	
		period to owners, outsiders	planning, control and decision	
		etc.	making.	
3	Analysis of	It analyses the expenditure	It analyses the expenditure	
	expenditure	under different types of	under different types of	
		expenses, e.g. wages,	performance as distinct from	
	`	salaries, depreciation etc.	types of expenses e.g. direct	
			labor, indirect labor, direct	
			materials, etc.	
4	Material	It does not tell us the	It provides the system of good	
	control	inefficiencies of material	inventory control through a	
		handling, as the figures are	prescribed procedure for	
		available in aggregate.	purchases, storage, issue etc.	
5	Nature	It is positive science	It is positive as well as	
			normative science	
6	Wastages	There are no such	Wastages, shortages, losses etc	
		categories	are categorized into normal	
			and abnormal and aim to	
			eliminate losses.	
7	Dealings	It deals with actual facts	It deals partly with actual facts	
		and figures	and figures and partly with	
			estimates.	
8	Transactions	It deals with external	It deals with internal	
		transactions	transactions	
9	Classifications	It makes no distinction	It makes clear distinction	
		between controllable and	between controllable and	

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		uncontrollable or fixed and	uncontrollable or fixed and
		variable costs.	variable costs.
10	Legal	They are kept as required	These accounts are kept
	requirements	by companied act, income	generally to meet the
		tax act.	requirement of the
			management. Now it, is
			obligatory to keep such
			records.

The difference between management and cost accounting are as follows:

S.No.	Cost Accounting	Management Accounting
1	The main objective of cost accounting is to assist the management in cost control and decision-making.	The primary objective of management accounting is to provide necessary information to the management in the process of its planning, controlling, and performance evaluation, and decision-making.
2	Cost accounting system uses quantitative cost data that can be measured in monitory terms.	Management accounting uses both quantitative and qualitative data. It also uses those data that cannot be measured in terms of money.
3	Determination of cost and cost control are the primary roles of cost accounting.	Efficient and effective performance of a concern is the primary role of management accounting.
4	Success of cost accounting does not depend upon management accounting system.	Success of management accounting depends on sound financial accounting system and cost accounting systems of a concern.
5	Cost-related data as obtained from financial accounting is the base of cost accounting.	Management accounting is based on the data as received from financial accounting and cost accounting.
6	Provides future cost-related decisions based on the historical	Provides historical and predictive information for future decision-making.

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	cost information.	
7	Cost accounting reports are useful to the management as well as the shareholders and creditors of a concern.	Management accounting prepares reports exclusively meant for the management.
8	Only cost accounting principles are used in it.	Principals of cost accounting and financial accounting are used in management accounting.
9	Statutory audit of cost accounting reports are necessary in some cases, especially big business houses.	No statutory requirement of audit for reports.
10	Cost accounting is restricted to cost-related data.	Management accounting uses financial accounting data as well as cost accounting data.

TECHNICAL METHODS OF COSTING

1. Historical Costing:

• The ascertainment of costs after they have been incurred Historical costs are, therefore, 'postmortem' costs as under this method all the expenses incurred on the production are first incurred and them the costs are ascertained.

2. Standard Costing:

- The preparation and use of standard costs, their comparison with actual costs and the analysis of variance to their causes and points of incidence'.
- Here the standards are first set and then they are compared with actual
 performances. The difference between the standard and the actual is known as the
 variance. The variances are analyzed to find out their causes and also the points or
 locations at which they occur.

3. Marginal Costing:

 The ascertainment of marginal costs and of the effects on profit of changes in volumes or type of output by differentiating between fixed costs and variable costs'.

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• The fixed costs are those which do not change but remain the same, with the increase or decrease in the quantum of production. The variables costs are those which do change proportionately with the change in quantum of production.

- The marginal costing takes into account only the variable costs to find out 'marginal costs'. The difference between Sales and Marginal costs is known as 'Contribution' and contribution is an aggregate of fixed costs and Profit/Loss. So the fixed costs are deducted from the contribution to find out the profits.
- Marginal costing is a technique to ascertain the effect on profits. Marginal costing
 is a technique to ascertain the effect on profit by the change in the volume of
 output or by the change in the type of output.

4. **Direct Costing:**

The practice of charging all direct cost to operations, process or products, leaving all the indirect costs to be written off against profits in the period in which they arise

5. Absorption Costing

The practice of charging all costs, both variables and fixed, to operations, processes or products.

This is the traditional technique as opposed to Marginal or Direct costing techniques. Here both the fixed and variables cost are charged in the same manner.

METHODS OF COSTING

1. Job Costing

It is defined by ICMA, London as that form of specific order costing, which applies where work is undertaken to customer's special requirements.

2. Contract Costing

It is applied where the job is big and of no longer duration. For each individual contract, separate accounts have to be kept.

3. Batch Costing

A batch may represent a number of small orders in batches through the factory. ICMA defines as "that form of specific order costing, which applies where similar articles are manufactured in batches either for sale or for use within the undertaking.

4. Multiple costing

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It means a combination of two or more of the above methods. The system of costing is adopted in manufacturing concerns where a variety of parts are produced separately and later assembled into a final product.

5. Process Costing

It applies to industries where production is carried on through different stages before becoming a finished product.

6. Single output or Unit Costing

Under this method production is continuous and units are identical. Producing a single article or a few articles, choosing the cost unit depends upon the nature of the product.

7. Operation Costing

This method is used where there is a mass production and processes are repetitive in nature, and there is a detailed application of processes costing.

8. Operating Costing

It is suitable to those industries which render services instead of producing goods e.g. transport companies, electricity companies, railways, hospitals etc.

9. Departmental Costing

It is a method of cost finding adopted to ascertain the cost of operating a department or a cost centre separately.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF COSTS

Costs are classified into following categories:

1. Classification according to nature or element

The Term is defined as "the primary classification of costs according to the factors upon which expenditure is incurred i.e. material cost, labor cost and expenses".

2. Classification according to function of companies

Under this method costs are classified as production cost, administrative cost, selling cost and distribution cost.

3. Classification according to variability

(a) Fixed Cost

It means the cost tends to unaffected with the volume of output.

(b) Variable cost

It means the cost tends to vary directly with the volume of output.

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(c) Semi-variable cost

Semi variable costs are those which are partly fixed and partly variable.

4. Classification according to controllability

- a) controllable or
- b) uncontrollable costs
 - Controllable costs

A cost which can be influenced by the action of a specified number of an undertaking is known as controllable cost.

E.g. direct material, direct labor etc.

• Uncontrollable costs

A cost which cannot be influenced by the action of a specified number of an undertaking is known as uncontrollable cost

E.g. rent, rates, taxes, insurance, salary etc.

5. Classification into direct and indirect costs

- (a) Direct and
- (b) Indirect costs
- a) Direct costs are those which can be identified with the cost centre or cost unit and can conveniently be connected with any cost unit.
- b) Indirect costs cannot be identified with but can be apportioned or absorbed by cost centre's or cost unit.

6. Classification according to capital and revenue

- a) Capital costs
- b) Revenue costs
- a) Capital costs are those incurred in the acquisition of assets, either to earn income or increase the earning capacity of the business.

E.g. cost of plant, machinery.

b) Revenue costs are those incurred to maintain earning capacity of the firm.

7. Classification according to normality costs

- a) Normal costs
- b) Abnormal costs

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- a) Normal costs is a cost which is normally incurred at a given level of output.
- b) Abnormal costs are not normally incurred at a given level of output in the conditions in which that level of output is normal.

Cost concepts:

Cost unit

A cost unit is a unit of product, service or time in relation to which cost may be ascertained.

Cost centre

A cost centre is a location, person or item of equipment for which cost may be ascertained and used for the purpose of cost control.

The sub divisions of cost centre are:

- 1. The personal cost centre
- 2. Impersonal cost centre
- 3. Operation cost centre
- 4. Process cost centre

Profit centre

Profit centre is a segment of a business that is responsible for all activities involved in the production and sales of products, systems and services.

Cost control

Cost control is defined as "the guidance and regulation by executive action of costs of operating an undertaking".

Cost reduction

Cost reduction is concerned with reducing costs. It is concerned with reduction programme which is a continuous process, it strives to achieve permanent reduction, starts where cost control ends. Cost can be reduced on account of savings in cost.

The advantages are:

- 1. Reasonable price for the customers
- 2. Continued employment for the workers
- 3. Increase in productivity
- 4. Expected return on capital

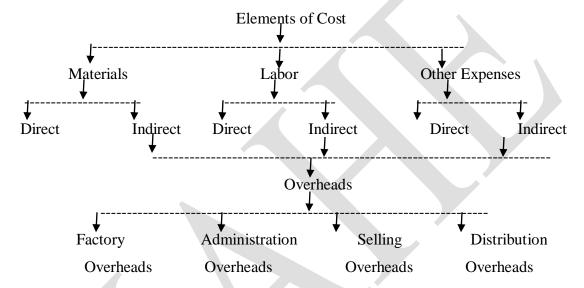
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- 5. Prosperity of the industry
- 6. Economic use of resources
- 7. Increased credit worthiness

Cost audit

"Cost audit is the verification of cost accounts and a check on the adherence to the cost accounting plan".

ELEMENTS OF COST



Cost of production/manufacturing consists of various expenses incurred on Production/manufacturing of goods or services. These are the elements of cost which can be divided into three groups: Material, Labor and Expenses.

I Material

To produce or manufacture material is required; all material which becomes an integral part of finished product and which can be conveniently assigned to specific physical unit is termed as "Direct Material". It is also described as raw material, process material, prime material, production material, stores material, etc. The substance from which the product is made is known as material. It may be in a raw or manufactured state. Material is classified into two categories:

> Direct material

Direct Material is that material which can be easily identified and related with specific product, job, and process. Timber is a raw material for making furniture, cloth for making garments, sugarcane for making sugar, and Gold/ silver for making jewellery, etc are some examples of direct material.

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> Indirect material

Indirect Material is that material which cannot be easily and conveniently identified and related with a particular product, job, process, and activity. Consumable stores, oil and waste, printing and stationery etc, are some examples of indirect material. Indirect materials are used in the factory, the office, or the selling and distribution department.

II Labor Expenses

Labor is the main factor of production. For conversion of raw material into finished goods, human resource is needed, and such human resource is termed as labor. Labor cost is the main element of cost in a product or service. Labor can be classified into two categories:

Direct labor

Labor which takes active and direct part in the production of a commodity. Direct labor is that labor which can be easily identified and related with specific product, job, process, and activity. Direct labor cost is easily traceable to specific products. Direct labor costs are specially and conveniently traceable to specific products. Direct labor varies directly with the volume of output. Direct labor is also known as process labor, productive labor, operating labor, direct wages, manufacturing wages, etc. Cost of wages paid to carpenter for making furniture, cost of a tailor in producing readymade garments, cost of washer in dry cleaning unit are some examples of direct labor.

> Indirect labor

Indirect labor is that labor which can not be easily identified and related with specific product, job, process, and activity. It includes all labor not directly engaged in converting raw material into finished product. It may or may not vary directly with the volume of output. Labor employed for the purpose of carrying out tasks incidental to goods or services provided is indirect labor. Indirect labor is used in the factory, the office, or the selling and distribution department. Wages of store-keepers, time-keepers, salary of works manager, salary of salesmen, etc, are all examples of indirect labor cost.

III Other Expenses

All cost incurred in the production of finished goods other than material cost and labour cost are termed as expenses.

> Direct expenses

These are expenses which are directly, easily, and wholly allocated to specific cost center or cost units. All direct cost other than direct material and direct labor are termed as direct expenses. Direct expenses are also termed as chargeable expenses. Some examples of the direct expenses are hire of special machinery, cost of special designs, moulds or patterns, feed paid to architects, surveyors and other consultants, inward carriage and freight charges on special material, Cost of patents and royalties.

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1. Cost center means a location, person, or item of equipment or group of these for which costs may be ascertained and used for the purpose of cost control.

2. Cost object is anything for which a separate measurement of cost is desired. It may be a product, service, project, or a customer.

> Indirect expenses

These expenses cannot be directly, easily, and wholly allocated to specific cost center or cost units. All indirect costs other than indirect material and indirect labor are termed as indirect expenses. Thus, Indirect Expenses = Indirect cost – Indirect material – Indirect labor. Indirect expenses are treated as part of overheads. Rent, rates and taxes of building, repair, insurance and depreciation on fixed assets, etc, are some examples of indirect expenses.

COST SHEET

Cost Sheets are statements setting out the costs of a product giving details of all the costs. Presentation of costing information depends upon the method of costing. A cost sheet can be prepared weekly, monthly, quarterly or annually.

In a cost sheet besides total expenditure incurred, cost per unit of output in case of each element of cost can be shown in a separate column. The cost sheet should give cost per unit in the previous period for the purposes of comparison

PREPARATION OF COST SHEET

1. Prime Cost = Direct Materials + Direct Labor + Direct Expenses

2. Works or Factory Cost = Prime Cost + Works or Factory Overheads

3. Cost of Production =Factory or Works Cost + Administration Overheads

4. Total Cost or Cost of Sales = Cost of Production + Selling and Distribution Overheads

SPECIMEN OF COST SHEET

Particulars	Cost per	Total Cost
	unit	(Rs.)
	(Rs.)	
Direct materials consumed:		
Opening stock		
Add: purchases		
Less: closing stock		
Cost of drawings		
Direct expenses		
Primary packing materials		
PRIME COST		
Add: works/factory overheads:		
Indirect materials		

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	1	T T
Indirect wages		
Factory rent and rates		
Factory lighting and heating		
Power and fuel		
Repairs and maintenance		
Drawing office expenses		
Research and experiment cost		
Depreciation of factory plant		
Works stationery		
Insurance of factory		
Works managers salary		
WORKSCOST/FACTORY		
COST/MANUFACTURING COST		
Add: office and administrative		
overheads:		
Office salaries		
Office rent and rates		
Lighting and heating		
Cleaning		
Telephone and postages		
Printing and stationery		
Depreciation of office furniture		
Depreciation of office equipment		
Insurance		
Legal expenses		
COST OF PRODUCTION		
Add: selling and distribution		
overheads:		
Advertising		
Salesman salaries		
Samples and free gifts		
Sales office rent		
Sales promotion expenses		
Packing and demonstration		
Showroom rent and rates		
Repair of delivery vans		
Carriage freight outwards etc.		
COST OF SALES		

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Advantages of Cost Sheet

1. It is a simple and useful medium of communication which gives information about costs to all levels of management in a simple and lucid form.

- 2. It helps in comparative study of the various elements of costs with the past results and standard cost. Thus it helps the management in control process.
- 3. It helps the management in fixing up the selling price more accurately.
- 4. If acts as a guide to the manufacturer and helps him in formulating a definite and profitable production policy.
- 5. It enables a producer keep a close watch and control over the cost of production.
- 6. It shows the total cost and the per unit of the units produced during the given period.

Tender or quotation:

It is a kind of contract mostly followed by public companies especially when govt want to construct bridge, road, railways, airways and these kind of activities then govt call the top player in that field and ask them to give their quotation which means the minimum amount that is required to completed that project and the one who quotes the least price get that contract which is called tender.

It is a request to interested parties to send in their quotation for supplying goods or services. Tender system is usually followed in Government purchases, normally when the purchases are of large value, like building an airport etc. the specifications of the goods and services are available in Tender Documents, which the bidder (or the party quoting) can obtain from the tenderer. The documents may or may not be priced.

Tenders also carry the last date or deadline for submission of bids or quotes and also a date when all the quotations received will be opened. The parties quoting are then invited to participated in the opening. Prior to the opening of the bids, the prices are secret, since the bids are sealed and kept securely.

Usually, the party complying with all or most of the technical requirements and with the lowest price quoted is awarded the contract.

Tender in business means a type of quotation offering lowest prices for supply of some goods or service or job works. Normally, in tender you have to deposit some amount (refundable or non-refundable), whereas it is not compulsory in quotation.

It's a bid for a contract. We tender (give) our estimate, usually in competition with other potential contractors.

Problem:1

The following particulars have been extracted from the costing records of a manufacturing co., for the year ended 30th June, 1991.

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	Rs.
Raw material purchase	1,00,000
Wages:	
Direct	60,000
Indirect	10,000
Office Salaries	22,000
Finished Goods stock	10,000
Advertising	6,000
Agent's Commission	10,000
Rent, rates & taxes etc (9/10 for works, 1/10 for office)	2,000
Works	4,000
Building-repairs	2,000
Salaries-plant	4,000
Depreciation	Rs.
Plant Machinery	4,000
Building	2,000
Carriage inward	2,000
Carriage Outward	6,000
Sales	4,00,000
Opening Stock-	
Raw material	40,000
Travelling expenses	2,000
Power	2,000
Plant Maintenance	8,000
Miscellaneous expenses	
Plant	2,000
Office	2,000
Closing Stock	
Raw Materials	40,000
Finished goods	6,000

Building is occupied 9/10 by factory and 1/10 by office. Production 20,000 (Units) You are required to prepare a detailed cost statement showing

- i) Materials consumed
- ii) Prime cost
- iii) Works on cost.
- iv) Cost of production

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- v) Cost of sales and
- vi) Profit earned

Solution:

Particular		Total		Cost per
		Cost		unit
Opening Stock of raw	40,000			
material				
Add Purchases	1,00,000			
Add Carriage inward	2,000			
	1,42,000			
Less Closing stock or raw	40,000			
materials				
i) Materials consumed		1,02,000		5.10
Direct labour		60,000		3,00
		,		,
ii) Prime Cost		1,62,000		8.10
Add: Factory overheads				
Indirect Wages	10,000		0.50	
Power	2,000		0.10	
Plant Maintenance	8,000		0.40	
Rent, rates and taxes (9/10)	1,800		0.09	
Misc. Expenses	2,000		0.10	
Repairs – Building	1,800		0.20	
(9/10)0.20				
Salaries – Plant	4000		0.20	
Depreciation – Plant	4,000		0.09	
-Building (9/10)	1,800	34,000		1.77
iii) Works cost		1,97,400		9.87
Add: Office Overheads				
Office Salaries	22,000		1.10	
Rents, Rates and Taxes	200		0.01	
(1/10)				
Misc. expenses	4,000		0.20	
Repairs – Building (1/10)	200		0.01	

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Depreciation- Building	200	26,600	0.01	1.33
(1/10)				
iv) Cost of Production		2,24,000		11.20
Add: Opening Stock of		10,000		
finished product				
		2,34,000		
Less: Closing stock of		6,000		
finished goods				
Cost of goods sold		2,28,000		
Add: Selling and				
distribution overheads				
Carriage outwards	6,000			
Travelling expenses	2,000			
Advertising	6,000			
Agent's Commission	10,000	24,000		
Cost of Sales		2,52,000		
Add Profit margin		1,48,000		
v) Sales value		4,00,000		

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Problem 2

The cost of Sale of Product A is made up as follows:

Materials used in	55000	Direct Expenses	5000
Manufacturing			
Materials used in Primary	10000	Indirect Expenses (factory)	1000
packing			
Materials used in selling	1500	Administration expenses	1250
product			
Materials used in Factory	750	Depreciation of office	750
		building & equipments	
Materials used in office	1250	Dep. On factory buildings	1750
Labour required in	10000	Selling expenses	3500
Producting			
Labour required for factory	2000	Freight on material	5000
supervision		purchased	
		Advertising	1250

Assuming that all products are manufactured are sold, what should be the selling price to be obtained as a profit of 20% on selling price? Solution

COST SHEET STATEMENT OF COST AND PROFIT

Direct material	Rs.	Rs.
Materials used in manufacturing	55000	100000
Materials used in primary packing	10000	
Freight on material purchased	5000	70000
Direct labour		10000
Direct expenses-factory		5000
Direct expenses-factory		85000
PRIME COST		
Factory overheads	750	
Labour required for factory supervision	2000	
Indirect expenses – factory	1000	
Dept. on factory building	1750	5500
WORKS COST		90500
Administration Overhead		
Materials used in Overhead	1250	

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Administration expenses	1250	
Dept. on office building equipment	750	3250
COST OF PRODUCTION		93750
Selling Distribution Overhead		
Materials used in selling the product	1500	
Selling expenses	3500	
Advertising	1250	6250
COST OF SALES		100000
Profit (20% on selling price or 25% on cost)		25000
SELLING PRICE		125000

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Problem 3

From the following data prepare a cost & profit statement of Vijay stoves manufacturing company for the year 1990.

Stock of materials as on	35000	Establishment expense	10000
1.1.1990			
Stock of materials as on	49000	Completed stock in hand	-
31.12.1990		1.1.90	
Purchase of materials	52500	Completed stock in hand	35000
		31.12.90	
Direct wages	95000		
Factory expenses	17500	Sales	189000

The number of stoves manufacturing during the year 1990 was 1000. The company wants to quote for the contract for the stoves to be quoted are of uniform quality and make similar to those manufacturing in the previous year. But cost of materials has increased 15% and cost of factory labour by 10%. Prepare a statement of net profit to be quoted to give the same percentage of net profit of turnover as was realized during the year 1990 assuming that the cost per unit of O.H. charges will be the same as the previous year.

Solution

COST AND PROFIT STATEMENT OF STOVES 1990				
Particulars	Amount Rs.	Amount Rs.		
Opening Stock of Materials 35000				
Purchase of Materials 52500				
87500				
Closing stock of Materials 4900				
VOLUME OF MATERIAL CONSUMED	82600	20.65		
Direct wages	95000	23.75		
PRIME COST	177600	44.40		
Factory expenses	17500	4.37		
WORK COST	195100	48.77		
Establishment expenses	10000	2.50		
COST OF PRODUCTION	205100	51.27		
Opening completed stock	-			
Cost of production during the prd	205100			
Closing completed stock	35000			
COST OF SALES	170100			
PROFIT	18900			

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SELLING PRICE		189000	
STATEMENT SHOWING QUOTAT	ION PRIC	CE FOR 1000 S	TOVES
Materials consumed	20650		
15% increase	3098		
		23748	
Factory wages	23750		
10% a increase	2375		
PRIME COST		26125	
Factory expenses		49873	
		4370	
WORK COST		54243	
Establishment expenses		2500	
TOTAL COST		56743	
(profit 10% of selling price of 1/9 of		6305	
cost)			
SELLING PRICE		63058	

Limitations and objections to cost accounting

- 1. It is expensive
- **2.** It is unnecessary
- 3. Matter of routine forms and statements
- **4.** Failure of costing system
- 5. Not applicable to many industries
- **6.** It is not reliable

Costing is an aid to management

- 1. Planning is thinking in advance i.e. Looking ahead and deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who is to do it. In planning, the management is concerned with laying down objectives and determining the courses of actions to be followed out of the several alternatives available to achieve those objectives.
- 2. Thus, planning is concerned with future activity and formulates budgets to meet the objectives of the organization. Since management has to make a choice of one course of action out of the several alternative courses of action available, it involves decision-making. All rational decisions are based on accounting information.

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- 3. Decisions may relate to various problems like fixation of price, whether or not price should be reduced for increased level of sales, whether a change in production should be followed, whether or not factory should operate at full capacity, determination of the most profitable levels of production, whether to make or buy a spare part, whether a new product should be discontinued to avoid the present loss and whether or not an investment in a particular asset will be worth while.
- 4. Controlling is that part of management activity whereby managers compare actual performance against the planned performance, find out the deviations and take remedial steps to remove the deviations.

Meaning of Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounts

Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounts is process to find all the reasons behind disagreement in profit which is calculated as per cost accounts and as per financial accounts. There are lots of items which are shown in the profit and loss account only when we make it as per financial accounting rules. There are lots of items which are shown in costing profit and loss account only when we calculate profit as per cost accounting.

Suppose, we have taken the profit or loss as per financial accounts, we adjust it as per cost accounts. In the end of adjustments, we see same profit as per cost accounts. If we have taken profit as per cost account, we have to adjust items as per financial accounts. For this purpose, we make reconciliation Statement

1st Case. When we have to adjust items as per financial accounts

		(+) in Rs.	(-) in Rs.
(A)	Profit as per cost accounts	XXXXX	
Add		XXXXX	
1	Profit on sale of asset	XXXXX	
2	Dividend received	XXXXX	
3	Imputed Rent Charges	XXXXX	
4	Overvaluation of opening stock in cost accounts	XXXXX	
5	Undervaluation of closing stock in cost accounts	XXXXX	
6	Excess of material, Labour and overhead cost which is shown as per cost accounts or Overcharge of Material,	XXXXX	

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	Labour and overhead cost as per cost accounts or Over-absorption any expense as per cost accounts		
7	Interest Received on Investment	XXXXX	
8	Bank Interest Received	XXXXX	
9	Under valuation of Closing Stock as per cost accounts	XXXXX	
(B)Less			
1	Loss on Sale of Asset		XXXXX
2	Dividend Paid		XXXXX
3	Financial Expenses a) discount (b) fine and penalties (c) bank interest (d) underwriter's commission (e) Donations (f) interest paid on capital		XXXXX
4	Undercharge or under absorption of any expense or loss as per cost account		XXXXX
5	over valuation of closing stock as per cost accounts		XXXXX
	Profit as per financial Accounts (A) – (B)	XXXXXX	

2nd Case. When we have to adjust items as per cost accounts

In this, we take the profit as per financial accounts in the beginning, we add all the times which we have shown in less in above 1st Case. We deduct all the items which we have shown above in Add in 1st Case. After this, balance will be the profit or loss as per cost accounts.

Need for Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounts:

In a manufacturing concern both financial and cost accounting are maintained. Naturally, two sets of accounts disclose profit which will not agree with each other. Profit disclosed by the financial accounting does not agree with the profit disclosed by the cost accounting. But this does not happen when a manufacturing company uses an integrated accounting system i.e. no separate cost and financial accounts are maintained.

So, when cost and financial accounts are maintained separately and independently of each other, profit disclosed by one system tends to differ from that of the other accounting systems. This difference in profit creates problems and the need of reconciling the accounting systems arises to arrive at one profit figure.

Reasons for Disagreement between Reconciliation of Cost and Financial Accounts:

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Disagreement between Cost and Financial accounts generally arises due to the following factors:

i. Items that are included only in financial accounts:

The following items of purely financial nature are included in financial accounts but not in cost accounts:

- (a) Interest received on bank deposits
- (b) Profit on sale of assets
- (c) Rents receivable
- (d) Interest and dividend on investments
- (e) Loss on sale of Assets
- (f) Loss on sale of investment
- (g) Interest paid on Bank Loan, Debentures
- (h) Damages payable
- (i) Payment of income-tax
- (j) Payment of dividend
- (k) Transfer to Reserves
- (l) Creation of provisions
- (m) Donations
- (n) Writing off fictitious Assets like Preliminary expense, Discount on issue of shares, debentures
- (o) Writing of intangible fixed assets like Goodwill, Patent Rights etc.

ii. Under or over-absorption of overhead expenses:

In cost accounts overheads are absorbed at predetermined rates which are based on past data. On the other hand, in financial accounts the actual amount of expense incurred is only considered. Hence difference arises.

iii. Adoption of different bases for stock valuation:

In financial accounts stocks are valued either at cost or at market value whichever is less. But in cost accounts stock of materials are issued to production departments at cost by using FIFO, LIFO, Simple Average, Weighted Average method. This leads to a difference.

iv. Bases of Depreciation:

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The methods of charging depreciation and the rates may be different which surely leads to difference.

Calculation of Tender Price or Quotations:

Very often a manufacturer or producer is asked to submit a tender or cost-estimate for the supply of the product in future. The price quoted for future production is called Quotation Price or Tender Price. This price is ascertained on the basis of previous cost sheet or production account. In ascertaining expected cost in the future, the items of previous elements of cost are considered with due regard to expected changes in the future. Estimated cost is increased by desired profit to ascertain tender price or quotation.

Tenders of Similar Type Commodity:

When cost of same type and quality of commodity is to be calculated, normally cost per unit of each element of cost will be taken up. If there is any expected change in these elements, the change will be adjusted accordingly. Following examples will explain the technique.

Illustration 1: On 15th August, 2005 the Standard Cycle Co. was required to quote for a contract for the supply of 500 bicycles. From the following details, prepare a statement showing the price to be quoted to give the same percentage of net profit on turnover as was realised during the six months to 30th June 2005.

	ζ,
Stock of materials on 1st January, 2005	50.000
Stock of materials on 30th June. 2005	7,000
Purchase of materials during 6 month to 30th June. 2005	75,000
Factory wages	1,50,000
Indirect charges	25,000
Sales	2,70,000
Completed stock-in-hand on 1st January, 2005	Nil
Completed stock-in-hand on 30th June 2005	50,000

The number of bicycles manufactured during the six months was 2.000 including those sold and those in stock at the end of the period. The bicycles to be quoted for are to be of uniform size and quality and similar to those manufactured during the six months to 30th June 2005. As from 1st August, the cost of factory labour has increased by 10 per cent and that of materials by 15 per cent.

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Solution:

STATEMENT OF COST/COST SHEET (For the half-year ending 30th June, 2005)

	Total (2,000 Bicycle)	Cost per unit or per Bicycle
	₹.	₹.
Raw Materials consumed:	1 1	
Stock of Materials as on Jan. 1 50,000	1 1	
Materials Purchased 75,000	1 1	
1,25,000	1 1	
Less: Stock of Materials as on June 30 7,000	1,18,000	59.00
Direct Wages	1,50,000	75.00
Prime Cost	2,68,000	134.00
Indirect Charges	25,000	12.50
Cost of Production	2,93,000	146.50
Less: Completed Stock on 30th June	50,000	
Cost of Sales	2,43,000	
Profit	27,000	
Selling Price	2,70,000	

Percentage of Profit on Selling Price = $\frac{Profit}{\text{Selling Price}}$

Statement of Cost for Tender (For 500 Bicycles)

	Total (500 Bicycle)	Per Bicycle
	₹.	₹.
Materials		
1,18,000 × 500/2000 and Add 15% of it	33,925	67.85
Direct Wages		
1,50,000 × 500/2000 and Add 10% of it	41,250	82.50
Prime Cost	75,175	150.35
Indirect Charges (25,000 × 500/2000)	6,250	12.50
Cost of Production	81,425	162.85
Profit (10% on selling price or 81,425 × 10/90)	9,047	18.09
Selling Price	90,472	180.94

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POSSIBLE QUESTIONS PART A (ONE MARKS – ONLINE EXAMINATION) PART B (2 MARKS)

- 1. Define Cost Accounting
- 2. Prepare the chart showing Element of Cost?
- 3. Define costing.
- 4. What are the roles of cost in organization?
- 5. Write a short note on indirect cost
- 6. Define the term 'Prime Cost'
- 7. Write a short note on labour
- 8. What are the methods of costing?
- 9. Define tender price?
- 10. Mention any one reason for differences between profit as per cost accounts and financial accounts.

PART - B (5X6=30 MARKS)

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

- 1. Define Cost Accounting and Management Accounting. How does Cost Accounting differs from Management Accounting?
- 2. The following extract of costing information relates to commodity 'X' for the half year Ending 31st December, 2010

Particulars	Amount	Particulars	Amount
	Rs.		Rs.
Purchases of Raw Materials	1,20,000	Sales - Finished Goods	3,00,000
Works Overheads	48,000	Work – in – progress (1 st	
		July, 1997)	4,800
Direct Wages	1,00,000	Work – in – progress (31 st	
		December, 1997)	16,000
Carriage on Purchases	1,440		
Stock (1 st July, 1997):		Raw Materials	22,240
Raw Materials	20,000	Finished Goods (2,000	32,000
Finished Goods (1,000 Tons)	16,000	Tons)	

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Selling and Distribution overheads are Re. 1 per Ton sold, 16,000 tons of commodity were produced during the period.

You are to ascertain (i) Cost of Raw Materials used, (ii) Cost of output for the period, (iii) Cost of Sales, (iv) Net Profit for the period and (v) Net profit per ton of the commodity.

- 3. What are the differences between Cost Accounting and Financial Accounting?
- 4. From the following details, you are required to prepare a Statement of Cost and Profit:

	Particulars	Amount
		Rs.
Opening Stock	(1) Materials	1,00,000
	(2) Work – in – Progress	30,000
	(3) Finished Goods	2,500
Closing Stock	(1) Materials	90,000
	(2) Work – in – Progress	25,000
	(3) Finished Goods	7,500
Material Purchased		2,50,000
Direct Wages		75,000
Manufacturing Exp	penses	50,000
Sales		4,00,000
Selling and Distrib	ution Expenses	10,000

- 5. Discuss the advantages of Cost Accounting and Objections to Cost Accounting.
- 6. From the following details, you are required to prepare a Statement of Cost and Statement of Profit:

Particulars	Amount
	Rs.
Opening Stock (1) Materials	4,00,000
(2) Work – in – Progress	1,20,000
(3) Finished Goods	10,000
Closing Stock (1) Materials	3,60,000
(2) Work – in – Progress	1,00,000
(3) Finished Goods	30,000
Material Purchased	10,00,000
Direct Wages	3,00,000
Manufacturing Expenses	2,00,000
Sales	16,00,000
Selling and Distribution Expenses	40,000

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- 7. Explain the advantage and limitations of cost accounting.
- 8. The following data have been extracted from the books of Vinaya Ltd. For the year 2015:

PARTICULARS	Rs.	PARTICULARS	Rs.
Opening Stock of Raw	1,00,000	Indirect Consumption of	2,000
Material		Material	
Purchase of Raw Material	3,40,000	Salary – Office	10,000
		Salesmen	8,000
Closing stock of Raw Material	1,60,000	Other Factory Expenses	22,800
Carriage Inward	20,000	Other Office Expenses	36,000
Wage – Direct	3,60,000	Manager's Remuneration	48,000
Wages – Indirect	40,000	Bad Debts written off	4,000
Rent and Rates – Factory	20,000	Advertisement Expenses	8,000
- Office	2000		
Depreciation			
- Plant and Machinery	6,000	Traveling Expenses of	4,400
- Office Furniture	400	Salesmen	
Cash Discount	20,000	Carriage and Freight	4,000
		Outward	
Sales	10,00,000	Advance Income – tax	60,000
		paid	

The manager has the overall charge of the company and his remuneration is to be allocated at Rs.16,000 to the factory, Rs. 8,000 to the office and Rs. 24,000 to the selling operations.

From the above particulars prepare a statement showing (a) Prime cost (b) Factory cost (c) Cost of production (d) Cost of sales and (e) Net profit

- 9. Discuss the differences between Cost Accounting and Management Accounting.
- 10. A manufacturer of Scooter finds that in 2010 it costs him Rs. 7,20,060 to manufacture 175 Scooters, Which he sold for Rs. 5,400 each. The cost is made of:

Particulars	Rs.
Materials	2,82,000
Direct Wages	3,24,000
Factory Overhead	48,600
Office Overhead	65,460

For the next year he estimates that:

(a) Each scooter will require materials of Rs. 1,600 and labournRs.1,800.

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- (b) The factory overhead will bear the same relation to wages as in the previous year.
- (c) The office overhead percentage on factory cost will be the same as in the past.

Prepare a statement showing the profit he would make per unit, if he reduces the price of the scooter by Rs.200.





(Deemed to be University Established Under section 3 of the UGC Act, 1956), Coimbatore.

Department of Commerce

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING (17CCP201)

Multiple Choice Questions - Online Examination

Question	Option - I	Option - II	Option - III	Option - IV	Answer
UNIT - I					
Costing is a technique of	Ascertainment of cost	analyzing of cost	utilization of cost	cost reduction	Ascertainment of cost
Cost accounting has become an essential tool of	Accounts	Management	Purchase	Sales	Management
Cost accounting provide data for managerial	Planning	Organizing	Decision making	Decision Making and cost	Decision Making and cost controlling
Cost accounting facilitates cost Reduction and	Cost	Contol		Overheads	Cost Control
Direct Cost are known as	Work Cost	Prime Cost	Cost of Production	Cost of Sales	Prime Cost
Cost which can be minimized by the executive action are known as cost	Controllable	Un controllable	Fixed Cost	Variable Cost	Controllable
Cost which cannot be minimized by the executive action are known as cost	Controllable	Un controllable	Fixed Cost	Variable Cost	Uncontrollable
cost are those cost which are incurred to maintain the earning capacity of the	Capital Cost	Revenue Cost	Fixed Cost	Variable Cost	Capital Cost
Cost which are ascertained after they have been incurred are known as cost	Cost	Historical Cost	Marginal Cost	Differential Cost	Historical Cost
cost are those cost which can be allowed by discontinuation of a product	Unavoidable cost	Avoidable Cost	Capital Cost	Revenue Cost	Avoidable Cost
Cost which continue to occur even if there is temporary stoppage of production	Unavoidable cost	Avoidable Cost	Capital Cost	Revenue Cost	Unavoidable cost
is also called as specific order costing	job costing	process costing	unit costing	contract costing	job costing
is also known as terminal costing	job costing	process costing	unit costing	contract costing	contract costing
is also called as continuous costing	job costing	process costing	unit costing	contract costing	process costing

is refered as single or output					
costing	job costing	process costing	unit costing	contract costing	unit costing
are those cost which are incurred in			Ü		
purchasing some asset	capital cost	product cost	period cost	revenue cost	capital cost
cost refers to converting of raw material	•				
into partly finished books	conversion cost	product cost	period cost	revenue cost	conversion cost
cost which is incurred a given level of					
output	normal	abnormal	fixed	variable	normal
costing refers to same costing principles			indirect		
and methods	historcial costing	direct costing	costing	uniform costing	uniform costing
The costing system should provide for					
periodic of cost accounts and A cost centre in which is carried on as	summarising	analysing	reconciliation	recording	reconciliation
A cost centre in which is carried on as					
production cost centre	service	sales	production	marketing	production
Expenses incurred with the packing			work		
and delivery of goods	adminstrative	selling	overhead	direct overhead	selling
				Keep on	
Cost is partly fixed and partly variable	fixed	variable	semivariable	changing	semivariable
varies with the volume of output	fixed	variable	semivariable	avarge	variable
Cost accounting is a separateof	No branch	Branch	Batch	No Batch	Branch
accounting.					
Cost accounting has been developed because of	Advantages	Limitations	Importance	Cost	Limitations
of financial accounting					
Management accounting is concerned with	Financial	Cost	Management	Auditing	Management
accounting information that is useful to					
Historical costing is also known as	Uniform costing	Standard	Traditional	Job costing	Traditional costing
		costing	costing		
is ascertainment of cost after they have	Marginal costing	Historical	Direct costing	Indirect costing	Historical costing
been incurred.		costing			
Many theories can be proved or disproved in the	Cost accounting	Management	Financial	Financial	Financial accounting.
light of basic principles of		accounting	accounting.	management	
Management accounting involves	Recording of	Recording of	Preparation of	•	Analysis and interpretation
	costs	transaction	accounts	interpretation of	of data
Management accounting provides valuable	Planning	Controlling	Co-ordinating	All managerial	All managerial functions.
services to management in performing	functions	functions	functions	functions.	
Management accounting is concerned with	Plans	Cost	Purchase	Sales	Plans
formulation of to meet enterprise					

Installation of management accounting is	Compulsory	Optional	Optimum	Fixed	Optional
purely.					
Financial accounting deals with	Determination of				Determination of profits
	costs	of profits	of prices	production	
The term management accounting was first used	1910	1939	1950	1970	1950
in the year					
Preparation of financial accounts is compulsory	Sole trader	Partnership firm		Co-operative	Joint stock companies
for	business		companies	socities	
is the oldest branch of accounting.	Management	Cost accounting	Financial	Corporate	Financial accounting
	accounting		accounting	accounting.	
Management accounting also comprises the	Shareholders	Creditors	Tax	Tax authorities,	Tax authorities,
preparation of financial reports for non-			authorities		Shareholders and Creditors
Management accounting and cost accounting are -		Complementary	-	Opposite to each	Complementary to each
	each other	to each other	to each other	other	other
is the general accounting which relates to	Financial	Cost accounting	_	Budgeting.	Financial accounting
the recording of business transactions in the	accounting		accounting		
is important part of management	Budgeting	Fixing standards	Inventory	Interpretation of	Interpretation of data
accounting			control	data	
Management accounting is a useful advice of	Planning	Control	Motivation	Forecasting	Control
managerial					
Return on capital employed is one of the tools of -	Financial	Cost accounting	Corporate	Management	Management accounting
	accounting		accounting	accounting	
Management accounting is an important medium	Motivation	Co-ordination	Communicati	Delegation	Communication
of			on		
supplies analytical information regarding	Financial	Management	Cost	Corporate	Management accounting
various alternatives and the choice of	accounting	accounting	accounting	accounting	
Incremental cost is a type of	Differential cost	Out-of-pocket	Conversion	Factory	Differential cost
		cost	cost		
Fixed cost per unit increases when	Production	Production	Variable cost	Sales Increases	Production volume
	volume decreases	volume	per unit		decreases
Direct material+ Direct labour+ Direct expenses =	Fixed cost	Prime cost	Factory cost	Total cost	Prime cost
Salary of general manager is generally treated as -	Factory overhead		Selling	Distribution	Administrative overhead
1	D :	overhead	overhead	overhead	Control of the contro
means and represents the factory cost	Prime cost	Work cost	Cost of	Cost of sales	Cost of production
plus administrative expenses	D :	D .	production	D. ·	n
Works cost =	Prime	Prime	Prime	Prime cost+	Prime cost+factory cost
	cost+factory cost	cost+Selling	cost+administ	Selling overhead	

Cost of production =	Work cost +	Work cost +	Work cost x	Work cost +	Work cost + administrative
	factory cost	prime cost	prime cost	administrative	overhead
Which of the following is equal to total cost?	Cost of	Cost of sales+	Cost of	None of these	Cost of production+Selling
	production+Sellin	distribution	production +		and distribution expenses
The work cost is also known	Factory cost	Prime Cost	cost of	cost of sales	Factory cost
			production		·
supplies analytical information regarding	Financial	Management	Cost	Corporate	Management accounting
various alternatives and the choice of	accounting	accounting	accounting	accounting	
is the essence of managerial activity	Co-ordination	Control	Motivation	Decision making	Co-ordination
Incremental cost is a type of	Differential cost	Out-of-pocket	Conversion	Factory	Differential cost
		cost	cost		
Fixed cost per unit increases when	Production	Production	Variable cost	Sales Increases	Production volume
	volume decreases	volume	per unit		decreases
Opportunity cost helps in	Ascertainment of	Controlling cost	Making	Sales Decisions	Making managerial
	cost		managerial		decisions

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UNIT-II

SYLLABUS

Materials Control: – Objectives – Levels of Inventory – EOQ – Methods of Inventory Control – Methods of Valuing Material Issues – Control over Wages – Scrap and Spoilage - Labour - Labour Cost Control – Importance – Systems of Wage Payment – Incentives – Idle Time – Control Over Idle Time – Labour Turnover.

Meaning of Material

Materials cost is one of the important elements of cost of product or unit. It constitutes a substantial proportion of the total cost of production. For material cost control purposes, it is very essential to know the important aspects of material, material control and material purchase control.

Materials:

The term 'materials' refers to all commodities or components which are consumed in the process of manufacture. The materials may be classified into Direct Materials and Indirect Materials.

Direct Materials:

Direct Materials form part of the finished products. They can be easily identified with a particular cost unit. For example, cotton used in textile mills, timber used in furniture industries.

Indirect Materials:

Indirect materials indirectly used for conversion from raw materials into finished products. They cannot be easily identified with a particular cost unit. For example, spare parts, tools, nails, lubrications etc.

Materials are further classified on the basis of the nature which have to be used such as:

- (a) Raw Materials, e.g., rubber, timber, steel etc.
- (b) Components, e.g., instruments
- (c) Consumable stores, e.g., cotton waste, brushes
- (d) Maintenance Materials, e.g., spare parts
- (e) Tools, e.g., jigs and fixtures

Materials Control

Materials control may be defined as the systematic control over the procurement, storage and usage of materials so as to maintain an even flow of materials and at the same time avoiding excessive investment in inventories.

From the above definition we can derive the following important aspects:

- (1) To ensure the smooth flow of production without interruptions.
- (2) Prevention of excessive investments in materials stock.

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Functions of Materials Control

The following are the important functions involved in materials control in order to achieve the objectives of the stores department:

- (1) Purchasing of Materials
- (2) Receiving of Materials
- (3) Inspection of Materials
- (4) Storage of Materials
- (5) Issue of Materials
- (6) Maintenance of Stores Records
- (7) Stock Audit.

Objectives of Stores Control

The following are the objectives of stores control:

- (1) To receive materials and store them properly.
- (2) To ensure proper production and preservation of materials.
- (3) To make sure proper classification and codification of materials.
- (4) To provide proper information to the management about stock of materials.
- (5) To ensure good housekeeping and effective material handlings.
- (6) To assist in verification and provision of supporting information for effective purchase action.
- (7) To minimize obsolescence of materials adopted through effective control measures.
- (8) To ensure the optimum investment in materials to avoid overstocking or under stocking of materials.
- (9) To maintain proper records about materials, receipts, issues and balances.
- (10) To issue materials as per specifications.
- (11) To make sure of the availability of all types of materials.
- (12) To ensure proper utilization of floor space.

Essentials of Material Control

Effective materials control is required for the following essesentials to be considered:

- (1) Systematic planning for requirement of materials.
- (2) Essentials for co-ordination and co-operation among different departments.
- (3) Fixing of stock level is essential for avoiding overstocking.
- (4) Floor space is required for smooth handling of materials.
- (5) Proper filing system should be adopted.
- (6) Proper codification and classification of materials as per specifications.
- (7) Perpetual inventory system should be adopted for verification of materials in stock.
- (8) Proper planned storage control and issue.
- (9) Systematic procedure should be adopted for materials, receipts and issues.
- (10) Qualified personnel required to manage the materials functions effectively.
- (11) Appropriate system of internal auditing should be adopted.

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Advantages of Materials Control

The following are the advantages of materials control:

- (1) It ensures continuous flow of production.
- (2) There is maximum utilization of stores resources.
- (3) It facilitates economy of buying.
- (4) It ensures optimum investments in inventories.
- (5) There is possibility of reduction of loss of theft, leakage, obsolescence etc.
- (6) It minimizes cost of materials during purchase, storage and issue of materials.
- (7) It facilitates effective information.

Economic Order Quantity

- This represents the normal quantity to be placed on order when the stock has reached its re-order level.
- Re-ordering quantity is to be fixed taking into account the maximum and minimum stock levels. The quantity ordered must be that which, when added to the minimum stock, will not exceed the maximum stock to be carried at any point of time.

The following factors govern the re-ordering quantity.

- 1. Average consumption
- 2. Cost of pacing order
- 3. Cost of storage
- 4. Interest on capital etc.,

Carrying cost of inventory consists of

- i) The costs of physical storage, such as cost of space, handling and upkeep expenses, insurance, cost of obsolescence etc.
- ii) Interest on capital invested (the opportunity cost of the capital blocked up) and
- iii) Cost of placing the order each time.

Economic order quantity or economic lot size (if it relates to production) refers to the number ordered in a single purchase or number of units should be manufactured in a single run so that the total costs-ordering or set up costs and inventory carrying costs are at the minimum level.

In other words, it is the quantity that should be ordered at one time so as to minimize the total of

- i) Cost of placing orders and receiving the goods, and
- ii) Cost of storing the goods as well as interest on the capital invested. The economic order quantity can be determined by the following simple formula.

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E.O.Q. =
$$\sqrt{\frac{2AS}{I}}$$
; where

EOQ = Economic order quantity or number of units in one lot.

A = Annual usage in units

S = Ordering costs for one order (or set-up costs for one set-up)

I = Inventory carrying costs per unit per year.

This formula is based in three assumptions:

i) Price will remain constant throughout the year and quantity discount is not involved.

ii) Pattern of consumption, variable ordering costs per order and variable inventory carrying charge per unit per annum will remain the same throughout, and

EOQ will be delivered each time the stock balance, excluding safety stock, is just reduced to nil.

A-B-C Analysis

To exercise proper control on stores, it is essential that the store items should be classified according to values so that the most valuable items may be paid greater and due a attention regarding their safety and care, as compared to others. The stores are divided into three categories generally, viz., A, B, and C.

In the ABC system, greatest care and control is to be exercised on the items of 'A' list as any loss or breakage or wastage of any items of this list may prove to be very costly; proper care need be exercised on 'B' list items and comparatively less control is needed for 'C' list items. The rules relating to receipt maintenance issue and writing off stores items should be formed in accordance with the utility and value of the items based on the above categorization.

Advantages:

- 1) A Strict Control is exercised on the items which represent a high percentage of the material costs.
- 2) Investment in inventory is reduced to the minimum possible level.
- 3) Storage cost is reduced as a reasonable quantity of materials, which account for high percentage of value of consumption, will be maintained in the stores.

Perpetual Inventory System

Perpetual Inventory is a system of records maintained by the controlling department, which reflects the physical movement of stocks and their current balance. It aims at

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devising the system of records by which the receipts and issues of stores may be recorded immediately at the time of each transaction and the balance may be brought out so as to show the up-to-date position.

The records used for perpetual inventory are:

- (1) Bin Cards;
- (2) Store Ledger Accounts or Stores Record cards;
- (3) The forms and documents used for receipt, issue and transfer of materials.

Advantages of Perpetual Inventory system

- 1. It keeps the record of stocks up to date.
- 2. The materials are kept within the Minimum and Maximum Limits. Non-observance of the limits fixed is detected.
- 3. The materials going out of stock are easily detected and purchased at the appropriate time to avoid the risk of closing down.
- 4. It acts as a moral check on the staff of the stores Department and so the possibilities of loss or theft of materials are minimized.
- 5. The recording of stocks in Bin cards as well as Store Record cards minimizes the error in entering the receipts and issues of stocks.
- 6. The discrepancies noted after physical counting are detected and corrective action is taken promptly to avoid future occurrence.
- 7. The materials getting state or being wasted are detected and placed in right atmosphere.
- 8. The prompt balancing of closing stocks enables quick preparation of final accounts.
- 9. The slow moving inventories, obsolete or dormant stocks are brought to the notice of the Purchase Department so that such stocks may purchased future in lesser quantities as required.
- 10. The availability of correct figures of stocks helps in the insurance of the stocks.

Purchasing Procedure

- (1) Bill of Materials.
- (2) Purchase Requisition.
- (3) Selection of Suppliers.
- (4) Purchase Orders.

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- (5) Goods Received Note.
- (6) Inspection of Materials.

(1) Bill of Materials (Specification of Materials):

Bill of Materials is a list of containing all materials required for manufacturing a product. In other words, it is a form which indicates the quantity and quality and other specifications of materials required for a particular job or process or operation. This is a form sent to the purchase department for asking to purchase the said materials required for a particular work order. At least five copies of bill of materials are prepared by materials requiring department. Out of these copies one copy is sent to purchase department, to the stores, to the production section, to the cost office and to the office copy for further reference.

(2) Purchase Requisition:

It is a form which indicates indent for materials. In any industry, the purchase department places orders for materials based on the purchase requisition form. Usually the purchase requisition form is initiated by the storekeeper for the standard items, the stock which require restocking again and again. Sometimes, it is initiated by other departments for special materials which are not stocked in stores. Whenever any special material is required for production, the purchase requisition form is prepared in three copies. Out of these copies one copy is sent to purchase department, one to the production control department and one to the initiating department.

(3) Selection of Suppliers:

On receipt of the purchase requisition, the purchasing department prepares a list of suppliers who deals with the business of the materials to be purchased and are reliable. It is useful for the purchasing department to call for quotations. If the material to be purchased is of small Materials Cost Control quantities and is required urgently, it may be purchased locally. After receiving the quotations, prepare a comparative statement of the rates, terms and conditions mentioned in the tenders. If required samples may be received from the suppliers who have quoted the lowest rates. After satisfying the above, select the suitable suppliers to place the purchase order for required materials.

(4) Purchase Order:

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Purchase order is a letter which is sent to the suppliers for asking to supply the specified materials. Purchase order must contain the rates, terms, quantity, quality, time of delivery and other conditions mentioned therein. At least five copies of purchase order are prepared by the purchase section and each copy sent to:

- (1) Original to the Suppliers.
- (2) Storekeeping Department.
- (3) Account Section.
- (4) Inspection Department.
- (5) Retained in the purchase department for further reference.

(5) Goods Received Note:

The materials receiving section is responsible to receive the goods and verify the contents of the packages along with Goods Received Note sent by the suppliers. This section should ensure that the goods have been received as per the purchase order and record the same in the Consignment Note. Five copies of the materials received report are generally prepared. Out of these copies, the original is sent to purchasing department and remaining each copy sent to Stores department, Inspection, Accounts department and one copy retained by it for future reference.

(6) Inspections of Materials:

A detailed inspection is carried out after the materials are received. The Inspection Section should ensure that the goods have been received according to purchase order specification. Return of materials to suppliers, if any, damaged, spoiled, excess or not in accordance with orders. If the materials are found to be satisfactory the bill of the suppliers is passed and the payment is made to the suppliers.

Stores Requisitions

Forms used to keep track of materials charged to a particular job or department. The form contains such items as job number, department, and description of the material, quantity, unit cost, and dollar amount.

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STORES REQUISITION

Department	3.	L	ate
Debit Account			
Authorized By			
Description	Quantity	Unit Cost	Amount
<u>Description</u>	Guaritity	Cost	Amount
- 1			
			1

Factors to be contributed to purchase control:

- i) Determination of Quantity to be purchased
 - Quantities purchased in excessive number or weight block the working capital and the
 quantities purchased below the reasonable limit endanger the continuous working of
 the factory.
- ii) **Determination of the Ordering Point**
 - The ordering point of the ordering level is one at which the order for purchase of materials is to be placed with the suppliers when the stock of that material is reduced to that point by consumption or otherwise.
- iii) Determination of Price at which to be purchased
 - The selection of right suppliers and the best terms available out of the quotations received helps this factor.

The Purchase cycle constitutes the following:

- 1. Initiating the purchase;
- 2. Receiving of the Purchase Requisitions;
- 3. Deciding important factors relating to purchase;
- 4. Selecting the suppliers;
- 5. Placing purchase-orders and follow-up
- 6. Receiving the supply and returning unwarranted suppliers;
- 7. Inspecting the material received; and
- 8. Passing invoices for payment.

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The important factors to be decided are:

a) What to purchase;

b) When to purchase; and

c) How much to purchase.

STORES RECORDS

1. Bin Card

- A Bin card, also known as Bin Tag or Stock card, is a card showing quantitative record of the receipts, issues and closing balances of the material kept in the corresponding bin.
- The Bin card is placed in the bin or shelf or is hung over the almirah or the rack otherwise known as 'Bin'.
- Separate Bin cards are prepared for each item of stores and if two different materials are kept in one almirah, two Bin cards, one for each, are prepared, treating the almirah as two bins.

2. Stores Ledger

- Stores Ledger is a record of stores, both in quantity and value and is maintained by the stores Accountant.
- It is similar to Bin card but with the main difference that value of material is shown in the Stores ledger.
- Stores Ledger is an important book and the account of each item of stores is maintained separately.
- While Bin cards are maintained by store-keeper in the store, Store Ledger is maintained in the accounting department by the Stores Accountant.

Material Control and its Requirements

"Material Control' may be defined as the regulation of the procedures for requisitioning, buying, receiving, storing, handling and usage of materials".

The main requirements of a system of material control are:

- Planning and fixation of definite responsibility for each function of material.
- Co-ordination between departments responsible for requisitioning, purchasing, receiving, inspecting, storing and utilizing the materials,

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- Centralization on purchases.
- Use of material purchase budget and material requirement budget.
- Use of standard and uniform forms, and
- Proper system of stock control.

For proper application of the material control the following steps are necessary.

- 1. Purchasing of materials
- 2. Receiving and inspecting of materials
- 3. Storing of materials
- 4. Pricing material Issues
- 5. Accounting materials losses.
- 6. Keeping physical and perpetual inventory

Purchasing of Materials

- In a large manufacturing concern, a separate purchase department is set up with the object of affecting all purchases.
- The top management lays down the purchase department.
- It is the function of the purchaser department to decide:
 - i) What to purchaser;
 - ii) When to purchase;
 - iii) form where to purchase;
 - iv) how much to purchase, and
 - v) finally at what price the material should be purchased.

Maintenance of Stock Levels

- The next important point after determination of EOQ is to decide as to when the order for purchase should be placed.
- The answer is simple. The order for purchase should be placed when the stock is reduced by usage to the Order Point.
- The Order Point is one where the order should be placed for the economic order quantity.
- For deciding Order Point, two things, viz.,
 - (1) Lead time and
 - (2) Usage during Lead time, are the determining factors.

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- Lead time is the supply time, or to be more specific, Lead Time is "the time interval between placing an order and having materials on the factory floor ready for production..."
- Usage means the sue of materials by consumptions for productions, or the stock of finished goods sold.
- Sometimes purchase are made in large bulk in a season if the goods are seasonal, i.e., available in one season only, or at a time when it is feared that the goods may not be found available in the near future due to some reason.
- Special items for which no limit or order-points are fixed may be purchased as and when needed.
- To avoid over-stocking and under stocking each items of the inventory has the Maximum Level. Minimum Level and an Order point.

Order Point

It is also known; 'Ordering Level'; or 'Reorder Point', or 'Reordering Level or 'Ordering Limit', it has been stated earlier that Order Point is at which order for supply of materials or goods is placed. To decide the Order Point, three factors are considered, viz.,

- (1) Lead time
- (2) Usage during Lead time, and
- (3) Minimum Limit, or the Safety stock.

In order to ensure that the optimum quantity of material is purchased and stocked, neither less nor more, the storekeeper applies scientific techniques of materials management.

Fixing of certain levels for each item of materials is one of such techniques.

The following levels are generally fixed.

- 1. Maximum level
- 2. Minimum level
- 3. Order level
- 4. Danger level

1. Maximum level

- The maximum stock level indicates the maximum quantity of an item of material which can be held in stock at any time.
- The maximum stock can be calculated by applying the following formula.

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Maximum level – Re-order level + re-order quantity – (minimum consumption X minimum re-order period)

2. Minimum level

- Minimum level represents the quantity below which the inventory of any items should not allowed to fall;
- In other words, an enterprise must maintain minimum quantity of stock so that the production is not hampered due to non-availability of materials.
- If some buffer inventory is acting as a cushion against reasonable expected maximum usage.

Formula:

Minimum level = Re-order level – (Normal consumption x normal re-order period)

3. Re-ordering Level Point

- Re-ordering stock level in relation to an items of stock is the point at which it becomes essential to initiate purchase orders for its fresh supplies.
- Normally, re-ordering level is a point between the maximum and the minimum levels.
- Fresh orders must be placed before the actual stocks touch the minimum level.

Formula:

Reorder level = maximum re-order period x maximum usage.

4. Danger level

- The danger level is below the minimum level and represents a stage where immediate steps are taken for getting stock replenished.
- When the stock reaches danger level it is indicative that if no emergency steps are taken to restock the material, the stores will be completely exhausted and normal production stopped.
- Generally the danger level of stock is fixed above the minimum level but below the re-ordering level.

CONTROL OVER WASTAGE, SCRAP AND SPOILAGE:

Material Losses

- 1. Waste: Waste is defined as discarded substances having no value.
 - Normal Waste: It is the loss which is unavoidable on account inherent nature of

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material. Some materials such as liquid materials lose their weight due to evaporation. Similarly, there are some materials (i.e. coal) which are wasted due to loading and unloading.

Example:

Suppose, total cost of input(i.e. material, labour & o/Less: Normal waste @ 5% (assumed)	Units h) 2,000 100	Amount 20,000
Cost of normal output	1,900	20,000
20,000 Therefore, cost per unit = = Rs. 10.53		

❖ Abnormal Waste: Any loss caused by unexpected or abnormal conditions such as substandard materials, carelessness, accident etc. or loss in excess of the margin anticipated for normal process loss should be regarded as abnormal waste.

The value of abnormal loss is calculated with the help of the following formula

Normal cost of normal output

1. Scrap

Scrap is discarded material having some value. It represents fragments or remnants of material that are left from certain type of manufacture. It is a material loss but has small value without further processing. Example of scrap are available in operations like turning, boring, punching, sawing, shavings, moldings, etc. from metals on which machine operations are carried out; saw dust and trimmings in the timber industry; dead heads and bottom ends in foundries; and cuttings, pieces and splits in leather industry.

2. **Defectives**

Defective products or units are those which do not meet with dimensional or quality standards and reworked for rectification of defects by application of material, labour and /or processing and salvaged to the point of either standard product or sub-standard product to be sold as

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seconds. So defectives are that portion which can be rectified at some extra cost of re-operation. Defectives may arise due to the following reasons:

- 1. Sub-standard materials
- 2. Poor workmanship
- 3. Poor maintenance of machines
- 4. Wrong tool setting
- 5. Faulty design of products
- 6. Bad supervision
- 7. Careless inspection
- 8. Poor working conditions
- 9. Lack of Control, such as humidity, furnace temperature etc
- 10. Excessive short runs.

3. Spoilage

Spoilage refers to production that does not meet with dimensional or quality standards in such a way that it cannot be rectified economically and is junked and sold for a disposal value. So it occurs when goods are so damaged in course of manufacturing process as to become not rectifiable with some additional cost. Material used in spoiled units can be used again as material by the same or another process or product. Spoilage cost is the difference between the costs incurred upon the point of rejection less salvage value or cost of material used.

Need for Inventory Control

The term 'Inventory' is used to denote

- (i) goods awaiting sale (the stock items of a trading concern and the finished stocks of a manufacturer);
- (ii) the goods in course of manufacture, known as work-in-progress, and
- (iii) goods to be used directly or indirectly in production, i.e., raw materials and supplies.

Objectives of Inventory Control

- 1. To exercise proper control on the purchases and issues of inventories; proper storing; elimination of wastage; and regulating the proper supplies to works and to customers;
- 2. Pricing of the inventories on suitable basis;
- 3. Proper recording, and scientific inventory management
- 4. To have proper assessment of income through the process of matching appropriate costs against revenues.

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5. To maintain inventory of sufficient size for the operations to go on uninterruptedly but the size should match with the optimum financial involvement.

Methods of pricing

There are different methods of pricing materials issue. The various methods used fall under the following main categories:

I. Cost Price Methods

- (a) First in First out (FIFO)
- (b) Last in First out (LIFO)
- (c) Base Stock

II. Average Price Methods

- (a) Simple Average.
- (b) Weighted Average

III. Notional Price Method

- (a) Standard Price.
- (b) Inflated Price.
- (c) Replacement price.

First in First out Method (FIFO)

Under this method materials are used in the order in which they are received. In other words, materials received first are issued first. This process is repeated throughout.

The price of the earliest consignment is taken first and when that is exhausted, the price of the next consignment is adopted and so on. This method is most suitable for use where the material is slow moving and has comparatively high unit cost This method is also useful in times of falling prices because the issue price of material to the job will be high while the replacement cost of material will be below.

Illustration

Show the Stores Ledger entries for the month of Jan, 2008 as they would appear when using FIFO method:

Jan.1 Purchased 300 units @ Rs.3 per unit

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Jan.4 Purchased 600 units @ Rs.4 per unit

Jan.6 Issued 500 units.

Jan. 10 Purchased 700 units @ Rs.4 per unit.

Jan. 15 Issued 800 units.

Jan.20 Purchased 300 units @ Rs.5 per unit.

Jan.23 Issued 100 units.

Ascertain the quantity and value of closing stock as on 31st Jan under FIFO method.

Solution:

Stores ledger Account (FIFO Method)

200 units @ Rs.4 = 800 300 units @ Rs.5 = 1,500 Rs. 2,300

Advantages of FIFO method:

- (i) It is simple to understand and easy to calculate.
- (ii) FIFO method is based on sound principle that materials are issued in order of purchase. Thus materials received first are issued first.
 - (iii) The value of closing stock will reflect current market price.
 - (iv) This method is suitable when prices are falling.
 - (v) This method is also useful if transactions are few and prices of material remain stable.
- (vi) Unrealized profit or loss does not arise as materials are issued at actual cost but not on estimate.
- (vii) Deterioration and obsolescence can be avoided by exhausting oldest materials at the time of issue.

Disadvantages

This method suffers from the following disadvantages:

- (i) The calculation becomes difficult and cumbersome when purchases are made very frequently at different prices.
 - (ii) Issue price does not reflect current market price and so does cost of production.
 - (iii) For pricing one requisition, more than one price has often to be taken.
 - (iv) Cost of production tends to be high during the period of falling prices.
- (v) Two similar jobs cannot be compared as the issue price of one lot differs from that of other.

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Last in First Out Method: (LIFO)

This method is exactly the opposite of FIFO method. Under this me materials received last are issued first. The price of the material to be issued would the cost price of the last lot of materials purchased.

This method is useful during t period of rising prices because materials will be issued from the latest consignment a price which is closely related to the current price levels. Under this method product' cost is calculated on a basis which approximates to replacement cost.

Advantages of LIFO Method:

The following are the advantages of LIFO method:

- (i) This method is very simple to operate and quite useful where transactions are not too many and prices are fairly steady.
- (ii) Production is charged at the most recent prices so that it is based on the principle that costing should be related to current price levels.
- (iii) During the period of rising prices there is no windfall profit as in case of FIFO method.
- (iv) Closing stock will be valued at earlier price and will not, therefore, show unrealized profit.
- (v) This method reduces burden of income tax during the period of price rise Disadvantages

Disadvantages:

This method suffers from the following disadvantages:

- (i) Like FIFO system, calculations become complicated and cumbersome when transactions are many with frequent price fluctuations.
- (ii) Two similar jobs cannot be compared because of charging different rates of materials to different jobs.
 - (iii) Under this system, closing stocks are not shown at current market price.
 - (iv) Sometimes more than one price has to be adopted for pricing a single requisition.
- (v) When prices are falling it will lead to low charge to production, whereas materials in the stock purchased at higher rate need adjustment for valuation of closing stock.

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(vi) This system of material issue is not accepted by Income Tax Authorities.

Base Stock Price

This is not a distinct method of pricing materials issue. This method is based o^ the principle that a certain minimum quantity of material is always maintained in to ensure continuous production.

This minimum stock is treated as fixed asset and is called as base stock. Since minimum stock is created out of first lot of material purchased, it is always valued at cost price of first lot of materials. The quantity in excess of this base stock is issued at a price similar to FIFO or LIFO method.

This bad stock method operates in conjunction with some other methods like FIFO or LIFO and is called Base Stock - FIFO method or Base Stock - LIFO method. The advantages of FIFO and LIFO are applicable in this method.

Simple Average Price Method

Under this method, materials issued are valued at average price. This is calculated by dividing the total of the price of the materials on the stock from which the material to be priced could be drawn by the number of prices used in that total.

Unit pieces of material in stock Issue Price - Number of purchases.

A new simple average price is to be determined when a fresh receipt is made. The rate is also revised when an earlier consignment is exhausted.

The following example will illustrate this. Suppose, following are three different lots of materials in stock when materials is to be priced:

100 units purchased @ Rs.4.00 200 units purchased @ Rs.5.00 300 units purchased @ Rs.6.00 The simple average price will be = Rs.5.00

Advantages of Simple Average Price Method

The following are the advantages of simple average method:

- (1) It is easy to calculate and simple to operate.
- (2) A particular purchase at higher or lower rate cannot disturb the price to a great extent.
- (3) Issue rate remains the same until a fresh purchase is made.

Disadvantages:

(1) It is not a logical method as it takes into account purchase price but not quantity.

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- (2) The value of closing stock becomes absurd.
- (3) The issue price does not relate to the current market price.

Weighted Average Method

Merits

- 1. This method irons out the wide fluctuations in the prices.
- 2. With every new issue, a new rate is not calculated.
- 3. The total value of the material issued does not behave up and down to the total value of the material received, as is the case with Simple Average Method.

Demerits

- 1. Calculations are tedious. Prices are worked out in decimals to get correct results.
- 2. A lot of materials purchased at a very high price at one time continues to reflect its effect in the average, for a considerable time after it is exhausted.
- 1) Show the Store Ledger entries as they would appear when using
 - i) FIFO
 - ii) LIFO
 - iii) Weighted average method
 - iv) Simple average method

April	1.	Balance	300 units	Rs. 600/-
	2.	Purchase	200 units	Rs. 440/-
	4.	Issued	150 units	
	6.	Purchase	200 units	Rs. 460/-
	11.	Issued	150 units	
	19.	Issued	200 units	
	22.	Purchase	200 units	Rs. 480/-
	27.	Issued	250 units	

Problem 4

The following is the record of receipts and issues a certain material in the factory during a week. April 1997

- 1. Opening Balance 50 tonnes @ Rs. 10 per tone.
 - Issued 30 tonnes @ Rs. 10 per tones
- 2. Received 60 tonnes @ Rs. 10.20 per tone.
- 3. Issued 25 tonnes @ Rs. 10.20 per tone (stock verification reveals loss of tone)
- 4. Received back from orders 10 tonnes @ Rs. 10.20 per tone (Previously issued at Rs. 9.15 per tone)

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5. Issued 40 tonnes @ Rs. 10.20 per tone.

6. Received 22 tonnes @ Rs. 10.30 per tone.

7. Issued 38 tonnes @ Rs. 10.30 per tone.

Solution 3

1) Stores Ledger Account as per FIFO METHOD

Date	Details	Receipt	Issued	Balance							
		Qty	Rate	Amt	Qty	Rate	Amt	Qty	Rate	Amt	
April	Balance	300	2/-	600	-	-	-	300	2/-	600	
1											
2	Purchase	200	2.20	440	-	-	-	300	2.00	600	
								200	2.20	440	
4	Issue				150	2.00	300	150	2.00	300	
								200	2.20	440	
6	Purchase	200	2.30	460				150	2.00	300	
								200	2.20	440	
								200	2.30	460	
11	Issue				150	2.00	300	200	2.20	440	
								200	2.30	460	
19	Issue				200	2.20	440	200	2.30	460	
22	Purchase	200	2.40	480				200	2.30	460	
								200	2.40	480	
27	Issue				200	2.30	460	150	2.40	360	
					50	2.40	120				

Value of Closing Stock: 150 units at the rate of Rs. 2.40 value Rs. 360/-

2) LIFO METHOD

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Date	Details	Receipt	Issued	Balance							
		Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt	
April	Balance	300	2.00	600	-	-	-	300	2.00	600	
1											
2	Purchase	200	2.20	440	-	-	-	300	2.00	600	
								200	2.20	440	
4	Issue				150	2.20	330	300	2.00	600	
								50	2.20	110	
6	Purchase	200	2.30	460				300	2.00	600	
								50	2.20	110	
								200	2.30	460	
11	Issue				150	2.30	345	300	2.00	600	
								50	2.20	600	
								50	2.30	115	
19	Issue				50	2.30	115	200	2.00	400	
					50	2.20	110				
					100	2.00	200				
22	Purchase	200	2.40	480	-	-	-	200	2.00	400	
								200	2.40	480	
27	Issue				200	2.40	480	150	2.00	300	
					50	2.00	100				

Value of Closing Stock: 150 units @ Rs. 2.00 value is Rs. 300/-

3) WEIGHTED AVERAGE METHOD

Date	Details	Receipt	Issued	Balance								
		Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt		
April	Balance	300	2.00	600	-	-	-	300	2.00	600		
1												
2	Purchase	200	2.20	440	-	-	-	500	2.08	1040		
4	Issue	-	-	-	150	2.08	312	350	2.08	728		
6	Purchase	200	2.30	460	-		-	550	2.16	1118		
11	Issue	-	-	-	150	2.16	324	400	2.16	864		
19	Issue	-	-	-	200	2.16	432	200	2.16	432		
22	Purchase	200	2.40	480	-	-	-	400	2.28	912		
27	Issue	-	-	-	250	2.28	570	150	2.28	342		

Value of Closing Stock: 150 units at the rate of Rs. 2.28 value Rs. 342.00/

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4) SIMPLE AVERAGE METHOD

Date	Details	Receipt	Issued	Balance							
		Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt	Unit	Rate	Amt	
April	Balance	300	2.00	600	-	-	-	300	2.00	600	
1											
2	Purchase	200	2.20	440	-	-	-	500	2.10	1050	
4	Issue	-	_	-	150	2.10	315	350	2.10	35	
6	Purchase	200	2.30	460	-		-	550	2.17	119350	
11	Issue	-	_	-	150	2.17	325.50	400	2.17	868	
19	Issue	-	_	-	200	2.17	434	200	2.17	434	
22	Purchase	200	2.40	480	-	-	-	400	2.23	892	
27	Issue	-	_	-	250	2.23	557.50	150	2.23	334.50	

Value of Closing Stock: 150 units at the rate of Rs. 2.23 value Rs. 334.50

Meaning of Labour Cost

"Labour Cost, representing the human contribution to production, is an important cost factor which requires constant control, measurement and analysis."

A rational approach to the problems of labor, fair maintenance of wage records for wage ascertainment, fair wage policy, and the incentives for earning more wages go a long way in providing a sense of security and stability to the workmen, in minimizing the labour turnover, and in exercising effective labour cost control.

Labour cost control aims at the control of the labour cost per unit of production and not at the reduction of the wage rates of the workmen. Efficiency of labour (a concept meaningless to material) has an important impact on the successful working of a business.

Labour cost is second major element of cost. Proper control and accounting for labour cost is one of the most important problems of a business enterprise. But control of labour cost presents certain practical difficulties unlike the control of material cost.

Labour costs represent the various items of expenditure Such as:

Monetary Benefits:

- i) Basic Wages;
- ii) Dearness Allowance;

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- iii) Employer's Contribution to Provident Fund;
- iv) Employer's Contribution to Employee's State Insurance (ESI) Scheme;
- v) Production Bonus;
- vi) Profit Bonus;
- vii) Old age Pension;
- viii) Retirement Gratuity;

Fringe Benefits:

- i) Subsidized Food;
- ii) Subsidized Housing;
- iii) Subsidized Education to the children of the workers;
- iv) Medical facilities;
- v) Holidays pay;
- vi) Recreational facilities.

Control of labour costs is an important objective of management and the realization of this objectives depends upon the cooperation of every member of the supervisory force from the top executive to foreman.

From functional point of view, control of labour cost is effected in large industrial concern by the coordinated efforts of the following six departments-

- 1) Personnel Department,
- 2) Engineering Department,
- 3) Rate or time and Motion Study department
- 4) Time-Keeper Department
- 5) Cost Accounting Department
- 6) Pay-roll Department

Factors Governing a Satisfactory system of Wage Payment

The system should depend upon the nature of the worked and the efforts involved.

- a) It should guarantee a minimum living wage to ensure a satisfactory standard of living.
- b) It should be based upon a scientific time and motion study.
- c) It should be capable of being understood by all the employees.
- d) It should be flexible and capable of being adapted to changed circumstances.

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- e) Its incidence on the cost per unit should be such that it does not form a considerable proportion of the total cost per unit to deprive the employer of a fair margin of profit, given the market price of the commodity produced by concern.
- f) It should reduce the labour turnover.
- g) The cost of working the system should be the least.
- h) It should boost employee morale.
- i) It should be acceptable to trade unions.
- j) It should be correlated to the capacity of the concern to pay.

Characteristics of Good Wage System

1. Fair to both the Parties:

The system should be such as may be acceptable gladly to the employer and the employees. for this purpose, the employer should decide the system in consultation with the workers.

2. Easy to Calculate

The workers should be in a position to calculate their wages correctly and feel sure that they have been correctly paid. Easy calculation will help the employer also in maintaining simple records.

3. Related to Efficiency

'Fair remunerations for fair output', should be the idea and remuneration should be related to the individual efficiency of the workers.

4. Minimum wage guaranteed

There should be a guarantee of minimum wages to the workers to enable them to maintain their basic standards of life, and to do away with uncertainty-concept.

5. Incentive-oriented

The wage system should be such that the workers may feel encouraged to product more and earn more wages.

6. Quality Improvement-oriented

In the race to earn more wages with an increase in production, the chances are that the quality of the output may deteriorate. The system should, therefore, ensure 'better wages for better quality'.

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Labour Turnover

Labour turnover is an index denoting change in the labour force for an organisatoin during a specified period. In every industry, works leave their job a new workers have to be appointed to replace them. The ratio of the replaced workers to the number of works is the Labour Turnover Ratio. If more workers leave the factory, the turnover would be high, and vice versa. A high turnover is a costly affair and must be avoided.

Causes of Labour Turnover

The workers leave the factory either by

- i) Resignation, or by
- ii) Discharge by the employer, or
- iii) Due to a cause not within one's control.

Measurement of Labour Turnover

Labour Turnover is measured by applying any one of the following three Methods:

1. Separation Method

Average Number =
$$\frac{\text{No. at the beginning} + \text{No. at the end}}{2}$$

Multiplication of the formula by 100 indicated Ratio of the turnover in percentage.

2. Replacement Method

$$= \frac{\text{Number of replacement in the period}}{\text{Average number of employees during the period}} \times 100$$

In this method, only the actual replacement are counted irrespective of the number of workers left. If new workers are appointed for expansion programme, they are excluded from the number or replacements.

3. Flux Method

$$\frac{\text{Number of Separations} + \text{Number of replacement}}{\text{Average number of employees during the period}} \times 100$$

This method is the combination of Method 1 and Method 2.

Effect of Labour Turnover on Cost

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A high turnover has an adverse effect on the cost of production due to the following reasons:

- 1. Change in workers interrupts production and the production goes down.
- 2. New comers take time in learning the factory procedure and the work procedure.
- 3. The tools and machines cannot be handled as efficiently by the new workers as hither to done by the old staff. There are chances of more break-downs and of greater cost of repairs of machines.
- 4. What is true of machines is also true of material handling and usage by the new workers.
- 5. The rate of accidents may increase, the rate of defectives in the finished output may increase, and there may be increased wastage of time.
- 6. The cost of making selections and cost of imparting training to the new entrants would further increase the cost and reduce the profits.

Cost of Labour Turnover

There are two types of costs

- i) Preventive cost and
- ii) Replacement costs

And amenities to the workers that they may be tempted to continue at their job in the factory and not to leave it for example:

- i) Personnel Administration: Only that portion of the cost of this department which is related to the maintenance of good relationship between labour and management.
- ii) Medical Services-Preventive as well as curative.
- iii) Welfare activities and services.
- iv) Miscellaneous schemes and benefits, e.g., Provident fund scheme, Pension scheme, Bonus incentives schemes, etc.

The replacement costs are those incurred to recruit new workers and also the costs consequent or incidental to replacement, for example:

- i. Cost in selection and appointment
- ii. Training cost
- iii. Loss of output due to delay in recruitment workers
- iv. Cost of inefficiency of new workers
- v. Cost of breakage of tools and machinery
- vi. Cost of increased spoilage and defectives

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vii. Cost of frequent accidents

IDLE TIME

The time when the worker does no work and remains idle, is the idle time. So the idle time cost represents the wages paid for the time lost. The following are its causes:

1. Lack of proper planning:

That the production work should go on smoothly depends upon proper planning. If the workers do not have material at the right time, or the machines are not kept fir for working, the time goes waste. Sometimes, delay in the proceeding process delays the operations of the succeeding progress. Here also the workers have to wait due to faulty planning or bad management.

2. Careless in Supervision:

If the foreman of a department does not take his duty seriously, the labour working under him also becomes careless and spoils time in the idle way.

3. Confrontation between labour management:

The confrontation between labour and management arising form any cause, does waste time in discussions, dialogues, strikes etc., and the wages paid, if any, for this period form the idle time cost.

4. Economic Factors:

Trade depression, or serve competition lowers the production, and so labour remains effectively unutilized.

5. Others reasons:

The electricity may fail or the machine may break down for some or more time. They make labour to remain idle for the time being.

OVER-TIME

The time worked over and above the normal hours is overtime. The remuneration usually paid for the overtime work is at double the normal rate. The need for over time work arises due to:

1. Increase in demand for the products where the production during the normal hours falls short to meet it:

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- 2. Shortage of workers due to absence or non-availability and so it is decided to give overtime work to the existing staff;
- 3. Utilization of perishable raw materials by working overtime;
- 4. Execution of urgent orders, or to complete the work o9n the same day;
- 5. Shortage of equipments, machines, or space for the completion of jobs;
- 6. Lack of administrative control on workers, on account of which the production during normal hours remains less the standard output and overtime work has to be done by the workers.

Disadvantages of overtime working

The following are the disadvantages:

- 1. Worker's health is adversely affected;
- 2. The quality of the output is at a discount; and
- 3. The cost of production rises due to increased labour cost.

System of Wage Payment

Strictly speaking, there are only two basic methods of wage payment, viz., wages based on the time spent in the factory, and wages based on the quantum of work turned out. These are thus known respectively as the 'time wage' and the 'piece wage' methods of remuneration. Since each of these has its own advantages and disadvantages, attempts are made to combine the two, mainly with a view to overcoming their disadvantages. We have therefore, the premium bonus or the incentive schemes which may either be considered to be merely variations of the two, or as another of wage payment. These three methods may also be re-classified into only two groups, viz., the time wage system and the payment by results.

Methods of Remuneration

The methods of remuneration can be classified into:

- 1. Time Rate System
- 2. Pieced Rate System
- 3. Incentive Schemes

1. Time Rate System

In this system, a worker is paid on the basis of attendance for the day or according to the hours of the day, regardless of the output. This system is also known as time work, day work,

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day age rate or day rate. The wage rate of the day worker may be fixed on hourly, daily, weekly, fortnightly, or monthly basis depending on the practice followed in the concern.

The basic feature of this system is that the worker is paid so much per unit of time regardless of the output he produces. The unit of time may be an hour, a day, a week or a month. Under this method, wages depend entirely upon the time clocked, but not on the efficiency of the worker. There are three variants of this system, each differing only in so far as the fixation of the time rate is concerned. They are:

- a) Flat Time or Time Rate at Ordinary level;
- b) High Day Rate or Time Rate at high level;
- c) Measured Day work or Graduated Time Rate.

Graduated Time Rate

Under this method wages are paid at time rates which vary according to

- a. Merit-rating of the workers, or
- b. Changes in the cost of living index.

It the cost of living goes up, the wages also go up proportionately, and vice versa. Thus the works get the real wages. Similarly, the workers having higher merit rating get higher wages, and the workers with lower rating get lower wages.

Differential Time Rate

Workers are paid rate accounting to their individual efficiency. They are paid normal rate upto a certain percentage of efficiency and the rate increases in steps for efficiency slabs beyond the standard. As the efficiency is measured in terms of output, this method does not fall strictly under the area of time rate system.

2. Payment by Results-Piece-work Rate

The payment of wages under this system is based upon the out turn of the worker. The rate is fixed per piece of work and the worker is paid according to the pieces of work completed or the volume of work done by him, irrespective of the time taken by him in completing that work. A workman is free to earn as much as his ability, energy, or skill would allow to him to produce.

The various schemes falling under 'Payment by results' make speed as the basis of payment, instead of time. Accordingly, these schemes are just the opposite of the time wage

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system. They are so called because of the fact that wages are linked to the volume of work done regardless of the time taken by workers. Efficiency is recognized in all these schemes and workers get wages according to their avility, efficiency, and speed. The following schemes fall under the payment by results method of wage payment.

- a. Straight Piece Rate.
- b. Differential Piece Rate.

Stability of the System

This system is suitable in the following cases:

- 1. Where the production can be measured in standard units.
- 2. Where strict supervision is not possible.
- 3. Where quality and precision are not of primary importance.

Advantages

- 1. It provides initiative and incentive to the workers to product more.
- 2. The productivity increases and cost of production per unit goes down.
- 3. As there is little wastage of time on the part of the workers, the fixed overheads and resources like plant, machinery and space are well utilized.
- 4. Workers feel free to work, complete with fellow workers, exhibit their efficiency, and earn more of wages.
- 5. Less supervision is required over the workers, and happy relations are maintained with them.
- 6. It is easy to calculate the labor of products.

Disadvantages

- 1. In the race to earn more wages by producing more, the quality of products is likely to deteriorate. So it requires strict inspection and quality control.
- 2. Continuous and increased working for some days may cause fatigue and ill health to the workers.
- 3. To speed up production, the machines, tools, and equipments are sometimes not handled with the care that they require, and so the workers expose themselves to accidents, besides causing loss of breakdown to the machines, equipments etc.,
- 4. The inefficient workers earning less of wages start feeling jealous of other workers who

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earn more. This creates unhealthy atmosphere.

- 5. The workers feel insecure of earning during the days of ill health, holidays, etc.
- 6. This system is not useful for quality products.

The piece rate System can be classified into:

Straight Piece Rates

It is a simple method of making payment at a fixed rate per unit for the units manufactured.

Earnings = Number of units X Rate per unit

The rate is fixed taking into consideration

- a. Time rate for the same class of workers, and
- b. Standard output during a given time.

Differential Piece Rates

Under this system, efficient workers are paid wages at a lower rate. A definite standard of efficiency is set for each job and for efficiency below or above the standard different piece rates are paid according to different levels of efficiency. The following two methods of wage payment are studied under this system:

- a. Taylor Differential Piece-rate Method, and
- b. Merrick Differential Piece rate Method

Taylor Differential Piece-Rate

F.W. Taylor thought to improve the efficiency of workers by suggesting two rates of payment of wages:

- (I) A higher rate to the workers who product equal to or more than the standard fixed for production during the day, and
- (II) A lower rate to the workers who do not achieve the standard.

Merrick Differential Piece-rate

In the Taylor Method, the effect on the wages is quite sharp in the marginal cases. To remove this defect Merrick suggested three piece rates for a job as follows:

Percentage of Standard Output Payment under Merrick Method

Upto 83% Normal piece rate

Above 83% and upto 100% 110% of normal piece rate

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Above 100%

120% of normal piece rate

3.Incentive Schemes

Factors for Selecting Incentive Scheme

The following factors should be considered for selecting an incentive scheme:

1. Productivity

The object of the incentive scheme is to increase productivity. Therefore, this factor is very important. The increased productivity lowers the cost to the benefit of the employers.

2. Simplicity

The scheme should be simple in operations and well understood by the workers. The scheme should be amenable to the setting up of standards and the comparison of the results with the actual.

3. Cost Reduction

The scheme, when introduced, is bound to increase the pay-bill of the workers, and thus *increase the cost. But the simultaneous increase in production would reduce the cost per unit or production. The fixed overheads remain constant up to a certain limit of plant capacity. As such, the increased productivity reduces the cost of fixed overheads per unit.

4. Better Labour Psychology

The scheme should not affect worker's health adversely, should reduce labour turnover and help to improve the standard of living of the workers.

Under this heading, we study the following methods:

- (I) Halsey Premium Scheme;
- (II) Halsey Weir Scheme;
- (III) Rowan Premium Scheme;

1. Halsey Premium Scheme

Under this plan,

- (i) Time rate is guaranteed;
- (ii) Standard time is fixed for the job or operation;
- (iii) The workers producing more than the standard, or the workers completing the work in less than the standard time fixed, get bonus in addition to the ordinary time wage;
- (iv) The bonus of the premium, by whatever name called, is 30 to 70 percent of the wages

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of time saved, the usual percentage being 50%,

(v) The remaining of the bonus percentage is shared by the employer.

Merits of Halsey Plan

- (i) Day wage or the time rate is guaranteed. Even if output is less than the standard, one gets the time wage;
- (ii) Workers get premium for the output above the standard. It provides incentive to the workers to produce more;
- (iii) As the premium is not 100% but only 50% or so, the employers feel happy about it is a they share the remaining 50%;
- (iv) The scheme is very simple and understood easily by the workers.

Demerits

- (i) A significant share of the bonus goes to the employers. So the workers object to it;
- (ii) Incentive is not so attractive as it is with the piece work;
- (iii) Where the workers start saving more than 50% of the time, they earn premium in huge amounts, which the employers do not relish.

2. Halsey – Weir Scheme

This schedule is similar to Halsey scheme except that in this scheme the workers and employers share the premium in 1:2 ratio.

3. Rowan Premium Scheme (variable sharing plan)

Mr. James Rowan introduced this scheme in Glasgow in 1898. It is similar to Halsey scheme but the premium concept here is different. Here the premium is in the ratio of Time saved to Standard time, calculated on the ordinary wages.

Premium = Wages of time worked x Time saved / Standard Time

Or;
$$(AT \times R) TS / ST$$

This scheme also guarantees day wage as is done by Halsey Plan.

Problem 1

Calculate the earnings of a worker from the following information as under.

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a) Time Rate Method: Standard time 30 hours Time taken 20 hours. Hourly rate of wages of Re. 1 per hour plus dearness allowance 50 paise per hour worked.

Problem 2

On the basis of the following information calculate the earnings of A and B on the straight price Rate basis and Taylor's differential piece rate system.

Standard Production 8 units per hour

Normal time rate Rs. 0.40 per hour

Differential to be applied:-

80% of piece rate below standard

120% of piece rate at or above standard. In a 9 hour day, A produces 54 units and B products 75 units.

Problem 3

Calculate the earning of workers A,B and C under Merrick's multiple piece system from the following particulars.

Normal rate per Hour Rs. 1.80

Standard time per unit 1 minute

Output per day as follows:-

Worker A: 384 units

Worker B: 450 units

Worker C: 552 units

Working rows per day are 8

Problem 4

Calculate the earnings of workers A and B under straight piece rate system and Taylor's differential piece rate system from the following particulars.

Normal Rate per hour Rs. 2.40

Standard time per unit 30 seconds

Differentials to be applied:-

80% of piece rate below standard

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120% of piece rate at above standard

Worker A produces 800 units per day and

Worker B produces 1000 units per day.

Solution 1:

Time Rate Method:-

Time Put in by workers x Rate per hour = $30 \times 1 = Rs. 30$

Solution 2

Standard production per hour 8 units

Normal time rate per hour Rs. 0.40

Piece Rate Rs. 0.40/8 = Rs. 0.05

Earnings under the straight piece rate system:-

A: 54 units @ Rs. 0.05 = Rs. 2.70

B: 75 units @ Rs. 0.05 = Rs. 3.75

Differential Piece Rate:-

Low Piece rate: 80% of piece rate $(0.05 \times 80 / 100) = \text{Rs.} \ 0.04$

High Piece rate: 120% of piece rate = $(0.05 \times 120 / 100) = \text{Rs.} \ 0.06$

Standard output per hour is 8 units, So Standard Output for a 9 hour day is 72 units. A produces only 54 units which is less than the standard output of 72 units. So he is entitled to get a lower price rate of Rs. 0.04 per unit. On the other hand, B's output of 75 units is more than the standard output of 72 units. So SA is to get higher piece rate of Re. 0.06 per unit.

A's earning: 54 units @ Re. 0.04 = Rs. 2.16

B's earning: 75 units @ Re. 0.06 = Rs. 4.50

Solution 3

Standard output per minute = 1 units

Standard Production per hour = 60 units

Standard Production per day of 8 hour = 480 units

i.e. (60 x 8)

Normal rate per hour = Rs. 1.80

Normal output per hour = 60 units

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Therefore Normal piece rate $= (1080/60) \times 5$ paise

Calculation of level of Performance:-

Standard output per day = 480 units

Worker A's Output per day = 384 units

Worker A's level of performance = $(384/480) \times 100 = 80\%$

Worker B's Output per day = 450 units

Worker B's level of performance = $(450/480) \times 100 = 43\%$

Worker C's Output per day = 550 units

Worker A's level of performance = $(550/480) \times 100 = 1150\%$

Earnings of workers A:-

Merrick's multiple piece rate system:-

For 384 units @ 3 paise per unit = $(384 \times 3)/100 = 11.50$

Normal piece rate has been applied because worker A's level of performance is 807.

Which is below 83%.

Earning of Worker B:-

For 450 units @ 3.3 Paise per unit = $450 \times 3.3/100 = \text{Rs.} 14.85$

Worker B's level of Performance is 93.75% which is between 83% and 100%. So he is entitled to get 110% of normal piece rate.

Earning of Worker C:-

For 552 units @ 3.6 paise per unit = $(552 \times 3.6)/100$

Rs. 19.87

Worker C's level of performance is 115% which is more than 100% of standard output. So it is entitled to get 120% of normal Piece rate.

Solution 4

3600

1000

Hourly Production = = 120 units

120

2.210

Piece rate = 0.005

Low piece rate:-

LPR = 80% of normal piece rate

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= 80% x 0.005

= 0.004

High piece rate:

HPR = 120 of 0.005

= 0.006

Standard Production per day = 120 units x 8

= 960 units

Computation of earnings of A and B:-

В

Normal Piece Rate 0.005 0.005

Production per day 800 1000

Standard Production

Per day 960 units 960 units

a. Straight piece Rate System 800 x 0.005 1000 x 0.005

Earning Rs. 4.80 Rs. 5

b. Taylor's Differential piece

Rate 0.004 x 800 0.006 x 1000

Rs. 3.2 Rs. 6.00

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART A (ONE MARKS – ONLINE EXAMINATION)

PART B (2 MARKS)

- 1.Define material
- 2. Find out the economic ordering quantity (E.O.Q) from the following particulars:

Annual usage: Rs. 2,40,000

Cost of placing and receiving one order: Rs.120

Annual carrying cost: 10% of inventory value.

- 3. What are the techniques of inventory control?
- 4. Write a short note on FIFO
- 5.Explain LIFO

6.In a company weekly minimum and maximum consumption of material A are 25 and 75 units respectively. The re-order quantity as fixed by the company is 300 units. The material is received within 4 to 6 weeks from issue of supply order. Calculate minimum and maximum level of material A.

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- 7.Explain re- ordering level
- 8. Write a short note on minimum and maximum level
- 9. What is idle time?
- 10. Write any two bonus methods of wage payments.

PART - B (5X6=30 MARKS)

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

1. Show the Store Ledger entries as they would appear when using

i) FIFO		ii) LIFO	
January 1	Balance	300 units	Rs. 1200/-
3	Purchase	200 units	Rs. 880/-
6	Issued	150 units	
8	Purchase	200 units	Rs.920/-
13	Issued	150 units	
21	Issued	200 units	
24	Purchase	200 units	Rs. 960/-
29	Issued	250 units	

2. From the following information -

Standard Time 20 hours

Hourly Rate of wages Rs. 4

Time Taken by A - 16 hours, B - 10 hours and C - 8 hours.

Calculate the Total Earnings and the Rate Earned Per Hour of three workers under the Halsey and Rowan Plans; the hours under Halsey Plan is 50 % of the time saved.

3. Show the Stores Ledger entries for the month of April, 2016 as they would appear when using LIFO method:

April 1 Purchased 300 units @ Rs.3 per unit

April 4 Purchased 600 units @ Rs.4 per unit

April 6 Issued 500 units.

April 10 Purchased 700 units @ Rs.4 per unit.

April 15 Issued 800 units.

April 20 Purchased 300 units @ Rs.5 per unit.

April 23 Issued 100 units.

Calculate the quantity and value of closing stock as on 30th April under LIFO method.

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4. From the following particulars supplied by the HR Department of a Company, Calculate Labour Turnover Rate and Flux Rate.

Total number of employees at the beginning of the month 4,020

Number of employees who are recruited during the month 60

Number of employees who left during the month 100

Total number of employees at the end of the month 3,980

5. The following particulars have been extracted in respect of Material Q. Prepare Ledger account showing the receipts and issues, pricing the materials issued on the basis of Weighted Average Method.

Receipts

1st Nov. Purchased 1000 units @ Rs. 4.00 per unit

12th Nov. Purchased 1800 units @ Rs. 4.30 per unit

23rd Nov. Purchased 1200 units @ Rs. 3.80 per unit

Issues

5th Nov. Issued 800 units

15th Nov. Issued 1200 units

25th Nov. Issued 1200 units

6. Standard time allotted for a job is 20 hours and the rate per hour is Rs. 2 plus a dearness allowance @ 50 paise per hour worked.

The actual time taken by a worker is 15 hours.

Calculate the earnings per hour under

- (i) Time Wage System
- (ii) Piece Wage System
- (iii) Rowan Scheme
- 7. In a factory three components X, Y, Z are used as follows:

Normal Usage 900 Units Per Week Each

Maximum Usage 1,350 Units Per Week Each

Minimum Usage 450 Units Per Week Each

Re – order quantity X - 7,200 Y - 9,000 Z - 10,800

Re – order period X-2-4 weeks Y-4-6 weeks Z-3-5 weeks

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Calculate for each component:

(a) Re – order Level (b) Minimum Level

(c) Maximum Level (d) Average Stock Level

8. For a certain work order, the standard time is 20 hours, wages, Rs.5 per hour, the actual time taken is 13 hours and the factory overhead charges are 80% of standard time.

Set out a comparative statement showing the effect on paying wages on (i) The Halsey Plan and (ii) Rowan incentive Bonus Systems.

9. The following extract of costing information relates to commodity 'X' for the half year ending 31st December, 2010.

Particulars	Amount	Particulars	Amount
	Rs.		Rs.
Purchases of Raw Materials	1,20,000	Sales - Finished Goods	3,00,000
Works Overheads	48,000	Work – in – progress (1 st	
		July, 2010)	4,800
Direct Wages	1,00,000	Work – in – progress (31 st	
		December, 2010)	16,000
Carriage on Purchases	1,440		
Stock (1 st July, 2010):		Raw Materials	22,240
Raw Materials	20,000	Finished Goods (2,000	32,000
Finished Goods (1,000 Tons)	16,000	Tons)	

Selling and Distribution overheads are Re. 1 per Ton sold, 16,000 tons of commodity were produced during the period.

You are to ascertain (i) Cost of Raw Materials used, (ii) Cost of output for the period, (iii) Cost of Sales, (iv) Net Profit for the period and (v) Net profit per ton of the commodity.

10. From the following particulars supplied by the personal department of a firm, calculate Labour Turnover Rate and Flux Rate:

Total number of employees at the beginning of the month 6,030

Number of employees who are recruited during the month 90

Number of employees who left during the month 150

Total number of employees at the end of the month 5,970



(Deemed to be University Established Under section 3 of the UGC Act, 1956), Coimbatore.

Department of Commerce APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING (17CCP201)

Multiple Choice Questions - Online Examination

Question	Option - I	Option - II	Option - III	Option - IV	Answer
UNIT - II					
ensures effective utilisation of			material		
material	control	usage	control	wastage	material control
cost is one of the most			Selling	Adminstrativ	
important elements of the cost of production	Labour	material	Overhaead	e Overhead	Material
			material		
avoids over investment in inventories	control	usage	control	wastage	material control
ensures upto date maintance of			material		
stock records	control	usage	control	wastege	material control
Document which records transfer of		material			
surplus from one job to another	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	Stores ledger	material transfer note
Inventory means					
inventory means	Stock	Material	Stores	Sales	Stock
DIN and is maintained by					
BIN card is maintained by	Storekeeper	Accountant	Auditor	Supervisor	Store keeper
FOO					
EOQ =	√AO/C	√AC/O	√2CO/I	√2CA/C	√2CO/I

level below which stock level should not be allowed to fall at any time	Minimum	Maximum	Re- Order level	Average	Minimum
Market price method is also called as	Standard price Method	Replacement method	Average Method	Base stock Method	Base stock Method
scarp is arises due to bad workmanship	legitimate scrap	Administrati ve scarp	Defective Scarp	Average Stock	legitimate scrap
Spoilage is uncontrollable or unavoidable	Normal	Abnormal	Defective	Average	Normal
is attached to each bin	Material control	material transfer note	BIN card	Stores ledger	BIN Card
taking is an essential future of the prepetual inventory system	bin card	stores ledger	continuous stock taking	Material transfer note	continuous stock taking
storce ledger is kept in the department	production	sales	stores	costing	costing
ABC means	always better control	always best cost	analysis of best cost	always best cost	always better control
under method a standard are fixed price is used for pricing issues	actual	fixed	standard	costing	actual
scrap refers to	damage	wastage	reused	valueless	damage
to reach the require standard of quality or specification	scrap	spoilage	wastage	damage	spoilage
is the portion of raw material lost in processing having no recovery value	scrap	spoilage	wastage	damage	spoilage

gives the complete list of					
materials required for a particular job or work		process		contract	
order	job costing	costing	unit costing	costing	job costing
is attached to each bin to			bill of	stock	
show the position of stock in the bin	bin card	stores ledger	material	transfer note	bin card
	. 1		1 '11 C	. 1	
is known as atomatic inventory	perputal	.4 1. 1	bill of	stock	
system	inventory	stores ledger	material	transfer note	perputal inventory
An system of material control will					
lead to a significant reduction in total cost of	D	D 44	E.C	1	TP.CC: -: 4
production	Poor	Better	Efficient	good	Efficient
prevents loss during storage of		material			
raw materials	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	Stores ledger	Material Control
Inventory means	Stock	Material	Cost	Sales	Stock
card helps the store keeper to		material			
control the stock	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	Stores ledger	BIN Card
contains the accounts for each		material			
class of material	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	Stores ledger	Stores Ledger
is maintained in lease leaf form	Matarial control	material transfer note	BIN card	Stores ladger	Staras I adgar
is maintained in loose leaf form gives a complete list of	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	Stores leager	Stores Ledger
materials required for a particular job or work		material		Bill of	
order	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	material	Bill of material
serve as a purchase requsition		material		Bill of	
to the purchase department	Material control	transfer note	BIN card	material	Bill of material
ivietnod in which materials					
are issued inorderin which they are received in	THE C	L 1750	TEE C	, T.	EIEO
the store	FIFO	LIFO	FFFO	LFIO	FIFO

method materials					
received last are issued first	FIFO	LIFO	FFFO	LFIO	LIFO
The minimum quanity is known as	Base stock method	Avarage Method	weighted avearge method	Market price method	Base stock method
method is determined by adding different prices of materials in stock	Base stock method	Avarage Method	weighted avearge method	Market price method	Simple Avarage Method
method takes into account both quanity and price for arriving at the average price	Base stock method	Avarage Method	weighted avearge method weighted	Market price method	weighted avearge method
method is also called replacement method	Base stock method	Avarage Method	avearge method	Market price method	Market price method
method a stsndard or a fixed price is used for pricingf the issues	Standard price Method	Avarage Method	avearge method	Market price method	Standard price Method
Anything which has no value is considered to be	wastage	Scarp	Spoliage	materials	wastage
treatement are used as raw material for another process	wastage	Scarp	Spoliage	materials	Scarp
may be normal or abnormal	wastage	Scarp	Spoliage	materials	wastage
is a document which authorises and records the issues of materials for use	Material Requstion Note	material transfer note	BIN card	Bill of material	Material Requstion Note
Goods received note is prepared by the department receiving the goods from the	Supplier	Customer	Producer	Distributor	Supplier
scrap refers to	damage	wastage	reused	valueless	damage

level below which stock level should not be allowed to fall at any time	Minimum	maximum	reorder level	zero level	minimum
Market price method is also called as	Standard price Method	Replcement method	Average Method	Base stock Method	Base stock Method
scarp is arises due to bad workmanship	legimate scrap	Administrati ve scarp	Defective Scarp	Average Stock	legimate scrap
Spoilage is uncontrollable or unavoidable	Normal	Abnormal	Defective	Average	Normal
taking is an essential future of the prepetual inventory system	bin card	stores ledger	continuous stock taking	Material transfer note	continuous stock taking
storce ledger is kept in the department	production	sales	stores	costing	costing
ABC means	always better control	always best cost	analysis of best cost	always best cost	always better control
under method a standard are fixed price is used for pricing issues	actual	fixed	standard	costing	actual
T X R + % (S - T)R =	Rowan plan	Emerson efficiency	Halsey premium	Maslows premium	Halsey premium
Wage sheets is prepared by	Production	Purchase	Sales	Pay roll	Pay roll
In Taylor's differential piece rate system	Two	Three	Four	Five	Two
What is considered under Gantt task and bonus scheme?	Time	Piece rate	Bonus	Piece rate + Bonus	Piece rate + Bonus

The taylor's differential wage system	Punishes the inefficient workers	Encourages the efficient workers	Punishes the inefficient worker and	Awarded	Punishes the inefficient worker and Encourages the efficient workers
is not included in the labour cost	Basic pay	_ · ·	Employee's contribution to		Employee's contribution to provident fund
Labour turnover is calculated by	number of workkers left/ average number of workers	additions/ average number of	number of workkers replaced/ average	number of workkers left/ number of workkers replaced	number of workkers replaced/ average number of workers
The payment of idle time arises only when workers are paid on basis.	time	money	value	job	time

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UNIT-III

SYLLABUS

Overheads – Classification of Overheads – Allocation, Apportionment and Absorption of Overheads – Methods of Absorption of Overheads.

Meaning and Definition

Aggregate of all expenses relating to indirect material cost, indirect labour cost and indirect expenses is known as Overhead. Accordingly, all expenses other than direct material cost, direct wages and direct expenses are referred to as overhead.

According to Wheldon, Overhead may be defined as "the cost of indirect material, indirect labour and such other expenses including services as cannot conveniently be charged to a specific unit."

Blocker and WeItmer define overhead as follows:

"Overhead costs are operating cost of a business enterprise which cannot be traced directly to a particular unit of output. Further such costs are invisible or unaccountable."

Importance of Overhead Cost

Nowadays business is a dynamic organism. Advancement of technological development and innovation, economic situations and social considerations are the important factors for modernization of industries at mass production to meet its more demand. The overhead charges are heavily increased and they represent major portion of total cost. Therefore, it assumes greater importance for cost control and cost reduction.

Classification of Overheads

Classification of overheads is the process of grouping of costs based on the features and objectives of the business organization. The following are the important methods on which the overheads are classified:

- (a) On the basis of Nature.
- (b) On the basis of Function.
- (c) On the basis of Variability.
- (d) On the basis of Normality.
- (e) On the basis of Control.

(1) On the Basis of Nature

One of the important classifications is on the basis of nature or elements. Based on nature the aggregate of all indirect material cost, indirect labour cost and indirect other expenses

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are known as overheads. Accordingly, overheads are grouped into (a) Indirect Material Cost (b) Indirect Labour Cost and (c) Indirect Expenses.

- (a) **Indirect Material Cost:** Indirect materials do not form part of the finished products. Indirect materials are indirectly or generally used for production which cannot be identified directly. For example, oil, lubricants, cotton waste, tools for repairs and maintenance etc. are indirect materials.
- (b) **Indirect Labour Cost**: Indirect labour is for work in general. The importance of the distribution lies in the fact that whereas direct labour can be identified with and charged to the job, indirect labour cannot be so charged and has, therefore, to be treated as part of the factory overheads to be included in the cost of production. Examples are salaries and wages of supervisors, storekeepers, maintenance labour etc.
- (c) **Indirect Expenses:** Any expenses that are not specifically incurred for or can be readily charged to or identified with a specific job. These are the expenses incurred in general for more than one cost centre. Examples of indirect expenses are rent, insurance, lighting, telephone, stationery expenses ·etc.

(2) On the Basis of Function

The classification overheads on the basis of the various function of the business concern is known as function wise overheads. Here there are four important functional overheads such as:

- (a) **Production Overhead:** Production overhead is also termed as manufacturing overhead or works overhead or factory overhead. It is the aggregate of all indirect expenses which are incurred for work in operation or factory. These costs are normally incurred during the period when the production process is carried on. For example, factory rent, factory light, power, factory employees' salary, oil, lubrication of plant & machinery, etc.
- (b) Administrative Overhead: Administrative expenses are incurred in general for management to discharge its functions of planning organizing, controlling, coordination and directing. These expenses are not specifically incurred and cannot be identified with the specific job. It is also termed as office cost. For example, office rent, rates, printing, stationery, postage, telegram, legal expenses etc. are the office and administrative costs.
- (c) **Selling Overheads:** Selling expenses are overheads which are incurred for promoting sales, securing orders, creating demand and retaining customers. For example,

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salesmen's salaries, advertisement, rent and rates of show room, samples, commission etc.

(d)**Distribution Overhead:** Distribution overhead are incurred for distribution of products or output from producers to the ultimate consumers. For example, warehouse staff salaries, expenses of delivery van, storage expenses, packing etc.

(3) On the Basis of Variability

One of the important classifications is on the basis of variability. According to this, the expenses can be grouped into (a) Fixed Overhead (b) Variable Overhead and (c) Semi-Variable Overhead.

- (a) **Fixed Overhead**: Fixed cost or overhead incurred remain constant due to change in the volume output or change in the volume of sales. For example, rent and rates of buildings, depreciation of plant, salaries of supervisors etc.
- (b) Variable Overhead: Variable overhead may be defined as "they tend to increase or decrease in total amount with changes in the volume of output or volume of sales." Accordingly the change is in direct proportion to output. Indirect materials, Indirect labour, repair and maintenance, power, fuel, lubricants etc. are examples of variable overhead costs.
- (c) **Semi-Variable Overheads:** Semi-variable overheads are incurred with a change in the volume of output or turnover. They neither remain fixed nor do they tend to
- (d) vary directly with the output. These costs remain fixed upto a certain volume of output but they will vary at other part of activity. Semi-variable overheads are mixed cost, i.e., partly fixed and partly variable. For example, power, repairs and maintenance, depreciation of plant and machinery telephone etc.

(4) On the Basis of Normality

Overheads are classified into normal overheads and abnormal overheads on the basis of normality features. According to this normal overheads are incurred in achieving the target output or fixed plan. On the other hand, abnormal overhead costs are not expected to be incurred at a given level of output in the conditions in which the level of output is normally produced. For example, abnormal idle time, abnormal wastage etc. Such expenses are transferred to Profit and Loss Account.

(5) On the Basis of Control

It is one of important classifications of overhead on the basis of control. Based on control it is grouped into controllable overhead and uncontrollable overhead.

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Controllable overhead which can be controlled by the action of a specified number of undertaking. For example, idle time, wastages etc. can be controlled. Uncontrollable overheads cannot be controlled by the action of the executive heading the

Procedure or Steps in Overhead

Overheads are incurred for work in general. Overhead is added tQ the prime cost in order to measure the total cost of production or cost of goods sold. For allocation and apportionment of overhead in the cost of production or cost of goods sold the following procedures are involved:

- (1) Classification of Overhead
- (2) Collection of Overhead
- (3) .Overhead Analysis:
 - (a)Distribution of overhead to production and service departments, i.e., Allocation and Apportionment of overhead to cost centre.
 - (b) Re-distribution of overhead from service department to production department, i.e., Allocation and Apportionment of service centres to production centres or departments.
- (4) Absorption of overhead by cost units, i.e., computation of overhead absorption rates.
 - (1) Classification Overhead: We have already discussed the classification of overh~ad in the preceding pages, and the discussion on other procedures would follow in this chapter and the subsequent one.

Collection of Overhead: The production overheads or factory overheads are collected and identified under separate overhead code numbers or standing order numbers. These overheads are collected from different sources and documents.

(1) The following are the important sources and documents:

Overhead Expenses	Sources and Documents Used
Indirect Materials	Materials Requisition
Power and light	Meter Reading
Indirect wages	Time Cards, Pay Rolls, Wage Analysis
Salaries	Salaries Sheet
Depreciation	Plant Register, Machinery Register
Rates	Lease
Rates	Local Government Assessment
Office Stationery	Supplier's Invoices

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Postage	Postage Book		
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(3) Overhead Analysis: (a) Allocation and Apportionment of Overhead to Cost Centres
The first step of overhead analysis is distribution of overhead to production department and
service department. Before analysing overhead, we should know the concept of Allocation,
Absorption and Apportionment.

Allocation: Cost allocation refers to the allotment of whole item of cost to cost centres. The technique of charging the entire overhead expenses to a cost centre is known as cost allocation.

Absorption: Cost absorption refers to the process of absorbing all overhead costs allocated to apportioned over particular cost centre or production department by the unit produced.

Apportionment: Apportionment is the process of distribution factory overheads to cost centres or cost units on an equitable basis. The term apportionment refers to the allotment of expenses which cannot be identified wholly with a particular department. Such expenses require division and apportionment over two or more cost centres in proportion to estimated benefits received.

Allocation Vs Apportionment

- (1) Allocation deals with whole amount of factory overheads while apportionment deals with proportion of item of cost or proportion to cost centres.
- (2) The item of factory overhead directly allocated and identified with specific cost centers. Whereas apportionment requires suitable and equitable basis. For example, factory rent may be allocated to the factory and has to be apportioned among the producing and service departments on an equitable basis.

Basis of Apportionment

Overhead apportionment depends upon matching with principles. Accordingly the basis for apportionment should be related to the basis on which the expenditure is incurred. The following are the usual basis adopted for apportionment of overhead:

Basis of Apportionment

Basis of Distribution
No. of light points, floor space or meter
- reading
- Floor Area
Area of floor

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and Machinery and - Book value

Equipments E S I, Canteen,

(5) Safety, }

compensation,

supervision - No. of employees

welfare, fringe

benefits

(6) Delivery Van, }

Internal

Transport - Weight, volume ton
(7) Audit fees - Sales or Total Cost

Storekeeper's Weight, value of materials or Number of

(8) expenses - requisitions

(9) Power - H. P. Hours or K. W. Hours

Illustration: 1

A departmental store has several departments. What bases would you recommend for apportioning the following items of expenses to its departments:

- (I) Fire Insurance of building
- (2) Sales commission
- (3) Advertisement
- (4) Salesmen's salaries
- (5) Commission paid to salesmen
- (6) Show room expenses
- (7) Depreciation on plant
- (8) Rent of finished goods, warehouse
- (9) Factory power
- (10) Delivery Van expenses

Solution:

Items Basis of Apportionment

(I) Fire Insurance Building Floor space or Value

(2) Sales Commission Sales value
 (3) Advertisement Sales value
 (4) Salesmen's Salaries Sales value
 (5) Commission paid to Salesmen Sales value

(6) Show room expenses Sales value or Total cost

(7) Depreciation on plant Value of plant

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Rent of finished goods

(8) warehouse Floor space or Area

(9) Factory power H.P. Power (or) K.W. hours

(10) Delivery Van expenses Weight, Volume

Illustration: 2

A factory has three production departments and two service departments. The following figures have been extracted from the financial books:

	Rs.
Supervision	6,000
Repairs of Plant and Machinery	3,000
Rent	8,000
Light	2,000
Power	3,000
Employer's contribution to ESI	600
Canteen Expenses	1,000
-	

The following further details have been extracted from the books of the respective departments:

Particulars	A	В	С	D	E
Direct Wages (Rs.)	4,000	3,000	2,000	2,000	1,000
Area of Square feet	2,000	1,000	500	500	100
No. of Employees	50	40	20	20	10
Value of Machinery	10,000	5,000	3,000	3,000	1,000
Light Points	80	60	30	30	20
H.P. of Machines	200	100	50	50	20

Solution:

Primary Overhead Distribution Summary

Production

Basis of Total Department Sen'ice

Particulars Apportionment Rs. Department

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			\boldsymbol{A}	В	C	D	E
Supervision	No. of Employees 5:4:2:2:1	6,000	2,142	1,715	857	857	429
Repairs of Plant	3.1.2.2.1						
and Machinery	Value Machinery 10:5:3:3:1 Area of square	3,000	1,364	681	409	409	137
Rent	feet 20:10:5:5:1	8,000	3,902	1,951	976	976	195
Light	Light points 8: 6: 3: 3: 2	2,000	727	545	273	273	182
Power	H.P. of Machines 20:10:5:5:2	3,000	1,429	714	357	357	143
Employers	Direct Wages	600	200	150	100	100	50
Contribution to							
ESI	4: 3:2:2:1						
Canteen	No. of						
Expenses	Employees 5:4:2:2:1	1,000	357	286	143	143	71
		23,60	10,12				
	Total	0	1	6,044	3,115	3,115	1,207

(b) **Re-apportionment** (**Re-distribution**): Re-distribution of overhead from various service departments to production departments is known as Re-apportionment or Secondary distribution. Accordingly, allocation and apportionment of overheads from service departments or centres to production centres or departments. The following are the important bases adopted for apportionment of secondary distribution:

	Service Department	Basis of Apportionment
(1)	Purchase Department	Number of Purchase Orders or Number of
		Purchase Requision or Value of Materials
	Maintenance and Repairs	
(2)	Department	Hours worked
(3)	Stores Department	No. of Requisition or Value of Materials

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(4)	Personnel Department	No. of Employees or Direct wages
	(Canteen, Welfare, Medical,	
	Employer's liability)	
		No. of Employee or Labour Hours or Direct
(5)	Time Keeping Department	Wages
(6)	Pay roll Department	No. of Employees or Direct Wages
(7)	Accounts Department	No. of Employees
		Direct Labour Hours or Machine Hours or
(8)	Tool Room	Direct Wages

	Service Department	Basis of Apportionment
(9)	Transport Department	Car hours, Truck hours, Tonnage handled
(10)	Power House	K.W. Hours
(11)	Fire Insurance	Stock Value

Methods or Re-apportionment or Re-distribution

The following are the important methods of re-distribution of service department overheads to production department :

- (1) Direct Re-distribution Method
- (2) Step Distribution Method
- (3) Reciprocal Service Method this method further grouped into:
 - (a) Repeated Distribution Method
 - (b) Simultaneous Equiation Method
 - (c) Trial and Error Method

The following chart explains more about the method of re-apportionment of service department cost:

Methods of Secondary Distribution

(1) **Direct Re-distribution Method:** Under this method, the cost of service department is directed to re-distribution to the production departments without considering the services rendered by one service department to another service department.

Illustration: 3

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Ramesh Ltd. has three production departments A, Band C and six service departments. The following figures are extracted from the records of the company:

Production Departmentss

A	Rs.16,000
В	Rs.10,000
С	Rs.12,000
	Rs38,000

Service Departments

Stores	Rs.2,OOO
Timekeeping	Rs.3,OOO
Maintenance	Rs. 1,000
Power	Rs.2,OOO
Walfare	Rs. 1,000
Supervision	Rs.2,OOO

Particulars		Production Department			
	A		В	C	
No. of Employees	40		30	20	
No. of Stores Requisition	30		20	10	
Horse Power of Machines	500		500	600	
Machine Hours	2500		1500	1000	
Total	R	s.49	0,000		

The other information available in

You are required to apportion the costs of various service departments to production departments.

Solution:

Departmental Overhead Re-distribution Summary

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(2) **Step Method:** Under this method the cost of most serviceable department is first distributed to production departments and other service departments. Thereafter, the next service department is distributed and later the last service department until the cost of all the service departments are redistributed to the production department.

Illustration: 4

A manufacturing company has two production departments A and B and three Service Departments - Timekeeping, Stores and Maintenance. The departmental summary showed the

Production Departments: Rs. following expenses for Dec. 2003.

A 32,000

B 10,000 The following information about departments is

Service Departments: available and is used as a basis for distribution:

Timekeeping 8,000
Stores 10,000
Maintenance 6,000
Total Overhead Expenses 66,000

Particular	Production		Service Department		partments
	Departments				
			Timekeepin		
	A	B	g	Stores	Maintenance
No. of Employees	20	'15	10	8	5
No. of Stores Requisitions	12	10	-	-	3
Machine Hours	1200	800	-	-	-

You are required to apportion these costs to production departments : Solution:

Departments	Primary				
	Distribution				
	Rs.				
Timekeeping	8000	(-) 8,000			
Stores	10,000	3,334	(-) 13,334		
Maintenance	6,000	2,500	1,600	(-) 10,100	
A	32,000	1,333	6,400	6,060	45,793
В	10,000	833	5,334	4,040	20,207

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Total	66,000				66,000	
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Basis of Apportionment:

Timekeeping: 20 : 15 : 8 : 5 (No. of Employees) Stores: 12 : 10 : 3 (No. of Stores Requisition)

Maintenance: 12:8 (Machine Hours)

- (3) Reciprocal Service Method: This method recognizes the fact that if a service department receives services from other department, the services should be charged in the receiving department. Thus, the cost of inter departmental services is taken into account on reciprocal basis. The following are the three important methods available for dealing with reciprocal distribution:
 - (a) Simultaneous Equation Method.
 - (b) Repeated Distribution Method.
 - (c) Trail and Error Method.
 - (a) Simultaneous Equation Method: Under this method, the true cost of total overhead of each service department is ascertained with the help of Simultaneous or Algebraic Equation. The obtained result reapportioned to production department on the basis of given percentage.
 - (b) Repeated Distribution Method: Under this method, the total overhead costs of the service departments are distributed to service and production departments according to given percentage of the service departments are exhausted, in turn repeatedly until the figures become too small to matter.
 - (c) *Trail and Error Method:* In this method, the cost of a service centre is apportioned to another service centre. Then, the cost of another service centre along with the apportioned cost from the first centre is again apportioned back to the first service centre. This process is repeated till the amount to be apportioned becomes zero or negligible.

1. Direct Material Cost Method

According to the material cost method, we calculate the rate of overhead on the basis of past actual direct material and past actual overheads. For example, past actual direct material's cost is Rs. 10,000 and past actual overhead cost is Rs. 2000. So, Overhead rate will be 20%. If we have obtained any specific order for producing any product, we will include the 20% cost of overhead. For example, we have produced one unit for our customer for this, we have used our Rs. 1000 material. Our overhead cost in it will be Rs. 1000 X 20% = Rs. 200. We this, we need not to go to deep study of calculating each overhead like electricity consumption in this one unit, depreciation for this one unit, salary cost for this one unit and other

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overhead cost for producing this one unit. Ok.

2. Direct Labour Cost Method

According to the Direct Labour Cost method, we calculate the rate of overhead on the basis of past actual cost of direct wages and past actual overheads

following is the formula = Actual Overhead Cost / Direct Labour Cost X 100

For example, past actual direct wage's cost is Rs. 10,000 and past actual overhead cost is Rs. 2000. So, Overhead rate will be 20%. If we have obtained any specific order for producing any product, we will include the 20% cost of overhead. For example, we have produced one unit for our customer for this, we have paid Rs. 1000 to our laborers for their labour. Our overhead cost in it will be Rs. $1000 \times 20\% = Rs$. 200.

3. Prime Cost Method

Under prime cost method, we calculate the actual or estimated prime cost in which direct material cost and direct labour cost will be added. We also calculate the budgeted Overhead Cost. After this, we calculate the rate of overhead. On this rate, we absorb our overhead cost on any new production.

Following is the formula of overhead rate = **Budgeted Overhead Expenses / Anticipated Prime Cost**

4. Direct Labour Hour Method

Under this method of overhead absorption, we calculate the total direct labour hours by using our accounting information. We also see the total cost of overhead in these labour hours. After dividing this overhead cost with direct labour hours, we can easily calculate the rate of overhead. On this rate, we can absorb the estimated amount of overhead in any unit or units of production.

Following is the formula = Overhead Cost / Direct labour Hours

For example, total direct labour hours are 10,000. Total overhead cost in these hours are Rs. 5,000. Our overhead rate is the 50% of labour hours in any production.

5. Machine Hour Rate Method

This is very good method of absorption of overhead cost in the industry where we do all works with the help of machines. We just have to calculate the machine hour rate and same rate will be the overhead rate and on this basis, we can absorb the estimated cost of overhead when we produce any unit of production. Following is the formula of calculating the machine hour rate =

Total Overhead Cost / Total Machine Hours

We have to apportion all the overhead cost on the basis of our machines.

a) Rent Expense

It is divided on the basis of area for each machine.

b) Lighting Expenses

It is divided on the basis of No. of Points for Each Machine

c) Supervision Cost

It is divided on the basis of time spent on each machine.

d) Insurance

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It is divided on the basis of value of each machine.

e) Depreciation

It is divided on the basis of cost of each machine.

f) Power

It is divided on the basis of consumption by each machine.

g) Repair

It is divided on the basis of working life of each machine.

6. Rate Per Unit of Production Method

In this method, we calculated estimated overhead rate on the basis of units output and same is used for absorption of actual units of production.

Rate of Overhead = Budgeted Overhead Cost / Budgeted Units of Production

7. Sales Price Method

Under this method of absorption of overhead, we calculate the rate of overhead on the basis of sales of units and budgeted overhead cost. Same rate is used for absorption.

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART A (ONE MARKS – ONLINE EXAMINATION)

PART B (2 MARKS)

- 1. Write a short note on allocation
- 2. Explain absorption of overheads.
- 3. Define Overheads
- 4. Explain over and under absorption
- 5. What are the source documents for collection of overheads?
- 6. Write a short note on Manufacturing overheads
- 7. What are the different types of Department in Manufacturing Concern.
- 8. Explain administration Overheads
- 9. Write a short note on normal capacity
- 10. What are jont-products?

PART - B (5X6=30 MARKS)

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

1. The Sumithra Company has five departments P, Q, R, S are producing departments and T is a service department. The actual costs for a period are as follows:

Particulars Rs.

Repairs to plant 1,200

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Rent	1,000
Depreciation	1,200
Supervision	4,000
Insurance	1,500
Employer's Liability of employees Insurance	600
Light	1,800

The following data are also available in respect of the five department:

Particulars	Dept. P	Dept. Q	Dept. R	Dept. S	Dept. T
Area Sq. Ft.	140	120	110	90	40
No. of workers	25	20	10	10	5
Total Wages	Rs. 10,000	Rs. 8,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 2,000
Value of Plant	Rs. 20,000	Rs. 18,000	Rs. 16,000	Rs. 10,000	Rs. 6,000
Value of Stock	Rs. 15,000	Rs. 10,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 2,000	-

Apportion the costs to the various departments on the equitable basis.

- 2. How does Activity Based Costing differs from Traditional Costing?
- 3. An engineering firm has three departments. The budgeted expenses for the current year are :

Particulars	Dept. A (Rs.)	Dept. B (Rs.)	Dept. C (Rs.)
Materials	1,00,000	1,00,000	79,700
Direct Wages	1,36,640	87,840	79,300
Direct Expenses	1,760	2,280	900
Works Expenses	97,600	65,880	61,100
Administration Expenses	26,880	25,600	19,890
Direct Labour Hours	78,080	57,645	48,880

Works expenses are charged to output at a man-hour rate and administration expenses as a percentage on works cost.

Compute man-hour rate and percentage of administration overhead on works cost.

- 4. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of Activity Based Costing
- 5. Raj Company Ltd. has three production departments and four service departments.

The expenses for three departments as per Primary Distribution Summary were:

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Production Departments:	Rs.	Rs.
X	30,000	
Y	26,000	
Z	24,000	80,000

Service Departments:

Stores	4,000	
Time-keeping and accounts	3,000	
Power	1,600	
Canteen	1,000	<u>9,600</u>

Total <u>89,600</u>

The following information is also available in respect of the production departments:

Particulars	Dept. A	Dept. B	Dept. C
Horse Power of Materials	600	600	400
Number of workers	40	30	30
Value of Stores Requisitioned	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 3,000	Rs. 2,000

Apportion the costs of the various service departments to the production departments.

6. From the following information relating to the machinery installed in a factory, calculate the machine - hour rate:

Purchase price of the machine with the scrap value zero Rs. 90,000

Installation and incidental charges incurred on the machine Rs. 10,000

Machine consumes 10 units of electric power per hour @ 40 paise per unit

Oil expense @ Rs. 2 per day of eight hours

Life of the machine is 10 years of 2,000 working hours each

Repair charges: 50 % of depreciation

Consumable stores @Rs. 10 per day of eight hours

Two workers are engaged on the machine @ Rs. 4 per day of eight hours.

7. Compute Labour Hour Rate from the following particulars:

Total number of workers 100
Working days in a year 300

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8

No. of hours per day worked

Idle Time 5%

Factory Overheads Rs. 11,40,000

Gift to workers Rs. 7,000

Life of the machine is 10 years of 2,000 working hours each

Repair charges: 50 % of depreciation

8. Makesh Company Ltd. has three production departments and four service departments.

The expenses for three departments as per Primary Distribution Summary were:

Production Departments:	Rs.	Rs.
K	30,000	
L	26,000	
M	<u>24,000</u>	80,000
Service Departments :		
Stores	4,000	
Time-keeping and accounts	3,000	
Power	1,600	
Canteen	1,000	<u>9,600</u>
Total		<u>89,600</u>

The following information is also available in respect of the production departments:

Particulars	Dept. K	Dept. L	Dept.M
Horse Power of Materials	600	600	400
Number of workers	40	30	30
Value of Stores Requisitioned	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 3,000	Rs. 2,000

Apportion the costs of the various service departments to the production departments.

9. From the following information relating to the machine installed in a factory, calculate the machine-hour rate:

Purchase price of the machine with the scrap value zero Rs. 1,80,000

Installation and incidental charges incurred on the machine Rs. 20,000

Life of the machine is 10 years of 2,000 working hours each

Repair charges: 50 % of depreciation

Machine consumes 10 units of electric power per hour @ 40 paise per unit

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Oil expense @ Rs. 2 per day of eight hours

Consumable stores @Rs. 10 per day of eight hours

Two workers are engaged on the machine @ Rs. 4 per day of eight hours.

10. The following data were obtained from the books of Sun Engineering Company for the half year ended 30th September. Calculate the departmental overhead rates for each of the production departments, assuming that the overheads are recovered as a percentage of direct wages:

Particulars	Product	ion Depart	Service Departments			
		P	Q	R	X	Y
Direct Wages	Rs.	7,000	6,000	5,000	1,000	1,000
Direct Materials	Rs.	3,000	2,500	2,500	1,500	1,000
Employees	Nos.	200	150	150	50	50
Electricity	Kwh.	8,000	6,000	6,000	3,000	3,000
Light Points	Nos.	10	15	15	5	5
Assets Value ('000)	Rs.	50	30	20	10	10
Area Occupied	Sq.Ft.	800	600	600	200	100

The expenses for 6 months were:

Stores Overhead	Rs. 400	Depreciation	Rs.6,000
Motive Power	Rs. 1,500	Repairs & Maintenance	Rs.1,200
Electric Lighting	Rs. 200	General Overheads	Rs.10,000
Labour Welfare	Rs. 3,000	Rent and Taxes	Rs.600

Apportion the expenses of department X in the ratio of 4:4:3 and that of department in proportion to direct wages, to department P,Q and R respectively.



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Department of Commerce

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING (17CCP201)

Multiple Choice Questions - Online Examination

Question	Option - I	Option - II	Option - III	Option - IV	Answer
UNIT - III	•	1	•	1	
	I., 15., .4		XX71_		
1 1	Indirect	D: 4	Work	Г ,	T P AE
overhead means	expenses	Direct expenses	expenses	Factory expenses	Indirect Expenses
classification of overhead is important					
inorder to identify cost with					
centre	Process	sales	Cost	production	Cost
are those materials				_	
		. 1:			
which do not form a part of the finished		indirect	D 1		T 1. 4 4 1
goods or municer materials	direct	materials	Raw material	cost of material	Indirect materials
cannot be identified with and allocated					
but can be apportioned to apportioned					
to a particular product	cost	expenses	labour	sales	Cost
labours which is not					
directly engaged in production of goods					
or services	Direct	indirect	semi- skilled	Skilled	Indirect
of services	Breet	manoet	Sciii Skiiica	Skiiicu	
tht are not directly	Indirect		overhead		
charged to production	expenses	Direct expenses	expenses	selling expenses	indirect expenses
	production	manufacturing	selling	distribution	manufacturing
factory expenses is also known as	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead

			I	I	
overhead covers all					
expenses incurred from stage to raw	production	factory	selling	distribution	
materials to finished goods	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	factory overhead
materials to ministed goods	overnead	overnead	overnead	Overnead	lactory overnead
expenses incurred for	adminstaration	factory	selling	distribution	Adminstration
running the adminstrative office	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead
Tunning the unimportant to office	o v em eu	o v erricua	o v errieu a	o v erricua	o v et meta
expenses incurred for	administration	factory	selling	distribution	
actual sales and promotion of sales	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	Selling overhead
1					
expenses incurred for					
with packing and delivery of goods to	administration	factory	selling	distribution	distribution
customers	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead
don not vary with the		variable	selling	semivariable	
volume of products	Fixed overhead	overhead	overhead	overhead	fixed overhead
:			Cont		
is the process of	G .		Cost		
grouping of cost according to their	Cost		Apportionmen		
common characterstics	Classification	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Cost classification
is defined as the			Cost		
allotment of whole amount of cost	Cost		Apportionmen		
centre or cost units	Classification	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Cost allocation
is defined as the			Cost		
alloment proportions of cost to cost	Cost		Apportionmen		
		Cost Allogation	Apportioninen		Cost annoution resert
centre or cost units	Classification	Cost Allocation	l	Cost absorption	Cost apportionment
Expenses which can be directly			Cost		
identified with a particular department	Cost		Apportionmen		
or cost centre is called	Classification	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Cost Allocation
of cost cellule is called	Ciassification	Cost Allocation	l	Cost absorption	Cost Anocation

domantus out and these					
department which enable other					
department tp work	Service	Production	Sales	Purchase	Service
the amount of overheads by the	Direct material	direct lebour	machine Hour	Direct lobour	
macchine hours		cost percentage	rate	hour percentage	machine hour rate
macenine nours	cost percentage	cost percentage	Tate	nour percentage	macmine nour rate
011					
Overheads in cost accounts are usually the basis of	Estimate Rates	Fixed rates	Variable rates	semivariable	Estimated rates
the basis of	Estimate Rates	rixed rates	variable rates	rates	Estimated rates
method helps to					
compare the efficiencies and cost of	Direct material	direct labour	machine Hour	Direct labour	
operating different machines	cost percentage	cost percentage	rate	hour percentage	machine hour rate
Under absorption means that the					
overheads absorbed in production less			selling	distribution	
than the overhead	Actual	work	overhead	overhead	Actual
absorbtion means that					
the overhead absorbed in production are					
more than that of actual overhead	under	Over	Fixed	Variable	Over
Each machine or group of machine is					
treated as a cost centre in order to			Variable	Semi variable	
identify the expenses	Fixed overhead	Direct overhead		overhead	fixed overhead
, <u> </u>					
			Variable	Semi variable	
Standing change is also Imayur	Eirrad arrank as d	Dimost sysulass 1			fixed overhead
Standing charge is also known as	rixed overnead	Direct overhead	overnead	overhead	nxeu overneau
Machine expenses is also known	Variable		Semi variable		
as	expenses	Fixed Expenses	Expenses	Direct expenses	Variable Expenses

State the bases od Apportionment for				value of	
rent	Floor area	value of plant	value of stock	materials	Floor area
State the bases of apportionment for				value of	
insurance of stock	Light points	value of plant	value of stock	materials	value of stock
		-			
State the bases of apportionment for				value of	
material handling charges	Light points	value of plant	value of stock		Value of materials
	Light points	varae or praint		materials	value of materials
is the process of			Cost		
distribution of overheads to various	Cost	~	Apportionmen		
departments	Classification	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Cost Apportionment
is process of charging			Cost		
the full amount of overhead without	Cost		Apportionmen		
division	Classification	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Cost allocation
are partly fixed and		variable	selling	semivariable	semivariable
partly variable	Fixed overhead		overhead	overhead	overheads
oveheads refers to such					
overhead which are expected to be	Normal	Abnormal	Controllable	Un controllable	Normal
incurred in attaining a given output	Normai	Abhormai	Controllable	On controllable	Normai
oveheads refers to such					
overhead which are not expected to be					
incurred in attaining a given output	Normal	Abnormal	Controllable	Un controllable	abnormal
cost are variable cost					
which can be controlled	Normal	Abnormal	Controllable	Un controllable	controllable

cost are fixed cost	NT 1		G . 11.1.1	TT . 11 1 1	
which cannot be controlled	Normal	Abnormal	Controllable	Un controllable	un controllable
overheads expenses to various			Cost		
production and service department is	Departmentalis		Apportionmen		
known as	ation	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Departmentalisation
department are those					
department which enable other					
department tp work	Service	Production	Sales	Purchase	Service
department tp work	Scrvice	Troduction	Saics	1 urchase	Service
			Cost		
ensures accuracy in	Departmentalis		Apportionmen		
cost ascertainment	ation	Cost Allocation	t	Cost absorption	Departmentalisation
is obtained by dividing					
the amount of overheads by the direct	Direct material	direct labour	prime cost	work cost	Direct labour cost
wages		cost percentage	percentage	percentage	percentage
	e est percentage	eost percentage	percentage	percentage	Percentings
is obtained by dividing					
the amount of overhead by the prime	Direct material		prime cost	work cost	prime cost
cost	cost percentage	cost percentage	percentage	percentage	percentage
is obtained by dividing					
the amount of overheads by the labour	Direct material	direct labour	prime cost	Direct labour	Direct labour hour
hours	cost percentage	cost percentage	percentage	hour percentage	percentage
is abtained by dividing					_
is obtained by dividing	Diment mentarial	diment labour	manahima II	Dimost labour	
the amount of overheads by the macchine hours	Direct material		machine Hour		machine hour rate
macenine nours	cost percentage	cost percentage	rate	hour percentage	machine nour rate
Overheads in cost accounts are usually				semivariable	
the basis of	Estimate Rates	Fixed rates	Variable rates	rates	Estimated rates

report help the	A 11.	,	1	1 1	A 7°4
management in decision making	Audit	cost	estimated	historical cost	Audit
method helps to					
compare the efficiencies and cost of	Direct material	direct labour	machine Hour	Direct labour	
operating different machines	cost percentage	cost percentage	rate	hour percentage	machine hour rate
means that the overheads					
absorbed in production less than the	Under		selling	distribution	
actual overhead	absorption	work	overhead	overhead	Under absorption
	uosorption	WOIK	o v errica a	Overnead	Chaci absorption
absorbtion means that					
the overhead absorbed in production are					
more than that of actual overhead	under	Over	Fixed	Variable	Over
rate is the cost of	Labour per			indirect labour	
running a machine per hour	hour	Machine Hour	wage hour	hour	machine Hour
			<u> </u>		
Each machine or group of machine is			X7 ' 1 1	G : :11	
treated as a cost centre in order to	F: 1 1 1	D' (1 1	Variable	Semi variable	C. 1 1 1
identify the expenses	Fixed overhead	Direct overhead	overhead	overhead	fixed overhead
State the bases of apportionment for				value of	
lighting	Light points	value of plant	value of stock	materials	Light points
State the bases for apportionment of				value of	
depriciation of plant and macinery	Light points	value of plant	value of stock		Value of plant
deprication of plant and machiery	Light points	value of plant	value of Stock	materials	value of plant
State the bases of apportionment for				value of	
insurance of stock	Light points	value of plant	value of stock	materials	value of stock

State the bases of apportionment for material handling charges	Light points	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	Value of materials
State the bases of apportionment of supervision	No.of, Employees	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	No.of Employees
State the bases of apportionment of repairs to plant	No.of, Employees	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	Valueof plant
Canteen expenses is apportionmet based on	No.of Employees	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	No.of Employees
State the bases for apportionment of indirect materials	Direct Materials	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	Direct materials
State the bases for apportionment of indirect wages	Direct Materials	Direct wages	value of stock	value of materials	Direct wages
State the bases for apportionment of municipal taxes	Floor area	value of plant	value of stock	value of	Floor area
State the bases for advertising	Actual Expenses	value of plant	value of stock	value of materials	Actual Expenses

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UNIT-IV

SYLLABUS

Process Costing – Features – General Principles – Comparison between Job Costing and Process Costing – Process Losses – Normal Loss – Abnormal Loss – Abnormal Gains – Inter Process Profit – Equivalent Production – Procedure for Evaluation – Joint Product and by Product.

MEANING OF PROCESS COSTING

Process costing is a method of costing under which all costs are accumulated for each stage of production or process, and the cost per unit of product is ascertained at each stage of production by dividing the cost of each process by the normal output of that

process.

Definition:

CIMA London defines process costing as "that form of operation costing which applies where standardize goods are produced".

Features of Process Costing:

- (a) The production is continuous
- (b) The product is homogeneous
- (c) The process is standardized
- (d) Output of one process become raw material of another process
- (e) The output of the last process is transferred to finished stock
- (f) Costs are collected process-wise
- (g) Both direct and indirect costs are accumulated in each process

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- (h) If there is a stock of semi-finished goods, it is expressed in terms of equivalent units
- (i) The total cost of each process is divided by the normal output of that process to find out cost per unit of that process.

General Principles

Following general principles are followed for cost determination under Processes Costing

- (a)The production activities of the factory are classified by processes or departments. Each process or department includes a number of operations, none of which is separately measurable and each of which completes a distinct stage in the manufacture of the product. The boundaries of the process are determined by (i)jurisdiction or supervision, (ii) similarity of work performed, (iii) physical location of men and machines in the plant.
- (b) All direct and indirect cost of a particular period are classified by processes. Each process account is debited with the amount of direct material, and labour and with a proportionate part of overhead expenses.
 - (c) Production in terms of physical quantities is recorded in respective process accounts.
- (d) The total cost of each process is divided by the total production of the process and average cost per unit for the period is obtained.
- (e) When products are processed in more than one department, costs of one department are transferred to the next department as initial costs. The total cost and cost per unit is thus determined by cumulating costs of different departments.
- (f) In case of loss or spoilage of units in a department, the loss is borne by the units produced in that department. Thus the average cost per unit is increased.

Advantages of process costing:

- 1. Costs are be computed periodically at the end of a particular period
- 2. It is simple and involves less clerical work that job costing

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- 3. It is easy to allocate the expenses to processes in order to have accurate costs.
- 4. Use of standard costing systems in very effective in process costing situations.
- 5. Process costing helps in preparation of tender, quotations
- 6. Since cost data is available for each process, operation and department, good managerial control is possible.

Limitations:

- 1. Cost obtained at each process is only historical cost and are not very useful for effective control.
- 2. Process costing is based on average cost method, which is not that suitable for performance analysis, evaluation and managerial control.
- 3. Work-in-progress is generally done on estimated basis which leads to inaccuracy in total cost calculations.
- 4. The computation of average cost is more difficult in those cases where more than one type of products is manufactured and a division of the cost element is necessary.
- 5. Where different products arise in the same process and common costs are prorated to various costs units. Such individual products costs may be taken as only approximation and hence not reliable.

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Steps to approach process accounting problems

Step 1: Draw up a T account for the process account. (There may be more than one process, but start with the first one initially.) Fill in the information given in the question.

	Units	\$		Units	\$
Opening WIP	X	X	Normal loss	X	X
Materials		X	Transfer to		
			Process 2 or	X	X
			Finished goods		
Labour		X	Abnormal loss	X	X
Overheads		X	Closing WIP	X	X
Abnormal gain	X	X			

- **Step 2**: Calculate the normal loss in units and enter on to the Process account. (The value will be zero unless there is a scrap value.
- **Step 3:** Calculate the abnormal loss or gain (there won't be both). Enter the figure on to the Process account and open a T account for the abnormal loss or gain.
- **Step 4**: Calculate the scrap value (if any) and enter it on to the Process account. Open a T account for the scrap and debit it with the scrap value.
- **Step 5:** Calculate the equivalent units and cost per unit.
- **Step 6**: Repeat the above if there is a second process.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN JOB COSTING AND PROCESS COSTING

Job order costing and process costing are two different systems. Both the systems are used for cost calculation and attachment of cost to each unit completed, but both the systems are suitable in different situations. The basic difference between job costing and process costing are

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	Basis of Distinction	Job order costing	Process costing
1.	Specific order	Performed against specific orders	Production is contentious
2.	Nature	Each job many be different.	Product is homogeneous and standardized.
3.	Cost determination	Cost is determined for each job separately.	Costs are complied for each process for department on time basis i.e. for a given accounting period.
4.	Cost calculations	Cost is complied when a job is completed.	Cost is calculated at the end of the cost period.
5.	Control	Proper control is comparatively difficult as each product unit is different and the production is not continuous.	comparatively easier as the production is
6.	Transfer	transfer from one job	The output of one process is transferred to another process as input.

COSTING PROCEDURE

For each process an individual process account is prepared. Each process of production is treated as a distinct cost centre.

Items on the Debit side of Process A/c.

Each process account is debited with:

- a) Cost of materials used in that process.
- b) Cost of labour incurred in that process.

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- c) Direct expenses incurred in that process.
- d) Overheads charged to that process on some pre determined.
- e) Cost of ratification of normal defectives.
- f) Cost of abnormal gain (if any arises in that process)

Items on the Credit side:

Each process account is credited with

- a) Scrap value of Normal Loss (if any) occurs in that process.
- b) Cost of Abnormal Loss (if any occurs in that process)

Cost of Process:

The cost of the output of the process (Total Cost less Sales value of scrap) is transferred to the next process. The cost of each process is thus made up to cost brought forward from the previous process and net cost of material, labour and overhead added in that process after reducing the sales value of scrap. The net cost of the finished process is transferred to the finished goods account. The net cost is divided by the number of units produced to determine the average cost per unit in that process. Specimen of Process

Account when there are normal loss and abnormal losses.

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Dr. Process I A/c.				Cr.	
Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Basic Material	XXX	XX	By Normal Loss	XX	XX
To Direct Material		XX	By Abnormal Loss	XX	XX
To Direct Wages		XX	By Process II A/c.	XX	XX
To Direct Expenses		XX	(output transferred to		
ToProduction Overheads		XX	Next process)		
ToCost of Rectification of Normal Defects		XX	By Process I Stock A/c.	XX	XX
To Abnormal Gains		XX			
	XX	XXX		XX	XX

Process Losses:

In many process, some loss is inevitable. Certain production techniques are of such a nature that some loss is inherent to the production. Wastages of material, evaporation of material is un avoidable in some process. But sometimes the Losses are also occurring due to negligence of Labourer, poor quality raw material, poor technology etc. These are normally called as avoidable losses. Basically process losses are classified into two categories

- (a) Normal Loss
- (b) Abnormal Loss

1. Normal Loss:

Normal loss is an unavoidable loss which occurs due to the inherent nature of the materials and production process under normal conditions. It is normally estimated on the basis of past experience of the industry. It may be in the form of normal wastage,

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normal scrap, normal spoilage, and normal defectiveness. It may occur at any time of the process. No of units of normal loss: Input x Expected percentage of Normal Loss.

The cost of normal loss is a process. If the normal loss units can be sold as a crap then the sale value is credited with process account. If some rectification is required before the sale of the normal loss, then debit that cost in the process account. After adjusting the normal loss the cost per unit is calculates with the help of the following formula:

Cost of good unit:

Total cost increased - Sale Value of Scrap Input - Normal Loss units

2. Abnormal Loss:

Any loss caused by unexpected abnormal conditions such as plant breakdown, substandard material, carelessness, accident etc. such losses are in excess of pre-determined normal losses. This loss is basically avoidable. Thus abnormal losses arrive when actual losses are more than expected losses. The units of abnormal losses in calculated as under:

Abnormal Losses = Actual Loss – Normal Loss

The value of abnormal loss is done with the help of following formula:

Value of Abnormal Loss:

Total Cost increase - Scrap Value of normal Loss x Units of abnormal loss Input units - Normal Loss Units

Abnormal Process loss should not be allowed to affect the cost of production as it is caused by abnormal (or) unexpected conditions. Such loss representing the cost of materials, labour and overhead charges called abnormal loss account. The sales value of

the abnormal loss is credited to Abnormal Loss Account and the balance is written off to costing P & L A/c.

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Dr. Abnormal Loss A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process A/c.	XX	XX	By Bank	XX	XX
			By Costing P & L A/c.	XX	XX
	XX	XXX		XX	XX

3. Abnormal Gains:

The margin allowed for normal loss is an estimate (i.e. on the basis of expectation in process industries in normal conditions) and slight differences are bound to occur between the actual output of a process and that anticipates. This difference may be positive or negative. If it is negative it is called ad abnormal Loss and if it is positive it is Abnormal gain i.e. if the actual loss is less than the normal loss then it is called as abnormal gain. The value of the abnormal gain calculated in the similar manner of abnormal loss.

The formula used for abnormal gain is:

<u>Total Cost incurred – Scrap Value of Normal Loss</u> x Abnormal Gain Unites Input units – Normal Loss Units

The sales values of abnormal gain units are transferred to Normal Loss Account since it arrive out of the savings of Normal Loss. The difference is transferred to Costing P & L A/c. as a Real Gain.

Dr. Abnormal Gain A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Normal Loss A/c.	XX	XX	By Process A/c.	XX	XX
To Costing P & L A/c.	XX	XX			

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Problem1: (Normal / Abnormal Loss)

Prepare a Process Account, Abnormal Loss Account and Normal Loss Account from the following information.

Input of Raw material	1000 units @ Rs. 20 per
	unit
Direct Material	Rs. 4,200/-
Direct Wages	Rs. 6,000/-
Production Overheads	Rs. 6,000/-
Actual output transferred to process II	900 units
Normal Loss	5%
Value of Scrap per unit	Rs. 8/-

Solution:

Dr. Process – I A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
ToRawmaterial @ 20	1000	20000	By Normal Loss		
To Direct Material		4200	(5% on 1000)	50	400
To Direct Wages		6000	By Abnormal Loss A/c.	50	
To Production			BY Process – II A/c.		
Overheads		6000	(output	900	
	1000	36200	transferred)	1000	36200

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Dr. Abnormal Loss A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process – I A/c.	50		By Bank A/c.	50	400
			By Costing P & L A/c.		
	50			50	400

Dr. Normal Loss A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process – I A/c.	50	400	BY Bank	50	400
7.6.					

Working notes:

- (1) Cost of abnormal Loss:
 - Total Cost increased Sales value of Scrap x abnormal units Input units – Normal Loss Units

(2) It has been assumed that units of abnormal loss have also been sold at the same rate i.e. of Normal Scrap

Problem 2: (Normal / Abnormal Loss and Abnormal Gain)

The product of a company passes through 3 distinct process. The following information is obtained from the accounts for the month ending January 31, 2008.

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Particulars	Process – A	Process – B	Process – C
Direct Material	7800	5940	8886
Direct Wages	6000	9000	12000
Production Overheads	6000	9000	12000

3000 units @ Rs. 3 each were introduced to process – I. There was no stock of materials or work in progress. The output of each process passes directly to the next process and finally to finished stock A/c.

The following additional data is obtained:

Process	Output	Percentage of Normal Loss to Input	Value of Scrap per unit (Rs.)
Process – I	2850	5 %	2
Process – II	2520	10 %	4
Process – III	2250	15 %	5

Prepare Process Cost Account, Normal Cost Account and Abnormal Gain or Loss Account.

Solution:



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Dr. Process – A A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Units	3000	9000	By Normal Loss	150	300
introduced			A/c.		
To Direct		7800	By Process - B	2850	28500
Material			A/c.		
To Direct Wages		6000	(Units		
			transferred		
To Production			@ Rs. 10/-)		
Overheads		6000			
	3000	28800		3000	28800

Dr. Process – B A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process - I	2850	28500	By Normal Loss	285	1140
A/c.			A/c.		
To Direct		5940	By Abnormal	45	9000
Material			Loss A/c.		
To Direct Wages		9000	By Process - C	2520	50400
•			A/c.		
To Production					
Overheads		9000			
	2850	52440		2850	52440

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Dr. Process – C A/c.

Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process – II A/c.	2520	50400	By Normal Loss A/c.	378	1890
To Direct Material A/c		8886	By Finished Stock A/c.	2250	85500
To Direct Wages		12000			
To Production					
Overheads		12000			
To Abnormal Gain A/c.	108	4104			
	2628	87390		2628	87390



Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Normal Loss	108	540	By Process - C	108	4104
A/c.			A/c.		
To Costing P&L		3564			
A/c.					
	108	4104		108	4104

Dr. Normal Loss A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Units	Rs.	Particulars	Units	Rs.
To Process – A A/c.	150	300	By Bank A/c. (Sales)		
To Process – B A/c.	285	1140	Process – A A/c.	150	300
To Process – C A/c.	378	1890	Process – B A/c.	285	1140
			Process – C A/c.	270	1350
			By Abnormal Gain A/c.	108	540
	813	3330		813	3330

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INTER PROCESS PROFITS:

Normally the output of one process is transferred to another process at cost but sometimes at a price showing a profit to the transfer process. The transfer price may be made at a price corresponding to current wholesale market price or at cost plus an agreed percentage.

The advantage of the method is to find out whether the particular process is making profit (or) loss. This will help the management whether to process the product or to buy the product from the market. If the transfer price is higher than the cost price then the process account will show a profit. The complexity brought into the accounting arises from the fact that the inter process profits introduced remain a part of the prices of process stocks, finished stocks and work-in-progress.

The balance cannot show the stock with profit. To avoid the complication a provision must be created to reduce the stock at actual cost prices. This problem arises only in respect of stock on hand at the end of the period because goods sold must have realized the internal profits. The unrealized profit in the closing stock is eliminated by creating a stock reserve. The amount of stock reserve is calculated by the following formula.

Stock Reserve = Transfer Value of stock x Profit included in transfer price

Transfer Price

Problem 3:

A product passes through three processes before its completion. The output of each process s charged to the next process at a price calculated to give a profit of 20% on transfer price. The output of Process III is transferred to finished stock account on a similar basis. There was no work-in-progress at the beginning of the years. Stock in each process has been valued at prime cost of the process. The following data is available at the end of 31st March, 2009

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	Process I	Process II	Process III	Finished Stock Rs.
Direct Material	20000	30000	10000	
Direct Wages	30000	20000	40000	
Stock on 31 st March 2009	10000	20000	30000	15000
Sale during the year		-		180000

- 1. Process Cost Account showing the profit at each stage.
- 2. Actual realized profit and
- 3. Stock Valuation as would appear in the balance sheet

Solution:

Dr. Process – I A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.	Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.
To Materials	20000	20000	-	By Process IIA/c. (Transfer)	50000	40000	10000
To Wages	30000	30000					
Total	50000	50000					
Les Closing							
Stock c/d	10000	10000					
Prime Cost	40000	40000					
To Gross							
Profit	10000		10000				
(20% on							
Transfer							
Price)	50000	40000	10000		50000	40000	10000
ToStockB/d.	10000	10000					

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Dr. Process – II A/c. Cr.

Particulars	Total	Cost	Profit	Particulars	Total	Cost	Profit
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	-	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
To Process	50000	40000	10000	Ву			
– I A/c.				Process-III			
				A/c.	100000	72000	28000
To Material	30000	30000		(Transfer)			
To Wages	20000	20000					
	100000	90000	10000				
Less : Closing							
Stock C/d.	20000	18000	2000				
Prime Cost	80000	72000	8000				
To Gross Profit							
(20% on							
Transfer Price)	20000		20000				
	100000	72000	28000		100000	72000	28000
To Stock	20000	18000	2000				

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Process III A/c

Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.	Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.
ToprocessII	100000	72000	28000	ByFinished	150000	97600	52400
A/c				stock A/c			
To Material	10000	10000					
To Wages	40000	40000					
TOTAL	150000	122000	28000				
Less.Closing							
stock	30000	24400	5600				
	120000	97600	22400				
(20%of transfer	30000		30000				
p	150000	97600	52400		150000	97600	52400
To Stock h/d					100000	3,000	02400
`		97600 97600 24000			150000	97600	5:

Finished stock A/c

Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.	Particulars	Total Rs.	Cost Rs.	Profit Rs.
To process	115000	97600	52400	By Sales	180000	87840	92160
(-)Stock To gross profit	15000 135000	9760 87840	5240 92160				
	45000	07040	45000		100000	07040	02460
To Stock A/c	180000 15000	9760	92160 5240		180000	87840	92160

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Calculation of profit on closing stock

Profit included in stock = Profit included in transfer price x Value of stock

Transfer price

Process I = No profit

Process li =10000x20000=2000

100000

Process Iii = <u>28000</u>x30000=5600 150000

Finished stock= <u>52400</u>x15000=5240 150000



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POSSIBLE QUESTIONS PART A (ONE MARKS – ONLINE EXAMINATION) PART B (2 MARKS)

- 1.Define Process Costing
- 2. What is 'Normal Process Loss'?
- 3. Define the term contract costing'.
- 4. What are joint-products?
- 5.Define the term inter-process profit.
- 6. What is meant by equivalent production?
- 7. What is 'Abnormal Process Loss'?
- 8. What is 'Job Costing'?
- 9. What is 'Abnormal Gains'
- 10. How to compute the reserve for unrealized profits?

PART - B (5X6=30 MARKS)

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

1. A Particular brand of phenyl passed through three important processes. During the week ended 15th January, 1200 gross bottles were produced. The cost book shows the following information :

Particulars	Process A (Rs.)	Process B (Rs.)	Process C (Rs.)
Materials	8,000	4,000	3,000
Labour	6,000	5,000	4,600
Direct Expenses	12,000	400	1000
Cost of Bottles	Nil	4,060	Nil
Cost of Corks	Nil	Nil	650

The indirect expenses for the period were Rs. 3,200

The by – products were sold for Rs. 480 (Process B)

The residue was sold for Rs. 251(Process C)

Prepare the account in respect of each of the process, showing its cost and cost of production of the finished product per gross bottles.

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2. From the information, find the profit made by each product, appropriating joint-costs on the sale-value basis

Joint – Cost :		Rs.
Direct Materials	1	,26,000
Power		25,000
Petrol, Oil, Lubricants		5,000
Labour		7,500
Other Charges		4,100
	D 1 4 T	D.

	Product L	Product M
Selling Costs	Rs. 20,000	Rs. 80,000
Sales	Rs. 1,52,000	Rs. 1,68,000

3. The product of a company passes through three distinct process. The following information is obtained from the accounts for the month ending January 31, 2016.

Particulars	Process – A	Process – B	Process – C
Direct Material	7800	5940	8886
Direct Wages	6000	9000	12000
Production Overheads	6000	9000	12000

3000 units @ Rs.3 each were introduced to process – I. There was no stock of materials or work in progress. The output of each process passes directly to the next process and finally to finished stock A/c.

The following additional data is obtained:

Process	Output	Percentage of Normal Loss to Input	Value of Scrap per Unit (Rs.)
Process – I	2,850	5 %	2
Process – II	2,520	10 %	4
Process – III	2,250	15 %	5

Prepare Process Cost Account and Abnormal Gain or Loss Account.

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4. From the following information given to you, prepare process B Account: 2,000 units are transferred to Process B @ Rs. 4 per unit. Other details relating to the process are:

	Rs.
Materials	4,000
Labour	1,000
Overhead	700

The normal loss has been estimated @ 10 % of the process input. Units representing normal loss can be sold @ Re. 1.00 per unit. Actual production in the process is 1,900 units. Output of Process B transferred to finished stock Account.

5. A product passes through two distinct processes, A and B and thereafter to finished stock. From the following information, you are required to prepare Process Cost Account

	Process A	Process B
Materials Consumed	Rs. 12,000	Rs. 6,000
Direct Labour	Rs. 14,000	Rs. 8,000
Manufacturing expenses	Rs. 4,000	Rs. 4,000
Input in Process 'A' (units)	10,000	
Input in Process 'A' (Value)	Rs. 10,000	-
Output (units)	9,400	units 8,300
Normal Wastage	5 %	10 %
Value of Normal Wastage (per 100	0 units) Rs. 8	Rs. 10

6. Prepare a Process Account, Normal Loss Account and Abnormal Loss Account from the following information.

Input of Raw material	1000 units @ Rs. 20 per
	unit
Direct Material	Rs. 4,200/-
Direct Wages	Rs. 4,200/- Rs. 6,000/-
Production Overheads	Rs. 6,000/-
Actual output transferred to process II	900 units
Normal Loss	5%
Value of Scrap per unit	Rs. 8/-

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7. Product A is obtained after it passes through three distinct processes. 2,000 kgs. Of material at Rs.5 per Kg. were issued to the process I. Direct wages amounted to Rs.900 and production overhead incurred was Rs.500. Normal loss is estimated at 10 % of input. This wastage is sold at Rs.3 per kg. the actual output is 1,850 kgs.

Prepare Process I Account and the Abnormal Gain or Abnormal Loss Account as the case may be.

8. From the following information given to you, prepare process B Account: 2,000 units are transferred to Process B @ Rs. 4 per unit. Other details relating to the process are:

	Ks.
Materials	4,000
Labour	1,000
Overhead	700

The normal loss has been estimated @ 10 % of the process input. Units representing normal loss can be sold @ Re. 1.00 per unit. Actual production in the process is 1,900 units. Output of Process B transferred to finished stock Account.

9. From the information, find the profit made by each product, appropriating joint-costs on the sale-value basis

Joint - Cost:		RS.		
Direct Materials	1,	26,000		
Power		25,000		
Petrol, Oil, Lubricants		5,000		
Labour		7,500		
Other Charges	4,100			
	Product L	Product M		
Selling Costs	Rs. 20,000	Rs. 80,000		
Sales	Rs. 1,52,000	Rs. 1,68,000		

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10. A Particular brand of phenyl passed through three important processes. During the week ended 15th January, 600 gross bottles were produced. The cost book shows the following information:

Particulars	Process A	Process B	Process C	
	(Rs.)	(Rs.)	(Rs.)	
Materials	4,000	2,000	1,500	
Labour	3,000	2,500	2,300	
Direct Expenses	6,000	200	500	
Cost of Bottles	Nil	2,030	Nil	
Cost of Corks	Nil	Nil	325	

The indirect expenses for the period were Rs. 1,600

The by – products were sold for Rs. 240 (Process B)

The residue was sold for Rs. 125.50 (Process C)

Prepare the account in respect of each of the process, showing its cost and cost of production of the finished product per gross bottles.



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Department of Commerce

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING (17CCP201)

Multiple Choice Questions - Online Examination

UNIT - IV

			UN11 - 1V		
Question	Option - I	Option - II	Option - III	Option - IV	Answer
is a method of costing					
to findout the cost of a product at a					
each stage or process of production	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Process costing
there are certain industries where the					
passes through the					
different stages of a product	Goods	Product	Raw material	Sales	Raw material
process cosing is used to find out					
of the product at the					
end of each stage	Cost	Income	Unit costing	Income	Cost
11 . 10 . 1					
are collected for each					
process and debited to the process	0 1 1	D: .	D: (1.1	T 1'	
account	Overhead	Direct wages	Direct labour	Indirect wages	Overheads
is arrived by dividing					
the total process cost by the number		Product			
of units produced	Taotal cost	expenses	Cost per unit	sales cost	Cost per unit
or units produced	1 40141 0051	expenses	Cost per unit	54105 0051	Cost per unit
cost of the finished					
product is the sum of all costs		Product			
incurred in all the process	Taotal cost	expenses	Cost per unit	sales cost	Total Cost

		T	T		1
costing the production					
is carried on in anticipation of demand	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Process costing
costing the costs arecomputed periodcally for each process	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Process costing
are transferred from one process to another process	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Process costing
costing the paper work is compartively less	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Process costing
loss refers to the loss which is unavoidble in a manufacturing process	Normal	Abnormal	Controllable	Un controllable	Normal
value of normal loss units in credited to process account	Usable	Realisble	Unusable	controllable	Realisble
The cost of normal loss is treted as a part of	Sales value	Cost of production	Cost of sales	cost per unit	Cost of production
loss refers to the avoidabe loss	Abnormal Loss	Normal Loss	Avoidable Loss	Unavoidable loss	-

can be estimated in			Avoidable		
advance	Abnormal Loss	Normal Loss	Loss	Unavoidable loss	Abnormal Loss
Abnormal loss arises when the actual					
loss is more thanthe			Avoidable		
losss	Abnormal Loss	Normal Loss	Loss	Expected Loss	Expected Loss
				1	1
The cost abnormal loss is not included		Cost of			
in the	Sales value	production	Cost of sales	cost per unit	Cost of production
gain arises when the					
actual output is higher than the			Expected		
expected normal output	Normal Gain	Abnormal Gain	Gain	Less Gain	Abnormal Gain
abnormal gain is treated on					
of cost of					
production	usable	recovery	wastage	useful	recovery
inter process profit is the difference					
betweentransfer price and			abnormal		
	unit price	cost price	price	normal price	Unit price
is the production					
carried on against specific orders from					
customers	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	job costing
accumulated for each					
job	cost	price	unit	sales	Cost

cost are not transferred except when there is production	low	high	surplus	defecit	surplus
process costing facilitates correct	value of stock	high	surplus	defecit	value of stock
process costing is based oncost	Future cost	historical cost	estimate cost	prime cost	historical cost
job costing is a method of cost of an individual job	Cost allotment	ascertainment of cost	allocation of cost	classification of	ascertainment of cost
each job is treated as a cost unit for which costs are	ascertined	accumulated	collected	changed	accumulated
job costing shows the cost and of each job	profit& losss	profit	loss	revenue cost	profit
method of costing adopted in printing press	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	job costing
job costing is also known as	terminal costing	Job costing	Unit costing		terminal costing

	Dun a a sa a sa atiu a	Inh anding	I Init anatina	Contract continu	ich costina
Specific order costing is also known as	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Job costing
In costing the production is		T 1	**		
always against the customer order	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	job costing
l					
the cost data provided by job costing					
helps in	Decision making	Planning	Cost control	cost Reduction	Planning
cost reordered under job costing help					
in preparation of	Report	Budget	Cost Data	Selling Price	Budget
Each treated as a cost					
unit	unit price	process	Contract	Unit	Contract
Contracts are generally of a					
duration	Long	Short	medium	very long	Long
costing is mainly					
adopted in construction of bridges	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	process costing
		j			
the number of contract undertaken are					
usually	High	Small	Medium	Very Low	Small

	T	_		1	
The price is paid in installments depending on the process of work	Process costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Contract Costing
Contract costing is a form of costing	Specific order costing	Job costing	Unit costing	Contract costing	Specific order costing
a seprate account is prepared for each contract	Contract	Unit	Job	Specific Order	Contract
cost usually constitute a major portion of the total cost of the contract	Direct	Indirect	Fixed	Variable	Direct
cost usually constitue a small portion of the total cost of contract	Direct	Indirect	Fixed	Variable	In direct
The direct labour cost incurred on the contract is to the contract account	Debited	Credited	Enetered	Fixed	Debited
the direct expenses incurred for the contract is also to the contract account	Debited	Credited	Enetered	Fixed	Debited
which cannot be directly charged to contract	Dircet expenses	Indirect Expenses	Fixed Expenses	Variable Expenses	Indirect Expenses

contracts take a long					
time for completion and require huge					
investments	Large	Small	Medium	Very High	Large
money is paid to the					
contractor after the expiry of a					
stipulate time	usable	recovery	wastage	useful	recovery
is treated as a reserve	Notional profit	recovery	wastage	useful	Notional Profit
The Contract Costing price is paid in					
installments depending on the	D	T 1	T		n
of work	Process	Job	Unit	Costing	Process
is a contract in which					
the contractee agrees to pay the cost			D		
of work done plus a percenatge of it	Cost costs	Essistian slaves	Retention	Unit Contract	Cost Loomtwoot
towards profit	Cost + contract	Esclation clause	money	Unit Contract	Cost + contract
in which contract					
contracts is assure a fixed percentage			Retention		
of profit	Cost + contract	Esclation clause		Unit Contract	Cost + contract
F					
is clause in contract			Retention		
agreement	Cost + contract	Esclation clause	money	Unit Contract	Esclation clause
product refers to the					
secondary product obtained during the					
course of manufacturing the main					
product	Substitute	Joint	By product	Related product	By product

value of closing stock					
of is considerd as zero					
for the purpose of balance sheet	Substitute	Joint	By product	Related product	By product
expenses are	Selling&			Raw material	
incurrd for setting the by products	distribution	Production	purchase	expenses	Selling& distribution
method by products	Replacement	Standard Cost	Apportionmen		
are valued at the current market price	method	method	t Method	Method	Replacemant Method
method by products	Replacement	Standard Cost	Apportionmen		
are valued at standard cost	method	method	t Method	Method	Standard cost
products refers two or					
more products of equal importance					
which are produced from same raw					
material	Substitute	Joint	By product	Related product	Joint Product
has its own price and					
market utility	Substitute	Joint	By product	Related product	Joint Product

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UNIT-V

SYLLABUS

Activity Based Costing: Meaning and Methodology of Activity Based Costing (ABC Analysis)-Merits, Demerits and Suitability of Activity Based Costing-Implementation of Activity Based Costing- Draw Back of Conventional Costing - Target costing: Meaning-Characteristics-Principles-Implementation of Target Costing-Installation of Target Costing-Target Costing Vs. Traditional Costing- Life Cycle Costing-Meaning-Definition-Applications of LCC -Importance-Process of LCC.

ACTIVITY-BASED COSTING

Activity Based Costing (ABC) is a costing method that is designed to provide managers with cost information for strategic and other decisions that potentially affect capacity and therefore "fixed cost".

Activity based costing system is used to determine product costs for special management reports. This system is ordinarily used as a supplement to the company's usual costing system. Most organizations that use ABC system have two costing systems - the official costing system that is used for preparing external financial reports and the activity based costing system that is used for internal decision making and for managing activities.

In traditional cost accounting systems, the objective is to value inventories and cost of goods sold for external financial reports in accordance with the generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP). In activity based costing (ABC) system the objective is to understand overhead and the profitability of products and customers and to manage overhead. As a consequence of these differences in objectives, "best practice" activity based costing system differs in a number of ways from traditional cost accounting.

In activity based costing:

- 1. Non-manufacturing as well as manufacturing costs may be assigned to products.
- 2. Some manufacturing costs may be excluded from product costs.

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- 3. A number of overhead cost pools are used, each of which is allocated to products and other costing objects using its own unique measure of activity.
- 4. The allocation bases often differ from those used in traditional costing system.
- 5. The overhead rates or activity rates may be based on the level of activity at capacity rather than on the budgeted level of activity.

These differences from traditional cost accounting systems can dramatically impact the apparent costs of products and the profitability of products and customers.

Activity-based costing (ABC) is a costing methodology that identifies activities in an organization and assigns the cost of each activity with resources to all products and services according to the actual consumption by each. Activity-based costing differs from traditional costing systems in a number of ways. In activity-based costing, nonmanufacturing as well as manufacturing costs may be assigned to products. And, some manufacturing costs—including the costs of idle capacity—may be excluded from product costs. An activity-based costing system typically includes a number of activity cost pools, each of which has its unique measure of activity. These measures of activity often differ from the allocation bases used in traditional costing systems.

In activity-based costing, costs must first be allocated to activity cost pools and then they are allocated from the activity cost pools to products, customers, and other cost objects.

Life cycle costing is a technique which takes account of the total cost of owning a physical asset, or making a product, during its economic life. It includes the costs associated with acquiring, using, caring for and disposing of physical assets, including the feasibility studies, research, design, development, production, maintenance, replacement and disposal, as well as support, training and operating costs generated by the acquisition, use, maintenance and replacement of permanent physical assets.

Features or Characteristics of Activity Based Costing

The features or characteristics of Activity Based Costing are briefly explained below.

- 1. The total cost is divided into two types i.e. fixed cost and variable cost which is necessary to provide quality information to design a suitable cost system in a manufacturing concern.
- 2. The proper distinction is made between the cost behavior patterns.

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- 3. The cost behavior patterns are volume related, diversity related, events related and time related.
- 4. The appropriate cost driver has to be identified for tracing the overhead to a product.
- 5. The cost drivers dictate the cost behavior pattern.

Weaknesses of Traditional Cost Accounting System

Providing inaccurate costing information leads to taking of wrong decisions by the top management if used for control purposes or for fixing selling prices or sending quotations. Moreover, the allocation of indirect costs do not truly reflect the resources consumed by the end products. In this way, weaknesses of traditional cost accounting system are briefly explained below.

- 1. Overhead recovery rates such as machine hour rate, labor hour rate etc. are used for absorption of indirect costs i.e. overhead. These are highly suitable for the valuation of closing stock and reporting the same to the top management as accounting information. But, this is not useful for taking decisions since the decisions have implications over 3 to 5 years. Moreover, some fixed costs are variable in the long run.
- 2. The splitting of cost into fixed and variable is often unrealistic. The reason is that the splitting of cost gives inaccurate costs of products if business grows.
- 3. Some companies are manufacturing and selling more than single product. In such a case, these companies are forced to take decision on pricing, product mix, advertisement, sales promotion campaign, process technology etc. based on the approximate cost information. This is due to difficulty in collection, classification, allocation and recovery of overheads to individual products accurately.
- 4. In the modern technology developed business world, most of the labor work is done through automation i.e. mechanization of manual work. If so, automatically the direct costs are reduced and indirect costs are increased. In this way, cost structure of a product is changed if automation is taking place in any products.
- 5. The indirect costs are allocated and reallocated at product level only after manufacturing of a product. At work in progress stage, the allocation of indirect costs is made in an arbitrary manner. Under new manufacturing technology, there is a need of the degree of completion of

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work with accurate indirect costs incurred. This is not possible under traditional cost accounting system.

In order to overcome these weakness and short term bias of marginal costing, Activity Based Costing (ABC) has been emerged.

Implementation of Activity Based Costing

The following steps are involved in implementing Activity Based Costing to achieve the desired results.

- 1. Identify the functional areas of organization.
- 2. Identify the main activities of each functional areas.
- 3. Allocate common indirect costs to each functional areas on suitable basis.
- 4. Identify the most suitable cost driver in each activity under functional areas.
- 5. Preparing the statement of expenditure on activity wise.
- 6. Compare this statement with the value addition activity wise.
- 7. Find the activities which are to be eliminated or improved for better performance of the organization.

Meaning of Target Cost

Target cost means an estimation of total cost to win in the competition in terms of quality, cost and productivity. It is not a method or technique of costing. But, it is a management technique used to survive under the increasing competitive environment.

Features of Target Costing

The main features of target costing are presented below.

- 1. It is a part of management process used for the cost reduction and cost management.
- 2. It gives much importance to customers views, market conditions and profitability.
- 3. It is considered as an integral part of product design and introduction of new product.
- 4. It emphasized the earning of at least target profit margin from each product at any cost.
- 5. Under the target costing process, the target selling price is fixed on the basis of various sales forecasting techniques.
- 6. The fixing of selling price is based on the fixing of target production volumes since there is a relationship between price and volume.
- 7. The required profit margin is included in the target selling price.

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- 8. The product design specifications, quality and the customers requirements and expectations are taken into consideration while fixing target selling price.
- 9. The difference between the target selling price and required profit margin is the target cost.
- 10. The cost reduction programme is followed on the basis of the components of current cost of the product. The current cost is based on existing technologies.
- 11. The difference between current cost and target cost is the level of cost reduction.
- 12. Target cost is divided into various parts. Each part is properly studied for finding the opportunities connected with to know the extent of cost reduction possibilities.
- 13. The studying of each part is known as value engineering (VE) and value analysis (VA).
- 14. A team is constituted to integrate the activities like marketing, engineering, manufacturing purchasing and finance in order to achieve the objectives of target costing.

Meaning Life Cycle Costing

Life cycle costing is a system that tracks and accumulates the actual costs and revenues attributable to cost object from its invention to its abandonment. Life cycle costing involves tracing cost and revenues on a product by product base over several calendar periods.

Life Cycle Cost (LCC) of an item represents the total cost of its ownership, and includes all the cots that will be incurred during the life of the item to acquire it, operate it, support it and finally dispose it. Life Cycle Costing adds all the costs over their life period and enables an evaluation on a common basis for the specified period (usually discounted costs are used).

Stages in product life cycle:

There are five distinct stages in the life cycle of a product as follows:

Introduction stage – Research and engineering skill leads to product development. The product is put on the market and its awareness and acceptance are minimal. Promotional costs will be high, sales revenue low and profits probably negative. The skill that is exhibited in testing and launching the product will rank high in this phase as critical factor in securing success and initial market acceptance. Sales of new products usually rise slowly at first.

Growth Stage – In the growth stage product penetration into the market and sales will increase because of the cumulative effects of introductory promotion, distribution. Since costs will be lower than in the earlier stage, the product will start to make a profit contribution. Following the consumer acceptance in the launch stage it now becomes vital or secure

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wholesaler / retailer support. But to sustain growth, consumer satisfaction must be ensured at this stage. If the product is successful, growth usually accelerates at some point, often catching the innovator by surprise.

Maturity Stage – This stage begins after sales cease to rise exponentially. The causes of the declining percentage growth rate the market saturation – eventually most potential customers have tried the product and sales settle at a rate governed by population growth and the replacement rate of satisfied buyers. In addition there were no new distribution channels to fill. This is usually the longest stage in the cycle, and most existing products are in this stage. The period over which sales are maintained depends upon the firm's ability to stretch the cycle by means of market segmentation and finding new uses for it.

Saturation stage – As the market becomes saturated, pressure is exerted for a new product and sales along with profit begin to fall. Intensified marketing effort may prolong the period of maturity, but only by increasing costs disproportionately.

Declining Stage – Eventually most products and brands enter a period of declining sales. This may be caused by the following factors :

- Technical advances leading to product substitution
- Fashion and changing tastes
- Exogenous cost factors will reduce profitability until it reaches zero at which point the product's life is commercially complete.

Problem:

D ltd specializes in the manufacture of Computers. It is planning to introduce a new computer specially designed for children. Development of the new computer is to begin shortly and D ltd is in the process of preparing a product life cycle budget. It expects the new product to have a life cycle of 3 years and estimates the following costs:

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	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Units manufactured & Sold	50,000	200,000	150,000
Computers per batch	400	500	500
Price per computer	Rs 45	Rs 40	Rs 35
R & D Cost	Rs 9,00,000	Rs 1,00,000	
Production Cost :			
Variable Cost per unit	Rs 16	Rs 15	Rs 15
Variable Cost PER BATCH	Rs 700	Rs 600	Rs 600
Fixed Cost	Rs 6,00,000	Rs 6,00,000	Rs 6,00,000
Marketing Cost:			
Variable Cost PER UNIT	Rs 3.60	Rs 3.20	Rs 2.80
Fixed Cost	Rs 4,00,000	Rs 3,00,000	Rs 3,00,000
Distribution Cost :			
Units produced per batch	200	160	120
Variable Cost per unit	Rs 1	Rs 1	Rs 1
Variable Cost PER BATCH	Rs 120	Rs 120	Rs100
Fixed Cost	Rs 2,40,000	Rs 2,40,000	Rs 2,40,000
Customer service Cost PER UNIT	Rs 2	Rs 1.50	Rs 1.50

a. Calculate the budgeted life cycle operating profit for the new product.

Life Cycle Operating Profit

b. Explain how an organization would benefit from a product life cycle costing exercise.

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	Year 1 Rs '000	Year 2 Rs '000	Year 3 Rs '000	Total Rs
				'000
Sales	2,250	8,000	5,250	15,500
R & D Design	(900)	(100)		(1,000)
Production Cost				
Variable cost per unit	(800)	(3000)	(2,250)	(6,050)
Variable cost per batch	(87.5)	(240)	(180)	(507.5)
Fixed Cost	(600)	(600)	(600)	(1800)
Marketing Cost				
Variable Cost per unit	(180)	(640)	(420)	(1240)
Fixed Cost	(400)	(300)	(300)	(1000)
Distribution Cost				
Variable cost per unit	(50)	(200)	(150)	(400)
Variable cost per batch	(30)	(150)	(125)	(305)
Fixed Cost	(240)	(240)	(240)	(720)
Customer Service				
Costs per unit	(100)	(300)	(225)	(625)
Operating Profit	(1137.5)	2230	760	1852.5

b.A Life Cycle Costing exercise enables an organization to appraise the profitability over the whole life of the product rather than a period of time. Thus, products that are loss making initially but profitable in the longer term will be accepted.

Problem:

XYZ Ltd.having idle capacity received an offer to sell 2000 units of one of its product to a new customer in a geographic region not normally serviced by the company. The offering price is Rs.10 per unit. The product normally sells for Rs.14. The activity based accounting system provides the following information:

	Cost Driver	Unused	Quantity	Activity I	Rate (Rs)**
	V	Capacity	Demanded *	Fixed	Variable
Direct Materials	Units	0	2,000	_	3.00
Direct Labour	Direct Labour hours	0	400	_	7.00
Set-ups	Set-up hours	0	25	50.00	8.00
Machining	Machine hours	6,000	4,000	4.00	1.00

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- * This represents the amount of resources demanded by the special order being considered.
- ** Fixed activity rate is the price that must be paid per unit of activity capacity. The variable activity rate is the price per unit of resources for resources acquired as needed.

Although the fixed activity rate for set-ups is Rs.25 per hour, any expansion of this resource must be acquired in blocks. The unit of purchase for set-ups is 100 hours of set-up servicing. Thus, any expansion of set-up activity must be done 100 hours at a time. The price per hour is the fixed activity rate.

Required:

- (a) Compute the change in income for XYZ Ltd. if the order accepted. Comment on whether the order should be accepted or not (in particular, discuss the strategic issues).
- **(b)** Suppose that the set-up activity had 50 hours of unused capacity. How does this affect the analysis?

Solution (a)

Order to be accepted or not.

The relevant costs are those that change if the order is accepted. These costs would consist of the variable activity costs (resources acquired as needed) plus any cost of acquiring additional activity capacity (resources acquired in advance of usage). The income will change by the following amount :

Revenue (Rs. $10 \times 2,000$ units)	Rs. 20,000
Less: Increase in resource	
spending Direct materials (Rs. $3 \times$ Rs. $6,000$)
2000 units) 2,800)
Direct labour (Rs. 7×400 Direct labour hours)	
Setups (Rs. 50×100 hours) + (Rs. 8×25 hours) 5,200)
Machining (Rs. $1 \times 4,000$ machine hours) $\underline{4,000}$	18,000
Income change	Rs. 2,000

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Special orders need to be examined carefully before acceptance. The order offers an increase in income of Rs. 20,000, but it does require expansion of the setup activity capacity – perhaps a recurring annual commitment of Rs. 5,000 for the future, unless there is some certainty that such special orders will be forthcoming in future years as well.

The special order may be accepted, as the company is suffering from idle capacity.

Other strategic factors need to be considered. These include —

- Will this order affect any regular sales?
- Is the company looking for a permanent solution to its idle-capacity or are special orders becoming a habit-a response pattern that may eventually prove disastrous?
- Will acceptance adversely affect the company's normal distribution channels?
- Will it be an opportunity for the company to explore the new market for its other products?
- Can this be taken as the company's penetration pricing policy for the new market?
- Any reaction from competitors in the new market?

Solution (b)

The special order needs only 25 setup hours, whereas the company has 50 hours of excess setup capacity. In this case there will be no need for expansion of capacity with attendant increase in fixed costs. So, the total incomes will increase by Rs. 7,000 if the order is accepted.

Indo Gulf Fertilizers Ltd. supports the concept of the terotechnology or life cycle costing for new investment decisions covering its engineering activities.

The company is to replace a number of its machines and the Production Manager is to run between the "X" machine, a more expensive machine with a life of 12 years, and the "W" machine with an estimated life of 6 years. If the "W" machine chosen it is likely that it would be replaced at the end of 6 years by another "W" machine. The pattern of maintenance and running costs differs between the two types of machine and relevant data are shown below :(Rs.)

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Particulars	X	W
Purchase price	19,000	13,000
Trade-in-value	3,000	3,000
Annual repair costs	2,000	2,600
Overhead costs (in 8th & 4th year respectively)	4,000	2,000
Estimated financing costs averaged over machine life (p.a.)	10%	10%

You are required to recommend, with supporting figures, which machine to purchase, stating any assumptions made.

Solution

Machine X – Life 12 years

	Year	Cost	Discountcost	Discount
		(Rs.)	(Rs.)	ed
		factor		
Purchase price	0	19,000	1 .00	19,000
Overhead cost	8	4,000	0.47	1,880
Trade-in-value	12	(3,000)	0.32	(960)
Annual repair cost	1-12	2,000	6.81	13,620
				33,540

Annualized equivalent = Rs. 33,540/ 6.81 = Rs. 4,925

Machine W – Life 6 years

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	Year	Cost	Discount	Discounte
		(Rs.)	factor	d cost
				(Rs.)
Purchase price	0	13,000	1 .00	13,000
Overhead cost	4	2,000	0.68	1,360
Trade-in-value	6	(3,000)	0.56	(1,680)
Annual repair cost	1-6	2,600	4.36	11,336
				24,016

Annualised equivalent = Rs. 24,016/4.36 = Rs. 5,508.

Recommendation – Purchase Machine "X"

Assumptions:

- (a) Same performance, capacity and speed
- (b) No inflation
- (c) 12 year-estimates are as accurate as 6-years estimates
- (d) Cash flow at the year end.

Problem

A factory engaged in manufacturing plastic buckets is working at 40% capacity and produces 10,000 buckets per month. The present cost break-up for one bucket is as under :

Materials	Rs. 20
Labour	Rs. 6
Overheads	Rs. 10 (60% fixd)

The selling price is Rs. 40 per bucket. If it is decided to work the factory at 50% capacity, the selling price falls by 3%. At 90% capacity, the selling price falls by 5% accompanied by a similar fall in the price of materials.

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Capacity level	40%	50%	90
	Present		%
Production and sales (units)	10,000	12,500	22,500
Selling price (Rs.)	40.00	38.80	38.00
Sales (a)	4,00,000	4,85,000	8,55,000
Variable cost			
Materials @ Rs. 20 for 40% & 50%, @19 for 90%	2,00,000	2,50,000	4,27,500
Labour @ Rs. 6	60,000	75,000	1,35,000
Variable overheads (Rs. 10 ×40/100)	40,000	50,000	90,000
Total (b)	3,00,000	3,75,000	6,52,500
Contribution $(a) - (b)$	1,00,000	1,10,000	2,02,500
Less: Fixed overheads @ (Rs. 10×60/100×10,000 units)	60,000	60,000	60,000
Profit	40,000	50,000	1,42,500
Contribution per unit	10.00	8.80	9.00
Break even point (units) =	6,000	6,818	6,677

You

are

required to prepare a statement showing the profits at 50% and 90% capacities and also determine the break-even points at each of these production levels.

(b) What is target costing and what are the stages to the methodology?

Solution. (b)

Target costing is defined 'as a cost management tool for reducing the overall cost of a product over its entire life cycle with the help of the production, engineering, R&D.'

The target cost is the estimated cost of a product that enables a company to remain and compete in the market in the long run. The idea of target costing, originally promoted in Japan, is about going upstream to achieve cost reduction. Target costing is not really a method of costing, but it is a technique used in cost management. The intent of target costing is to reduce cost, where reduction is aimed at the entire life cycle

of any product. Target costing can also help in achieving certain broader objectives, such as, identifying and delivering various customer requirements in a product through effective management of different processes.

A firm's business plan and product market strategies provide the framework and basic guidelines for applying the target costing methodology. Specific steps involved in target

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costing may be summarized as follows:

- Determine customer wants precisely.
- Translate them into desired product performance feature.
- Estimate the proportion of value added by each feature and component.
- Choose a product design assures a targeted profit, and cost targets for each component in total.
- Choose manufacturing design that assure targeted costs.
- Choose suppliers that assure buying at targeted costs.
- After each cost review, conduct value engineering to reduce target costs.
- Monitor initial production to be sure that all product performance, cost, profit, targets are met.

POSSIBLE QUESTIONS

PART A (ONE MARKS – ONLINE EXAMINATION)

PART B (2 MARKS)

- 1. What is 'Activity Based Costing'?
- 2. Define Target costing.
- 3. What is Life Cycle Costing?
- 4. Write any two benefits of Life Cycle Costing.
- 5. Write any two benefits of Activity Based Costing.
- 6. Write any two Characteristics of Target Costing.
- 7. State the importance of Life Cycle Costing?
- 8. Write about the draw back of Conventional Costing.
- 9. State the principles of Target Costing.
- 10. State about any two demerits of Activity Based Costing.

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PART - B (5X6=30 MARKS) ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION

- 1. What is target costing and what are the stages to the methodology?
- 2. XYZ Ltd having idle capacity received an offer to sell 2000 units of one of its product to a new customer in a geographic region not normally serviced by the company.

The offering price is Rs.10 per unit. The product normally sells for Rs.14. The activity based accounting system provides the following information:

	Cost Driver	Unused	Quantity	Activity	Rate (Rs)
		Capacity	Demanded	Fixed	Variable
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Direct Labour	Direct Labour hours	0	400		7.00
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Machining	Machine hours	6,000	4,000	4.00	1.00

Although the fixed activity rate for set-ups is Rs.25 per hour, any expansion of this resource must be acquired in blocks. The unit of purchase for set-ups is 100 hours of set-up servicing. Thus, any expansion of set-up activity must be done 100 hours at a time. The price per hour is the fixed activity rate.

Compute the change in income for XYZ Ltd. if the order accepted. Comment on whether the order should be accepted or not.

- 3. What is life Cycle Costing? Explain the stages in product life cycle?
- 4. Indo Gulf Fertilizers Ltd. supports the concept of the life cycle costing for new investment decisions covering its engineering activities.

The company is to replace a number of its machines and the Production Manager is to run between the "X" machine, a more expensive machine with a life of 12 years, and the "W" machine with an estimated life of 6 years. If the "W" machine chosen it is likely that it would be replaced at the end of 6 years by another "W" machine. The pattern of maintenance and running costs differs between the two types of machine and relevant data are shown below:

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Particulars	X (Rs.)	W (Rs.)
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Estimated financing costs averaged over machine life (p.a.)	10%	10%

You are required to recommend, with supporting figures, which machine to purchase, stating any assumptions made.

- 5. What do you mean by activity-based costing? Give its advantages.
- 6. What is life Cycle Costing? Explain the stages in product life cycle?
- 7. What is target costing and what are the stages to the methodology?
- 8. Indo Gulf Fertilizers Ltd. supports the concept of the life cycle costing for new investment decisions covering its engineering activities.

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Estimated financing costs averaged over machine	10%	10%
life (p.a.)		

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- 9. What is life Cycle Costing? Explain the stages in product life cycle?
- 10. XYZ Ltd having idle capacity received an offer to sell 2000 units of one of its product to a new customer in a geographic region not normally serviced by the company. The

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Compute the change in income for XYZ Ltd. if the order accepted. Comment on whether the order should be accepted or not.



(Deemed to be University Established Under section 3 of the UGC Act, 1956), Coimbatore.

Department of Commerce

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING (17CCP201)

Multiple Choice Questions - Online Examination

UNIT - V

Question	Option - I	Option - II	Option - III	Option - IV	Answer
ABC is a method of allocating costs to-					
	Products	services	products services	none	products services
					Target
	Target	Target Price			Price—Target
Target Cost =	Price—Target profit	_	Target profit	none	profit
	total cost of				total cost of
Life cycle cost is the	ownership	management	Target Cost	none	ownership
wants to minimize capital		Maintenance	Reliability		Project
costs as the only criteria,	Project Engineering	Engineering	Engineering	none	Engineering
wants to minimize repair	Maintenance	Project	Maintenance	Reliability	Maintenance
<u> </u>				•	
hours as the only criteria	Engineering	Engineering	Engineering	Engineering	Engineering
Implementation of Activity Resed					
Implementation of Activity Based	D од охумо од	loogt	mma danata	a amri a a a	Возония
Costing	Resources	cost	products	services	Resources
					Company
ABC is applicable throughout	Company financing	costing	accounting	none	financing

ABC is a	Special costing model	costing model	product model	none	Special costing model
The is u	model		product moder	none	model
The value chain enablers	the supplier's	distributor's	service providers	all the above	all the above
product costs are irrelevant under	target costing	LCC	ABC	none	target costing
Excessive amount of scrap shows	efficiency	inefficiency	none of the above	scrap	none of the above
Target costing is defined as the	cost management tool	cost tool	management tool	none	cost management
Manufacturing costs are driven primarily by the characteristics of the	products	services	products and services	none	products
Target costing	Design and production stages	design stage	production stage	none	Design and production stages
Total life-cycle costs which includes	purchase price	operating costs	maintenance and distribution costs	all the above	all the above
Simple – estimates the relationship					
between the dependent variable and independent variable	One	two	one and two	none	One
Life Cycle Costing adds	All the costs of alternatives	one cost	three cost alternatives	none	All the costs of alternatives

					ī
Kaizen costing is the maintenance of present levels for	products	services	variable expenses	none	products
is clause in contract agreement	Cost + contract	Esclation clause	Retention money	Unit Contract	Esclation clause
if work completed of the contract price is taken to profit and loss account	one fourth	two fourth	three fourth	one fifth	one fourth
constructions of bridgs, theatres and hospitals takes a long time to complete	Large	small	medium	Very small	Large
operating costing is also called	Process	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Service Costing
is a method of costing applied to ascertain the cost of providing a service	Operating Costing	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Operating Costing
type of costing used in transport services	Operating Costing	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Operating Costing
Service rendered in the same oraganisation is known as	Internal Service	External Service	Both	Costing Service	Internal Service
percent is calculated by dividing the toatl cost by number of service units produced or renderd	Operating Costing	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Operating Costing
A proper cost unit must be selected in oredr to ascertain the unit of services	Cost	Demand	Sales	Supply	Cost

other name of service costing	Operating Costing	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Operating Costing
industries using costing do not produce goods but render					
service	Operating Costing	Job costing	Contract costing	Service costing	Operating Costing
service rendered to the customers is					
known as	Internal Service	External Service	Both	Costing Service	external service
Example sof external		Manufacttuting			
services	Hospital	industry	service outlet	distributors	Hospitals
In case only one		composite cost			
variable is taken	Simple cost unit	unit	Multiple cost unit	single cost unit	simple cost unit
in again mana than an a					
in case more than one variabke is combined	Composite costing	multiple costing	single unit costing	opertaing costing	composite costing
the basic problem in					
selection of cost unit costing is the	Composite costing	multiple costing	single unit costing	opertaing costing	Operating Costing
		1			
changes are incurred weather the vechicle is running or not	Standing Charges	operating charges	maintenance charges	variable charges	standing charges
weather the vectories is running or not	Standing Charges	operating energes	charges	variable charges	standing charges
in Standing charges variables are	Fig. 4	X7	C 1.1-	C1 1	Time d
in nature	Fixed	Variable	Semivariable	Changed	Fixed
is one of the					
example of standing charge	Rent	Salary	Fuel	Power	Rent

expenses			maintenance		
variable in nature	Standing Charges	operating charges	charges	variable charges	operting charges
is an example of operating charge	Pertol/ diesel	annual tax	Insurance	Rent	Petrol/Diesel
charges are semi variable in nature	Standing Charges	operating charges	maintenance charges	variable charges	maintenance charges
is an example of maintenance charge	Repairs	Depreciation	Wages	Annual Tax	Repairs
Garrage rent will occur in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Fixed Cost
Wages of operators will incurr in cost	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Operating Cost
Methodology of ABC focuses on in operational management	cost allocation	absorption	apportionment	Allocation	cost allocation
ABC helps to find unnecessary costs that may be	Eliminated	included	identify	fixing	Eliminated
Determine (work performed) that are supported by Resources	Activities	Resources	fixing	identify	Activities

LCC analysis can be used to assist management in the	Decision-making process	making process	Analysis	production	Decision-making process
Target costing, in both the	Design and production stages	Design stages	production stages	Process	Design and production stages
Depriciation will incur incost	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Operating Cost
tyres and tube cost will appear in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Maintenance cost
repair cost will appear in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Maintenance cost
Tax and insurance will occur in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Fixed Cost
general supervision will occur in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Fixed Cost
Painting Cost will appear in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Maintenance cost
Pertol, oil, grease Cost will incurr in	Fixed cost	Variable Cost	Maintenance Cost	Operating Cost	Operating Cost
costing is generally for long duartion	Job costing	Process costing	unit costing	Contract Costing	contract costing

the contract price is paid in depending on the					
process of work	monthly	annually	installments	quaterly	Installments
Each contract is treated as a unit	Cost	Sales	Purchase	Supply	Cost
All cost are accumulated and ascertained for contract	All	Each	Single	Multiple	All
is an important economic analysis used in the selection of alternatives that impact both pending and future costs.	Job Costing	Process costing	Life Cycle Costing	unit costing	Life Cycle Costing

Register No.:
[17CMP201 & 17CCP201]

(Deemed University Established Under Section 3 of UGC Act 1956)

COIMBATORE – 641021

(For the candidates admitted from 2015 onwards)

I M.Com & I M.Com (CA) – SIXTH SEMESTER

FIRST INTERNAL EXAMINATION – JANUARY 2018

APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING

Time : 2 Hours M	ıximum: 5	0 N	Iar	ks
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Date : 18/01/2018

PART – A (20*1 = 20 Marks) Multiple Choice Questions

Ι.	Costing is a technique of _			
	a) Ascertainment of cost	b) analyzing of cost	c) utilization of cost	d) cost reduction
2.	Direct Cost are known as _			
	a) Work Cost	b) Cost of Production	c) Cost of Sales	d) Prime Cost
3.	The costing system should	provide for periodic_	of cost acc	ounts and financial
,	accounts			
	a) summarising	b) analysing	c)reconciliation	d) recording
4.	is important	part of management ac	counting	
	a) Budgeting	b) Fixing standards	c) Inventory control	d)Interpretation of data
5.	is the sales ove	rhead		
	a) Office salaries	b) Advertisement exp	enses	
	c) Factory rent	d) Indirect material		
6.	cost refers to cor	verting of raw materia	l into partly finished g	oods
	a) conversion cost	b) product cost	c) period cost	d) revenue cost

7Exp	penses incurred for running the	administrative office	
a) administrati	ve b) selling	c) work overhead	d) direct overhead
8. Cost accounting	ng is a separateo	f accounting.	
a) No branch	b) Branch	c) Batch	d) No Batch
9 is as	scertainment of cost after they h	nave been incurred.	
a) Marginal co	osting b) Historical costi	ng c) Direct costing	d) Indirect costing
10C	ost is partly fixed and partly var	riable	
a) fixed	b) variable	c) semivariable	d) Keep on changing
116	ensures upto date maintenance	of stock records	
a) control	b) usage	c) material control	d) wastage
12. Inventory me	ans		
a) Stock	b) Material	c) Stores	d) Sales
13. BIN card is n	naintained by		
a) Storekeeper	b) Accountant	c) Auditor	d) Supervisor
14	Method in which mate	rials are issued in order	n which they are received in
the store			
a) FIFO	b) LIFO	c) HIFO	d)LFIO
15	method materials re	ceived last are issued firs	st
a) FIFO	b) LIFO	c) FFFO	d) LFIO
16. Anything wh	ich has no value is considered t	o be	
a) Wastage	b) Scarp	c) Spoilage	d) materials
17	is sold without further trea	tment are used as raw m	aterial for another process
a) Wastage	b) Scarp	c) Spoilage	d) materials
18. Wage sheets	is prepared by		
a) Production	b) Purchase	c) Sales	d) Pay roll

- 19. In Taylor's differential piece rate system ----- piece rates are set for each job.
 - a) Two

b) Three

- c) Four
- d) Five

a) Material Requisition Note

b) Material transfer note

20. ______ is a document which authorises and records the issues of materials for use

c) BIN card

d)Bill of material

PART - B (3*2=6 Marks)

Answer all the Questions

21. Find out the economic ordering quantity (E.O.Q) from the following particulars:

Annual usage: Rs. 2,40,000

Cost of placing and receiving one order: Rs.120

Annual carrying cost: 10% of inventory value.

22. Calculate the total earnings of the worker under the Halsey Plan. Also find out effective rate of earning.

Rate per hour

- Rs.1.50 per hour

Time allowed for job - 20 hours

Time taken

- 15 hours.

23. What is the difference between allocation and apportionment of overheads?

$$PART - C (3*8=24 Marks)$$

Answer all the Questions

24.a) The following extract of costing information relates to commodity 'X' for the half year ending 31st December, 2010

Particulars	Amount	Particulars	Amount
	Rs.		Rs.
Purchases of Raw Materials	1,20,000	Sales - Finished Goods	3,00,000
Works Overheads	48,000	Work – in – progress (1 st	
		July, 1997)	4,800
Direct Wages	1,00,000	Work – in – progress (31 st	
		December, 1997)	16,000
Carriage on Purchases	1,440		
Stock (1 st July, 1997):		Raw Materials	22,240
Raw Materials	20,000	Finished Goods (2,000	32,000
Finished Goods (1,000 Tons)	16,000	Tons)	

Selling and Distribution overheads are Re. 1 per Ton sold, 16,000 tons of commodity were produced during the period.

You are to ascertain (i) Cost of Raw Materials used, (ii) Cost of output for the period, (iii) Cost of Sales, (iv) Net Profit for the period and (v) Net profit per ton of the commodity.

(or)

- b) Define Cost Accounting and Management Accounting. How Cost Accounting differs from Management Accounting?
- 25.a) The "Received" side of the Stores Ledger Account shows the following particulars:

Jan. 1	Opening balance	500 units @ Rs.4
Jan. 5	Received from vendor:	200 units @ Rs. 4.25
Jan.12	Received from vendor:	150units @ Rs. 4.10
Jan.20	Received from vendor:	300 units @ Rs. 4.50
Jan.25	Received from vendor:	400 units @ Rs. 4.00

Issues of material were as follows:

Jan. 4 - 200 units: Jan. 10 - 400 units: Jan 15 - 100 units; Jan. 19 - 100 units: Jan. 26 - 200 units; Jan. 30 - 250 units.

Issues are to be priced on the principle of "FIFO". Write out the Stores Ledger Account in respect of the materials for the month of January.

b) The following particulars have been extracted in respect of Material X. Prepare Ledger account showing the receipts and issues, pricing the materials issued on the basis of Simple Average and Weighted Average Method.

Receipts

3 rd Oct.	Purchased 500 units @ Rs. 4.00 per unit
13 th Oct.	Purchased 900 units @ Rs. 4.30 per unit
23 rd Oct.	Purchased 600 units @ Rs. 3.80 per unit

Issues

5 th Oct.	Issued 400 units
15 th Oct.	Issued 600 units
25 th Oct.	Issued 600 units.

- 26.a) Explain the meaning of absorption of overheads. Describe the various methods of absorption of factory overheads.
- b) The Sumithra Company has five departments P, Q, R, S are producing departments and T is a service department. The actual costs for a period are as follows:

Particulars	Rs.
Repairs to plant	1,200
Rent	1,000
Depreciation	1,200

Supervision	4,000
Insurance	1,500
Employer's Liability of employees Insurance	600
Light	1,800

The following data are also available in respect of the five departments:

Particulars	Dept. P	Dept. Q	Dept. R	Dept. S	Dept. T
Area Sq. Ft.	140	120	110	90	40
No. of workers	25	20	10	10	5
Total Wages	Rs. 10,000	Rs. 8,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs.
					2,000
Value of Plant	Rs. 20,000	Rs. 18,000	Rs. 16,000	Rs. 10,000	Rs.
					6,000
Value of Stock	Rs. 15,000	Rs. 10,000	Rs. 5,000	Rs. 2,000	-

Apportion the costs to the various departments on the equitable basis.

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> (For the candidates admitted from 2017 onwards) M.Com & M.Com CA - SECOND SEMESTER **SECOND INTERNAL EXAMINATION - MARCH 2018** APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING

Time: 2 HOURS **Maximum: 60 Marks**

Date :	19.03	3.2018
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DADT A (20 V 1 -20 MADKS)

		PART – A (20 X 1 Multiple Choice	Questions	
1.	_	ess of grouping of cost	according to their common ch	aracteristics
	a. Cost Classification		b. Cost Allocation	
	c. Cost Apportionment		d. Cost absorption	
2.	absorption	means that the overhea	ad absorbed in production are i	nore than that
	of actual overhead			
	a.under	b.Over	c.Variable	d.Fixed
3.	ABC means			
	a.always better control		b.always best cost	
	c.analysis of best cost		d.always best cost	
4.	Canteen expenses is appor	tionmet based on		
	a.No.of Employees		b.value of plant	
	c.value of stock		d.value of materials	
5.	is a method	d of costing to findout	the cost of a product at a each	stage or
	process of production			
	a.Process costing		b. Job costing	
	c. Unit costing		d.Contract costing	
6.	are collected	ed for each process and	debited to the process accour	nt
	a. Overheads		b.Direct wages	
	c. Direct labour		d. Indirect wages	
7.	can be estim	nated in advance		
	a. Abnormal Loss		b. Normal Loss	
	c. Avoidable Loss		d.Unavoidable loss	
8.	Inter process profit is the c	lifference between trar	nsfer price and	
	a. unit price		b.cost price	
	c.abnormal price		d. normal price	

9. The cost data provided	d by job costing help	os in	_
a. Planning		b. Cost control	
c. Cost Reduction		d. Decision mak	ing
10. Value of closing stoc	ek of	is considerd as zero for t	he purpose of balance sheet
a.Substitute		b.Joint	
c.By product		d.Related produc	et
11.Inter process profit is	the difference between	een transfer price and	
a. unit price		b.cost price	
c.abnormal priced		d. normal price	
12 exp	enses are incurrd fo	r setting the by products	
a.selling& distribution	on	b.production	
c.purchase		d.raw material e	xpenses
13. Life Cycle Costing a	dds		
a.All the costs of alter	rnatives	b.one cost	
c.three cost alternativ	es	d.none	
14. Product costs are irre	elevant under		
a. target costing	b. LCC	c.ABC	d.none
15.Implementation of Ac	ctivity Based Costing	g	
a. Resources	b. Cost	c. Products	d. Services
16wants to	minimize capital co	osts as the only criteria.	
a.Project Engineering		b.Maintenance E	Engineering
c.Reliability Enginee	ring	d.none	
17. Example of external	services		
a. hospital		b. manufacturing	g industry
c.service outlet		d.distributors	
18.Service rendered in th	ne same oraganisatio	on is known as	
a.Internal Service		b.External Servi	ce
c.Both Costing Servi	ce	d.None	
19. In car	se more than one var	riable is combined	
a. composite costing		b. multiple costi	ng
c. single unit costing		d.operating costi	ing
20.Industries using	costing d	o not produce goods but	render service
a.Operating Costing		b.Job costing	
c. Contract costing		d.Service costing	g 2

PART - B (3X 2 = 6 MARKS)

- 21. Write a short note on 'Manufacturing Overheads'.
- 22.Define Process Costing.
- 23. What is Target Costing?

PART - C (3X 8 = 24 MARKS)

24.a. How does Activity Based Costing differs from Traditional Costing?

(or)

b. An engineering firm has three departments. The budgeted expenses for the current year are :

Particulars	Dept. A (Rs.)	Dept. B (Rs.)	Dept. C (Rs.)
Materials	1,00,000	1,00,000	79,700
Direct Wages	1,36,640	87,840	79,300
Direct Expenses	1,760	2,280	900
Works Expenses	97,600	65,880	61,100
Administration Expenses	26,880	25,600	19,890
Direct Labour Hours	78,080	57,645	48,880

Works expenses are charged to output at a man-hour rate and administration expenses as a percentage on works cost.

Compute man-hour rate and percentage of administration overhead on works cost.

25.a. The product of a company passes through three distinct process. The following information is obtained from the accounts for the month ending January 31, 2016.

Particulars	Process – A	Process – B	Process – C
Direct Material	7800	5940	8886
Direct Wages	6000	9000	12000
Production Overheads	6000	9000	12000

3000 units @ Rs.3 each were introduced to process – I. There was no stock of materials or work in progress. The output of each process passes directly to the next process and finally to finished stock A/c.

The following additional data is obtained:

Process	Output	Percentage of Normal Loss to Input	Value of Scrap per Unit (Rs.)
Process – I	2,850	5 %	2
Process – II	2,520	10 %	4
Process – III	2,250	15 %	5

Prepare Process Cost Account and Abnormal Gain or Loss Account.

b. A product passes through two distinct processes, A and B and thereafter to finished stock. From the following information, you are required to prepare Process Cost Account

		Process A	Process B
Materials Consumed		Rs. 12,000	Rs. 6,000
Direct Labour		Rs. 14,000	Rs. 8,000
Manufacturing expenses		Rs. 4,000	Rs. 4,000
Input in Process 'A'	(units)	10,000	
Input in Process 'A'	(Value)	Rs. 10,000	-
Output	(units)	9,400	units 8,300
Normal Wastage		5 %	10 %
Value of Normal Wastage (per 100 units)		Rs. 8	Rs. 10

26.a. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of Activity Based Costing.

(or

b. Indo Gulf Fertilizers Ltd. supports the concept of the life cycle costing for new investment decisions covering its engineering activities.

The company is to replace a number of its machines and the Production Manager is to run between the "X" machine, a more expensive machine with a life of 12 years, and the "W" machine with an estimated life of 6 years. If the "W" machine chosen it is likely that it would be replaced at the end of 6 years by another "W" machine. The pattern of maintenance and running costs differs between the two types of machine and relevant data are shown below:

Particulars	X (Rs.)	W (Rs.)
Purchase price	19,000	13,000
Trade-in-value	3,000	3,000
Annual repair costs	2,000	2,600
Overhead costs (in 8th & 4th year respectively)	4,000	2,000
Estimated financing costs averaged over machine life (p.a.)	10%	10%

You are required to recommend, with supporting figures, which machine to purchase, stating any assumptions made.

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SECOND INTERNAL EXAMINATION – MARCH 2018
APPLIED COST ACCOUNTING

Time: 2 HOURS Maximum: 60 Marks

Date:

PART – A (20 X 1 = 20 MARKS) Multiple Choice Questions

- 1. Cost Classification
- 2. Over
- 3. always better control
- 4. No.of Employees
- 5. Process costing
- 6. Overheads
- 7. Abnormal
- 8. unit price
- 9. Planning
- 10. By product
- 11. unit price
- 12. selling& distribution
- 13. All the costs of alternatives
- 14. target costing
- 15. Resources
- 16. Project Engineering
- 17. hospital
- 18. Internal Service
- 19. composite costing
- 20. Operating Costing

$PART - B(3 \times 2 = 6 MARKS)$

21. Manufacturing Overheads:

Manufacturing overhead (also referred to as factory overhead, factory burden, and manufacturing support costs) refers to indirect factory-related costs that are incurred when a product is manufactured.

22.Process Costing

Process costing is a method of costing under which all costs are accumulated for each stage of production or process, and the cost per unit of product is ascertained at each stage of production by dividing the cost of each process by the normal output of that process.

23. Target Costing

Target cost means an estimation of total cost to win in the competition in terms of quality, cost and productivity. It is not a method or technique of costing. But, it is a management technique used to survive under the increasing competitive environment.

PART - C (3X 8 = 24 MARKS)

24.a. Activity Based Costing Differs from Traditional Costing

Activity based costing system is used to determine product costs for special management reports. This system is ordinarily used as a supplement to the company's usual costing system. Most organizations that use ABC system have two costing systems - the official costing system that is used for preparing external financial reports and the activity based costing system that is used for internal decision making and for managing activities.

In traditional cost accounting systems, the objective is to value inventories and cost of goods sold for external financial reports in accordance with the generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP). In activity based costing (ABC) system the objective is to understand overhead and the profitability of products and customers and to manage overhead. As a consequence of these differences in objectives, "best practice" activity based costing system differs in a number of ways from traditional cost accounting.

24. man-hour rate and percentage of administration overhead on works cost is

For Dept A -1.25%

For Dept B -1.14%

For Dept C - 1.25%

- 25. Process A A/c Output transferred to B Units 9400; Amount Rs.39,539
 - Process B A/c Output transferred to Finished Stock Units 8300; Amount Rs.56,766.
- 26. i. The total cost is divided into two types i.e. fixed cost and variable cost which is necessary to provide quality information to design a suitable cost system in a manufacturing concern.
 - ii. The proper distinction is made between the cost behavior patterns.
 - iii. The cost behavior patterns are volume related, diversity related, events related and time related.
 - iv. The appropriate cost driver has to be identified for tracing the overhead to a product.
 - v. The cost drivers dictate the cost behavior pattern.
- 26. Annualized equivalent = Rs. 33,540/ 6.81 =Rs. 4,925

Machine W – Life 6 years

Annualised equivalent = Rs. 24,016/4.36 = Rs. 5,508.

Recommendation – Purchase Machine "X"

Assumptions:

- (a) Same performance, capacity and speed
- (b) No inflation
- (c) 12 year-estimates are as accurate as 6-years estimates
- (d) Cash flow at the year end.