

ACCA QUALIFICATION COURSE NOTES



FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING

JUNE 2012 EXAMINATIONS



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INTRODUCTION TO ACCOUNTING

Introduction

In this chapter we will look at what accounting is and why accounting information is prepared. We will also consider the different types of business entity that you can be asked to deal with and also the different users of financial statements.

Definition of accounting

Accounting comprises the recording of transactions, and the summarising of information.

Recording

Summarising

Statement of Financial Position (Balance Sheet)



3 Types of business entity

There are two types of business entity that you can be asked to deal with in the examination:

Sole trader



In all cases, we apply the separate entity concept – that is that the business is regarded as being separate from the owner (or owners) and that accounts are prepared for the business itself.



Users of accounting information

Users of the financial information for a business will include the following:

- management
- owners / shareholders

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potential investors

lenders

employees

the government

the public

The main financial statements that are likely to be available to all users are the Statement of Financial Position and the Income Statement. Other statements may be required to be produced (or may be produced even if not required), such as a Statement of Cash Flows. We will consider these later.

Test

QUESTION 1

Which of the following are differences between sole traders and limited liability companies?

- A sole traders' financial statements are private; a company's financial statements are sent to shareholders and are publicly filed
- (2)Only companies have capital invested into the business
- A sole trader is fully and personally liable for any losses that the business might make; a company's shareholders are not personally liable for any losses that the company might make.
- 1 and 2 only A
- 2 and 3 only В
- 1 and 3 only \mathbf{C}
- D 1, 2 and 3

(2 marks)





THE STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL **POSITION AND INCOME STATEMENT**

Introduction

In this chapter we will look at what information the Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement are giving and also examine the standard layout and terminology that will be required from you in the examination.

The dual (or double) effect of transactions

Let us consider the effect of the following transactions on a sole trader:

The owner puts \$10,000 into a separate bank account for the business: The business owns

The business owes

The business buys a shop for \$2,000 The business owns

The business owes

The business buys goods for resale (in cash) for \$1,000 $\,$ The business owns

The business owes

(d) The business buys more goods for resale (on credit) for \$2,000 The business owns

The business owes

The business buys a car for \$3,000 (cash) The business owns

The business owes

(f) The business sells half of the goods for \$2,400 (cash) The business owns

The business owes

The business sells the remainder of the goods for \$2,800 on credit The business owns

The business owes



The business pays \$600 of the amount owing, on account The business owns

The business owes

The business pays electricity of \$200 The business owns

The business owes

The business receives half of the amount owing to it, on account. The business owns

The business owes

(k) The owner takes \$1,200 from the business The business owns The business owes

Check on profit:

In each case, the summary we have prepared is effectively a Statement of Financial Position and shows the owner: how much they are owed, why they are owed it, and how the amount is held within the business.

The check made on the profit is effectively an Income Statement. This shows the owner how the profit was actually made.

3 The Statement of Financial Position

Below is an example of the layout of a Statement of Financial Position for a sole trader:

Statement of Financial Position as at 31 March 2009

	\$	\$
ASSETS		
Non-current assets		
Land and Buildings	100,000	
Plant and Equipment	50,000	
Fixtures and Fittings	20,000	
Motor Vehicles	30,000	
		200,000
Current assets		
Inventories	10,000	
Accounts receivable	12,000	
Prepayments	3,000	
Cash	4,000	
	<u> </u>	29,000
		\$ 229,000
CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES		
Capital		
Capital at 1 April 2008	130,000	
Profit for year to 31 March 2009	50,000	
Less: withdrawals	(10,000)	
		170,000
Non-current liabilities		
8% Loan		25,000
Current liabilities		
Accruals	2,000	
Accounts payable	20,000	
Bank overdraft	12,000	
		34,000
		\$ 229,000

Terminology:

Asset

anything owned by the business

Non-current asset

an asset the business intends to keep (longer than 12 months)



Current asset

not a non-current asset (!)



an asset bought by the business intended for sale



Accounts receivable

amount owed to the business by customers



a payment made by the business in advance



amount owing by the business to the proprietor (owner)

Drawings (or withdrawals)

anything taken from the business by the owner

Liability

amount owing by the business

Current liability

a liability due within 12 months of Statement of Financial Position date

Non-current liability

a liability due more than 12 months from the date of the Statement of Financial Position

Accounts payable

liability due to suppliers

Bank overdraft

liability due to the bank (a "negative" bank balance)

The Income Statement

Below is an example of the layout of an Income Statement for a sole trader:

Income Statement for the year ended 31 March 2009

income statement for the ye	ar ended 31 March 2	009
	\$	<i>\$</i>
Sales revenue		180,000
Cost of sales:		
Opening Inventory	30,000	
Purchases	120,000	
1	150,000	
Closing Inventory	(40,000)	
		110,000
Gross Profit		70,000
Other income:		
Rent received	10,000	
Interest received	1,000	11,000
		81,000
Expenses:		
Rent	5,000	
Electricity	3,000	
Telephone	2,000	
Wages and salaries	15,000	
Motor expenses	6,000	
		31,000
		\$50,000

Terminology

Revenue

Purchases



5 The difference between Capital and Revenue items

You should note from the previous exercises that when we pay for anything, there are two possible reasons. Either we buy an asset, which appears on the Statement of Financial Position, or we pay an expense, which appears on the Income Statement.

We call the purchase of assets (for the Statement of Financial Position) Capital Expenditure, whereas the payment of expenses (for the Income Statement) is called Revenue Expenditure.

6 The Accounting Equation

You should note from the earlier illustrations that at any point in time:

ASSETS = CAPITAL + LIABILITIES

It follows from this that:

ASSETS - LIABILITIES = CAPITAL

The term "net assets" is often used to refer to

assets - liabilities, and so:

NET ASSETS = CAPITAL

Over a period of time (for example, over a year), the net assets of a business will change. Since the above equation is true at any point in time, it also holds true that over a period of time:

INCREASE IN NET ASSETS = INCREASE IN CAPITAL

There are only three reasons why the capital of a business should change over time:

- More capital introduced (this will increase the capital)
- Profit for the period (this will increase the capital)
- Drawings during the period (this will reduce the capital)

Therefore, finally, over a period of time,

_			_
	 •	-	-
-8	W	211	

owner had introd	uced no addi	tional capital, a	and the profit f	for the year was	\$54,000
e drawings durin	o the vear?				
, drawings durin	ig the year.				
	owner had introd		owner had introduced no additional capital, a	owner had introduced no additional capital, and the profit f	et assets of a business were \$118,000. On 31 December, the net assets we owner had introduced no additional capital, and the profit for the year was a drawings during the year?

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THE STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION AND INCOME STATEMENT

Chapter 2

Test

QUESTION 1

Which of the following calculates a trader's net profit for a period?

- Closing net assets + drawings capital introduced opening net assets
- Closing net assets drawings + capital introduced opening net assets В
- \mathbf{C} Closing net assets – drawings – capital introduced – opening net assets
- Closing net assets + drawings + capital introduced opening net assets. D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

The purpose of a Statement of Financial Position is to show:

- a clear and definite estimate of what a business is really worth
- В the amount the business could be sold for in liquidation
- \mathbf{C} the amount the business could be sold for as a going concern
- D the assets of the business and the claims against those assets

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

A grocery business has net assets of \$64,800 at 31 January 2008 and the net profit for the year to 31 January 2008 was \$30,600. On 31 August 2007 the proprietor introduced additional capital of \$7,200. He also withdrew \$960 per month and on 24 December 2007 withdrew goods amounting to \$840.

What were the net assets at 1 February 2007?

- A \$51,720
- В \$50,040
- \mathbf{C} \$39,360
- D \$13,920

(2 marks)



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Chapter 3



DOUBLE ENTRY BOOKKEEPING

Introduction

In the previous chapter we looked at the fact that every transaction has two effects, and also looked at the layout of the financial statements.

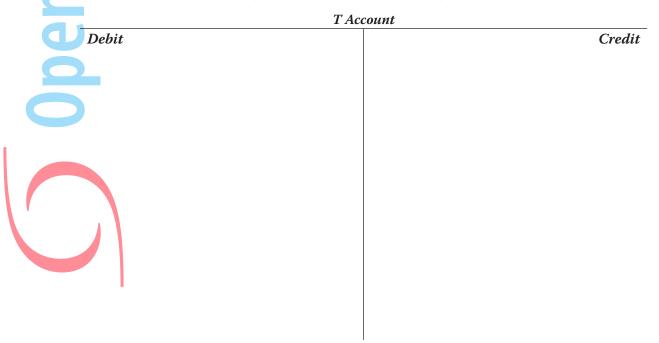
In order to be able to produce the financial statements at the end of the period, a record needs to be made of every individual transaction as it occurs. This is known as bookkeeping, and in this chapter we will look at the standard way in which bookkeeping is done.

The nominal ledger

Every item in the Statement of Financial Position or income statement will have an 'account' in which we will keep a record of that item. The 'account' used to always be a page in a book, but these days may be a page in a book, or, more likely, a record on a computer.

The book or file containing the accounts is known as the **nominal ledger** (or **general ledger**), and the accounts are called **ledger accounts**.

If the account is in a book then when we open the book there are two pages facing us. We use both of the pages for the recording, and we represent the two pages as below:



The left hand page is always called the debit side, and the right hand page is called the credit side.

If we make an entry on the debit side, we say that we debit the account. If we make an entry on the credit side, we say that we credit the account.

For every transaction there will be two entries – one on the debit side of an account and one on the credit side of another account. We call this double entry.

The general rules of double entry 3

A debit entry represents one of the following:

- an increase in an asset
- a decrease in a liability
- an item of expense

A credit entry represents one of the following:

- an increase in a liability
- a decrease in an asset
- an item of income

Worked example 4

We will work through the following entries together (use big t-accounts, because we will do other things later with the same accounts):

EXAMPLE 1

The following are the transactions of Kristine's business during her first month of trading. Record each transaction in t-accounts.

- (a) Kristine starts a business and pays in \$5,000 as capital
- (b) The business buys a car for \$1,000 cash
- (c) They buy goods for resale for \$500 cash
- They buy more goods for resale for \$600 on credit from Mr A (d)
- (e) They pay rent of \$200 cash
- They sell half the goods for \$800 cash (f)
- They sell the remaining goods on credit for \$900 to Mrs X (g)
- They pay \$400 cash on account of the amount owing to Mr A (h)
- (i) They receive \$500 from Mrs X
- Kristine withdraws \$100 cash from the business (j)



5 Balancing the accounts

In the previous example we have now recorded all the entries. However, before we can go further we need to calculate the net figure, or balance, on each account.

With such a small example, the balances may be obvious. However we should balance it neatly.

The rules for balancing are:

- draw total lines on both sides of the t-account
- add up the bigger of the two sides and put this total on both sides of the account
- fill in the missing figure on the smaller of the two sides this figure is the balance on the account
- carry forward this balance by also writing it on the opposite side of the account, below the total lines.

The figures above the total lines can now be effectively ignored, because we have replaced them by the net figure or balance, below the total lines.

Example 2

Go back to the previous example and balance off the accounts.

The trial balance

Although we now know the balance on each account, there are many mistakes that we could have made. For instance, when recording the transactions we could have accidentally debited and credited with different figures. A very common error is to enter (say) \$1,200 in one account but \$2,100 in the other account. This is known as a transposition error.

There is a very simple and quick check we can make to see if the debits and credits are equal.

The check is to list the balances on every account. The total of the debit balances should equal the total of the credit balances.

We call this list the Trial Balance.

Example 3

Prepare a Trial Balance from the previous example

Note that the trial balance is not a T-account – simply a list.

Note also although there must be errors if the trial balance does not balance (and we would have to check everything to find the errors), there can be errors that will not be found by preparing a trial balance.

Errors that will not be revealed from the Trial Balance:

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Closing off the accounts

Now that we have recorded all of the transactions and have checked that the double entry is correct, we are in a position to produce the financial statements.

We do this by examining each account in turn and 'closing off'.

The rules for this are as follows:

Statement of Financial Position items:

These are assets and liabilities. They exist at the end of the period, and still exist at the beginning of the next period.

We therefore simply leave the balance on the account.

DOUBLE ENTRY BOOKKEEPING

Chapter 3

Income Statement items:

These are total income or expense for the period. We have now finished with the current period but wish to use the same accounts to record the income and expenditure of the next period.

We do this by opening a new account in the nominal ledger called Income Statement.

For items of **income**, the entry is:

Debit the Income t-account, and

Credit the Income Statement t-account

For items of **expenditure**, the entry is:

Debit the Income Statement t-account, and

Credit the Expense t-account

Example 4

For the previous example, open an Income Statement t-account and close off all the accounts.

Preparation of the Financial Statements

Having closed off all of the t-accounts, the balance remaining on the Income Statement account is the profit (or loss) for the period.

We can now produce a 'pretty' version of the Income Statement suitable for presentation to the owner by re-writing the figures from the t-account in the standard format.

The balances remaining on the accounts all represent Statement of Financial Position items. We can now list them in the standard format to produce our Statement of Financial Position.

Note that this preparation of the Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement does not result in any additional entries in the t-accounts.

Example 5

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		•	•

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DOUBLE ENTRY BOOKKEEPING	Chapte
'	

'Tidying up' the owner.

Although the financial statements are now finished, the amount owing to the owner at the end of the period is split between three accounts in the nominal ledger - the Capital Account, the Drawings Account, and the Income Statement Account.

Our very last task is to put all the balances together so that we leave on the Capital Account a balance equal to the final amount owing.

We achieve this by making the following two entries:

Debit Income Statement t-account, and Credit Capital Account with the balance on the Income Statement account.

Debit Capital account, and Credit Drawings account

with the balance on the Drawings account.

Example 6

Go back to the original t-accounts and finish them by tidying up the owner's accounts.



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ACCRUALS AND PREPAYMENTS

Introduction

In the previous chapter we went through the steps for recording transactions through to the preparation of the financial statements.

However, there are four types of adjustments that the accountant will normally have to make when preparing the financial statements to deal with items that will not have been recorded on a day by day basis by the bookkeeper.

These adjustments are: accruals and prepayments; depreciation; bad and doubtful debts; and inventory.

We will deal with these adjustments separately – accruals and prepayments in this chapter, and the others in the subsequent chapters.

2 Prepayments

A prepayment is a payment in advance. For example, it is normal to pay car insurance for a whole year at the beginning of the year. If our year-end were to occur half-way through the insurance period, then we would only have actually used half of the insurance. The other half of the payment would be paid in advance, and in theory – were we to close down – would be repayable to the company. In practice, it would not be repaid because we would stay in business and use the rest of the insurance in the following period. For this reason we do not show the amount of the overpayment as an account receivable, but show it separately in the Statement of Financial Position as a prepayment.

The bookkeeper will have recorded the whole amount of the payment. However, if again we had paid for a year but only used half a year so far, then it would be wrong to show the full payment as an expense in the Income Statement.

We will illustrate the accounting treatment for prepayments by means of an example. At the end of this chapter we will summarise all the entries needed.

EXAMPLE 1

Karen started business on 1 January 2000.

During the year to 31 December 2000, she made the following payments for insurance:

5 January 2000 \$800 for the 6 months to 30 June 2000 15 June 2000 \$2,000 for the 12 months to 30 June 2001

Show extracts from the Income Statement and Statement of Financial Position (a)

(b) (c)	Write up the t-account for Insurance for the year to 31 December 2000 Close off the t-account
Γ'	
1	

ACCRUALS AND PREPAYMENTS	Chapter 4
3 Accruals	
An accrued expense (or accrual) is the name we give to an amount or	
received an invoice. For example, suppose we receive electricity bills ex March, June, September, and December. If our accounting year end oc	•
we will owe for the electricity used in July, even though we will not re	
the end of September. The bookkeeper will only have entered the bills	
up to the accountant to make an adjustment for the amount still owed	l.
Again, we will illustrate the entries by an example and summarise	the rules at the end of the
chapter.	
Example 2	
Amit started business on 1 April 2000, and during the year to 31 March 2001	he made the following payment
n respect of telephone:	
18 July 2000 \$500 for the 3 months to 30 June 2000	
22 October 2000 \$600 for the 3 months to 30 September 2000	
14 January 2001 \$750 for the 3 months to 31 December 2000 As at 31 March 2001, Amit estimated that \$950 was owing for the 3 mo	onthe to 21 March 2001. He had
nowever not received a bill from the telephone company.	minis to 31 March 2001. He had
nowered not received a sin from the telephone company,	
(a) Show extracts from the Income Statement and Statement of Finan	cial Position.
(b) Write up the t-account for Telephone for the year to 31 March 200	01
(c) Close off the account	

CCRUALS AND PREPAYMENTS	Chapte

Subsequent accounting periods 4

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In both of the two previous examples, we were dealing with the first year of trading. At the end of the year we left balances on the t-accounts for Prepayments (in the case of Karen) and on Accruals (in the case of Amit). As a result, we would start the next accounting period with a balance brought forward, and we should therefore consider what entries are needed in the second period.

We will use the same examples as before, continuing into a second year. Firstly Karen:

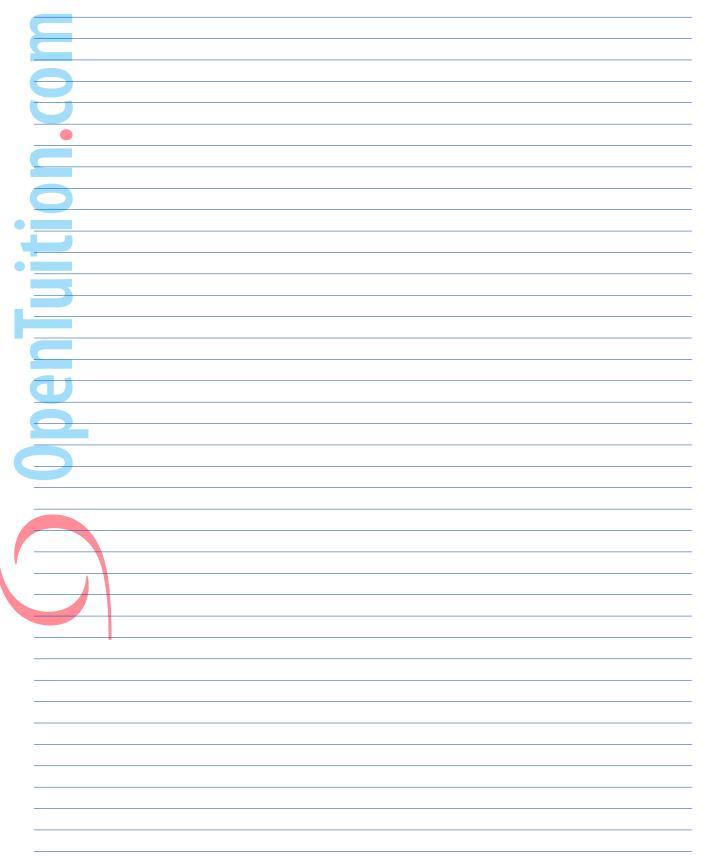


Paper F3

EXAMPLE 3

During the year to 31 December 2001, Karen made the following payment in respect of insurance: \$2,400 for the 12 months to 30 June 2002 12 June 2001

- Write up the t-accounts for Insurance and for Prepayments for the year to 31 December 2001
- **(b)** Close off the accounts
- Show extracts from the Income Statement and Statement of Financial Position (c)



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	ACCRUALS AND PREPAYMENTS Chapter 4
	
	Now Amit,
	Example 4
	During the year to 31 March 2002 he made the following payments in respect of telephone:
	12 April 2001 \$950 for the 3 months to 31 March 2001
	15 July 2001 \$1,000 for the 3 months to 30 June 2001
	24 October 2001 \$1,200 for the 3 months to 30 September 2001 \$1,350 for the 3 months to 31 December 2001
	12 January 2002 \$1,350 for the 3 months to 31 December 2001 As at 31 March 2002, Amit estimated that \$1,500 was owing for the 3 months to 31 March. He had however
	not received a bill from the telephone company.
	You are required to:
	(a) write up the t-accounts for Telephone and for Accruals for the year to 31 March 2002
	(b) close off the accounts
	(c) show extracts from the Income Statement and Statement of Financial Position
	<u> </u>

Summary of entries

Prepayments (a)

Reverse any Prepayments brought forward:

DR Expense Account (e.g. Insurance, Rates)

CR Prepayments Account

(2) Enter any payments during the period:

DR Expense Account

CR Cash Account

Enter any prepayments at the end of the period: (3)

DR Prepayments Account

CR Expense Account

Close-off the accounts:

Transfer the balance on the expense account to the Income Statement.

DR Income Statement t-account

CR Expense Account

Leave the balance on the prepayments account and show in the Statement of Financial Position.

(b) Accruals

- Reverse any accruals brought forward:
 - DR Accruals Account
 - CR Expense Account (e.g. Telephone, Electricity)
- Enter any payments during the period:
 - DR Expense Account
 - CR Cash Account
- Enter any accruals at the end of the period:
 - DR Expense Account
 - CR Accruals Account
- Close-off the accounts:

Transfer the balance on the expense account to the Income Statement.

- Income Statement t-account
 - CR Expense Account

Leave the balance on the accruals account and show in the Statement of Financial Position.



Test

QUESTION 1

At 31 December 2008 the following require inclusion in a company's financial statements:

- On 1 January 2008 the company made a loan of \$28,800 to an employee, repayable on 1 January 2009, charging interest at 2 per cent per year. On the due date she repaid the loan and paid the whole of the interest due on the loan to that date.
- The company has paid insurance \$21,600 in 2008, covering the year ending 31August 2009.
- (3) On 1 January 2009 the company received rent from a tenant \$9,600 covering the six months to 31 December 2008.

For these items, what total figures should be included in the company's Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2008?

	Current assets	Current liabilities
	\$	\$
A	24,000	29,376
В	53,376	nil
C	24,576	nil
D	38,976	14,400

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Moira prepares its financial statements for the year to 30 April each year. The company pays rent for its premises quarterly in advance on 1 January, 1 April, 1 July and 1 October each year. The annual rent was \$201,600 per year until 30 June 2008. It was increased from that date to \$230,400 per year.

What rent expense and end of year prepayment should be included in the financial statements for the year ended 30 April 2009?

	Expense	Prepayment
A	\$223,200	\$19,200
B	\$223,200	\$38,400
C	\$225,600	\$9,200
D	\$225,600	\$38,400

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

A company receives rent from a large number of properties. The total received in the year ended 30 April 2008 was \$1,154,880.

The following were the amounts of rent in advance and in arrears at 30 April 2007 and 2008:

	30 April 2007	30 April 2008
	\$	\$
Rent received in advance	68,880	74,880
Rent in arrears (all subsequently receive	ed) 50,880	44,160

What amount of rental income should appear in the company's income statement for the year ended 30 April 2008?

\$1,167,600 Α В \$1,106,160 C \$1,203,600 D \$1,142,160

QUESTION 4

A business has received telephone bills as follows:

		Date rece	eived	Amount of bill (\$)	Date	paid
Quarter to 30 November	2005	December		739.20	January	2006
Quarter to 28 February	2006	March	2006	798.00	April	2006
Quarter to 31 May	2006	June	2006	898.80	June	2006
Quarter to 31 August	2006	September	2006	814.80	October	2006
Quarter to 30 November	2006	December	2006	840.00	January	2007
Quarter to 28 February	2007	March	2007	966.00	March	2007

In the income statement for the year ended 31 December 2006 the charge for telephone should be

- A \$3,250.80
- **B** \$3,351.60
- **C** \$3,407.60
- **D** \$3,463.60

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

Details of a company's insurance policy are shown below:

Premium for year ended 31 March 2008 paid April 2007 \$25,920 Premium for year ending 31 March 2009 paid April 2008 \$28,800

What figures should be included in the company's financial statements for the year ended 30 June 2008?

	Inc	ome statement	Statement of Financial Position	
		\$	\$	
A		26,640	21,600 prepayment (Dr)	
В		28,080	21,600 prepayment (Dr)	
C		26,640	21,600 accrual (Cr)	
D		28,080	21,600 accrual (Cr)	

(2 marks)

QUESTION 6

A company owns a number of properties which are rented to tenants. The following information is available for the year ended 30 June 2006:

	Rent in advance	Rent in arrears
	\$	\$
30 June 2005	323,040	11,520
30 June 2006	346,560	20,880

Cash received from tenants in the year ended 30 June 2006 was \$2,003,040.

All rent in arrears was subsequently received.

What figure should appear in the company's income statement for rent receivable in the year ended 30 June 2006?

A \$2,017,200

B \$2,640,240

C \$1,365,840

D \$1,988,880





IAS 37 - PROVISIONS, CONTINGENT **LIABILITIES AND CONTINGENT ASSETS**

A contingent liability is a liability that may result, but depends (or is contingent) on the outcome of uncertain events.

For example, the company may have been taken to court, but the outcome of the case is not yet known. If they lose the case then they may have to pay a fine. There is therefore a potential liability, but it is not certain. The question is as to whether or not we show the potential liability in the accounts.

A contingent asset is where there may be an asset resulting for the company, but, again, it is not certain.

The requirements of IAS 37:

	Contingent liabilities	Contingent assets
Virtually certain (> 95%)	Provide	Recognise
Probable (50% to 95%)	Provide	Disclose by note
Possible (5% to 50%)	Disclose by note	No disclosure
Remote (< 5%)	No disclosure	No disclosure



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Test

QUESTION 1

How should a contingent liability be included in a company's financial statements if the likelihood of a transfer of economic benefits to settle it is remote?

- Disclosed by note with no provision being made A
- В No disclosure or provision is required

(2 marks)

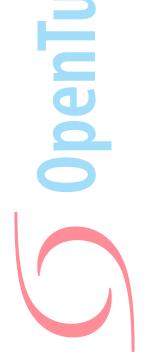
QUESTION 2

The following items have to be considered in finalising the financial statements of Q, a limited liability company:

- The company gives warranties on its products. The company's statistics show that about 5% of sales give rise to a warranty claim.
- The company has guaranteed the overdraft of another company. The likelihood of a liability arising (2)under the guarantee is assessed as possible.

What is the correct action to be taken in the financial statements for these items?

	Create a	Disclose by	No action
	provision	note only	No action
A		2	
В		1	2
C	1, 2		
D		1, 2	
C	1, 2	1, 2	_



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Chapter 6



DEPRECIATION

1 Introduction

In this chapter we will explain what depreciation is and why it is needed. We will also look at the different methods of calculating depreciation of which you need to be aware, and the accounting entries.

2 Non-current assets

A non-current asset is an asset intended for use on a continuing basis in the business.

A tangible non-current asset is one that can be touched and refers to such items as plant, buildings and motor vehicles.

A non-tangible non-current asset is one that cannot be touched and refers to such items as goodwill and patents (we will cover these in a later chapter).

3 Depreciation

Depreciation is the charging of the cost of a non-current asset over its useful life.

The purchase of a car for \$10,000 is an expense of running the business just as electricity is an expense. However, if the car is expected to last 5 years, it would be misleading to have one expense in the Income Statement of \$10,000 every 5 years and nothing in the other years. It would be more sensible to reflect the fact that the car is being used in the business over 5 years by charging an expense each year of (say) \$2,000.

The charge of \$2,000 in the Income Statement each year is known as depreciation. At the same time, the Statement of Financial Position value of the car will be reduced by \$2,000 each year to reflect the fact that it is being used up.

The way in which \$2,000 was calculated in the above illustration is known as the straight-line method of depreciation. There are other methods and we will cover the methods that you need to know in the following sections of this chapter.

The purpose of depreciation is not to place a true value on the asset in the Statement of Financial Position. It is a method of applying the accruals, or matching, concept by charging the cost of the asset to the Income Statement as it is being used up.

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Chapter 6

Methods of calculating depreciation 4

There are several methods of calculating depreciation. The methods that you are expected to be aware of are the following:

- straight line method
- reducing balance method

These are the most common methods in practice.

Straight line method

Under this approach we charge an equal amount of depreciation each year.

The depreciation charge each year is calculated as:

Original cost – residual value

Estimated useful life

Example 1

Sarkans has a year end of 31 December each year.

On 1 April 2002 he purchases a car for \$12,000. The car is expected to last for 5 years and to have a scrap value at the end of 5 years of \$2,000.

You are required to calculate the depreciation charge for each of the first three accounting periods, and to show extracts from the Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement for each of the three accounting periods.

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(Note, in the first accounting period we have charged a fraction of the annual depreciation because the asset was purchased during the year. A very common alternative in practice is to charge a full year in the year of purchase, regardless of when in the year it was actually purchased. In the examination, read the question carefully. If you are told to charge a full year in the year of purchase then do so. If you are not told, then charge a fraction (or time-apportion) as above.)

Reducing balance method

Under this approach we charge more depreciation in the early years of an asset's life, with a progressively lower charge in each subsequent year.

The depreciation charge each year is a fixed percentage of the net book value (or written down value) at the end of the previous year.

Example 2

Zils	has	a year	end	of 31	December	each	year.
------	-----	--------	-----	-------	----------	------	-------

On 5 April he purchased a machine for \$15,000.

His depreciation policy is to charge 20% reducing balance, with a full years charge in the year of purchase.

You are required to calculate the depreciation charge for each of the first three accounting periods, and to show extracts from the Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement for each of the three accounting periods.

Accounting for depreciation 5

Whichever method is used, the accounting entries are the same.

We will illustrate the required entries using an example, and will then summarise the entries afterwards.

EXAMPLE 3

Melns has a year end of 30 June each year. On 1 January 2002 he purchased a car for \$15,000. The car has an expected life of 5 years, with an estimated scrap value of \$1,000. Melns depreciation policy is to use straight line depreciation. Show the accounting entries for the first three accounting periods.

The acc	counting entry for charging depreciation each year is:
Debit	Depreciation Expense account
Credit	Accumulated Depreciation account
	ance on the Depreciation Account will appear in the Income Statement as an expense.
	lance on the Accumulated Depreciation account will appear in the Statement of Financial n as a deduction from the cost of the asset.
Sale	of non-current assets
for dep extrem	ctice it is unlikely that an asset will be kept for the precise useful life that was estimated preciation purposes – it might be kept for a longer period or for a shorter period. It is also ely unlikely that any sale proceeds will exactly equal the value of the asset as shown in the al statements.
and the	e, we remove the asset from our books and calculate any difference between the proceeds value in the financial statements. This difference (which is really the effective over or under of depreciation) is called the profit or loss on sale and is shown in the Income Statement.
AMPLE 4	
ite up the	s, Melns sells the car on 30 September 2004 for \$6,500. Le ledger accounts for his fourth accounting period and show extracts from his Statement. Desition and Income Statement.

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Note that in this example we have charged depreciation in the year of sale for the 3 months the car was owned. Very often you will be told that the depreciation policy is to charge no depreciation in the year of sale. The net result in the Income Statement will be exactly the same.

Summary of the accounting entries for the sale of a non-current asset:

DR Disposal Account

CR Asset Account

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with the cost of the asset sold

DR Accumulated Depreciation Account

CR Disposal Account

with the accumulated depreciation on the asset sold

DR Cash

CR Disposal Account

with the proceeds of sale

The balance remaining on the Disposal Account is the profit or loss on sale. This should be transferred to the Income Statement.

Revaluation of non-current assets

During a period of high-inflation, the value of non-current assets may be well in excess of their net book value.

In this situation a company may choose to show the current worth of such assets on their Statement of Financial Position.

Any profit resulting from such revaluation is an unrealised profit (in that the asset has not been sold and therefore no real profit has actually been made). As a result, the profit is shown separately from the Income Statement in a revaluation reserve. (For a limited company this must be the case. For a sole trader, where the owner has unlimited liability, this is not a rule even though it is good practice.)

IAS 16 Property, Plant and Equipment requires that when an item of property, plant or equipment is revalued, then the entire class of property, plant and equipment to which the asset belongs must be revalued.

When a non-current asset has been revalued, the future charge for depreciation should be based on the revalued amount and the remaining economic life of the asset.



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DEPRECIATION

Example 5

Purpurs has a year end of 31 December each year.

In his Statement of Financial Position as at 31 December 2002 he has buildings at a cost of \$3,600,000 and accumulated depreciation of \$1,080,000.

His depreciation policy is to charge 2% straight line.

On 30 June 2003, the building is to be revalued at \$3,072,000. There is no change in the remaining estimated useful life of the building.

Show the relevant ledger accounts for the year to 31 December 2003.

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DEPRECIATION

Test

QUESTION 1

The plant and machinery account (at cost) of a business for the year ended 31 December 2008 was as follows:

Plant and	l machinery -	– cost
-----------	---------------	--------

2008		2008		
	\$		\$	
1 Jan Balance	240,000	31 March Transfer disposal account	60,000	
30 June Cash – purchase of plant	160,000	31 Dec Balance	340,000	
	400,000		400,000	

The company's policy is to charge depreciation at 20% per year on the straight line basis, with proportionate depreciation in the years of purchase and disposal.

What should be the depreciation charge for the year ended 31 December 2008?

- \$68,000
- B \$64,000
- C \$61,000
- \$55,000 D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

What is the correct double entry to record the depreciation charge for a period?

- DR Depreciation expense
 - CR Accumulated depreciation
- DR Accumulated depreciation
 - CR Depreciation expense

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

A company's motor vehicles at cost account at 30 June 2007 is as follows:

Motor vehicles – cost

	\$		\$
Balance b/f	85,920	Disposal	28,800
Additions	31,080	Balance c/f	88,200
•	117,000		117,000

What opening balance should be included in the following period's trial balance for motor vehicles – cost at 1 July 2007?

- \$88,200 DR A
- В \$117,000 DR
- C \$88,200 CR
- D \$117,000 CR

QUESTION 4

On 1 January 2000 Krin Co. bought a machine for \$70,000. It was estimated that the machine's useful life would be 7 years and its residual value \$7,000. Two years later the useful life was revised to three remaining years and at 31 December 2003 the machine was sold for \$30,000.

What is the profit on disposal?

- \$2,000 A
- В \$8,000
- \mathbf{C} \$12,000
- D \$20,000



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THE PROVISIONS OF IAS 16 PROPERTY, **PLANT AND EQUIPMENT**

The main points of IAS 16 are as follows:

the conditions for recognition of a tangible non-current asset are that

- it is probably that future benefits will flow to the enterprise from the asset
- ii) the cost of the asset can be measured reliably

depreciation should be charged over the useful life of the asset. Land normally has an unlimited life and therefore does not require depreciation.

any upward revaluation should be credited to a revaluation reserve. Any downward revaluation should be charged as an expense in the Income Statement.

if one asset in a class is revalued, then all assets in that class should be revalued.

Disclosure requirements

(b)

The following should be disclosed in the financial statements:

the methods of depreciation used

the total cost of each asset heading, and the related accumulated depreciation, at the beginning and end of the period.

a reconciliation of the net book value at the beginning and end of the period, showing additions, disposals, revaluations, and depreciation.

We will look at examples of the layout in the later chapter on limited companies financial statements.)

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IRRECOVERABLE DEBTS AND ALLOWANCES

Introduction

In this chapter we will consider what a company should do in the situation where an accounts receivable does not pay his debt, or where there is some doubt about the eventual payment of all or part of the debt.

We will examine both the accounting entries and the presentation in the financial statements.

2 Definitions

An **irrecoverable debt** is where we are reasonably certain that the receivable is not going to pay. For example, the customer may have died leaving no assets, or may have disappeared without trace.

A **doubtful debt** is where we are worried that the receivable might not pay. For example, the debt may have been outstanding for some time and the customer may not be replying to letters.

(Note that obviously if a customer refuses to pay we are at liberty to take them to court. However, it may be that the costs of going to court will be more than the amount of the debt and that therefore we decide not to do so.)

Treatment in the financial statements

It is important that we do not overstate assets in the Statement of Financial Position (that we apply the prudence concept) and that therefore we should only show the receivables that we feel confident will pay.

Equally, if we realise that we might not receive payment (and therefore lose money) we should show this as an expense in the Income Statement as soon as any doubt arises.

As a result the treatment is as follows:

Irrecoverable debts:

These are removed completely, and will no longer appear as part of accounts receivable.

Doubtful debts:

We will leave the debt outstanding as part of accounts receivable (because we are still trying to collect the money), but we will deduct from receivables an "allowance for receivables" equal to the amount of any doubtful ones, so that the net figure left in the Statement of Financial Position is the total receivables for which we foresee no problem.

Specific allowance for receivables:

This is an allowance for particular (or specific) debts, where we know that there is a problem (for example, the debt has been owing for a long time).

General allowance for receivables:

It may be that in our company it is the nature of the business that on average (say) 5% of our debtors end up not paying. However, it may be that at the year-end all of the individual debts are reasonably recent and we have no way of identifying which particular customers will end up not paying. We do feel, however, that probably 5% of them will not pay. Again, to be prudent, we will For latest course notes, free audio & video lectures, support and forums please visit OpenTuition.com

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IRRECOVERABLE DEBTS AND ALLOWANCES

Chapter 8

deduct 5% from receivables to leave only the amount we are reasonably certain of. As this 5% does not relate to any specific customer, we call it a general allowance for receivables.

In all cases, the cost of removing irrecoverable debts and of allowing for doubtful debts is charged as an expense in the Income Statement.

EXAMPLE 1

At the end of the first year of trading there is a balance on the receivables account of Street of \$62,500. On investigation, this amount is found to include two debts from A plc and B plc which are to be regarded as irrecoverable. The amounts owing are \$2,500 and \$1,600 respectively.

In addition there is \$2,800 owing from Z plc which is regarded as doubtful.

Street has a policy of maintaining a general allowance for receivables of 4%.

Show extracts from th	ne Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement of Street.	
•		
•		
<u></u>		
U		
, \		

4 The accounting entries

Each individual entry that can be required is very easy. The problem in examinations results from the fact that there can be many accounting entries required in a question and it is easy to get lost!

We will illustrate the necessary entries using two worked examples.

EXAMPLE 2

Cilla started business on 1 January 2000. As at 31 December 2000, the balance on her Receivables Account was \$82,000.

On investigation this was found to include the following debts:

- John owed \$5,000 which is irrecoverable
- George owed \$8,000 and is a doubtful debt **(b)**
- Paul owed \$3,000 which is irrecoverable (c)
- Ann owed \$2,000 and is a doubtful debt

In addition is had been decided to have a general provision of 4% of remaining debts.

accounts Show extracts from Cilla'	's Statement of Financial Position and Income Statement
Show extracts from Chia	s statement of Financial Fostion and meonic statement

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Test

QUESTION 1

At 30 June 2007 a company's allowance for receivables was \$93,600. At 30 June 2008 trade receivables totalled \$1,240,800. It was decided to write off debts totalling \$88,800 and to adjust the allowance for receivables to the equivalent of 5 per cent of the trade receivables based on past events.

What figure should appear in the income statement for the year ended 30 June 2008 for these items?

- A \$146,400
- \$52,800 В
- \mathbf{C} \$57,600
- D \$57,240

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

At 31 December 2005 the ledger of X Co. included a \$5,376 allowance for receivables. During the year ended 31 December 2006 irrecoverable debts of \$2,040 were written off. Receivables balances at 31 December 2006 totalled \$173,760 and the company wished to carry forward a general allowance of 2%.

The total charge for irrecoverable debts and change in allowance for receivables in the 2006 income statement is

- \$98.40
- В \$139.20
- C \$3,904.80
- D \$5,515.20

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

Yv Co's trial balance shows a receivables' account balance of \$50,000, this includes the following:

- \$2,500 from Mike who has gone into liquidation
- debts of \$500 + \$1,500 which are to be specially allowed for (2)
- (3)cash received from Ken of \$1,800 which had previously been written off
- cash received from John of \$2,900 which had previously been allowed for (4)

What is the revised receivables figure?

- \$52,200 A
- В \$50,200
- C \$49,300
- D \$45,500

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

At 1 July 2007 a company's allowance for receivables was \$48,000.

At 30 June 2008, trade receivables amounted to \$838,000. It was decided to write off \$72,000 of these debts and adjust the allowance for receivables to \$60,000.

What are the final amounts for inclusion in the company's Statement of Financial Position at 30 June 2008?

	Trade receivables	Allowance for receivables	Net balance
	\$	\$	\$
A	838,000	60,000	778,000
В	766,000	60,000	706,000
C	766,000	108,000	658,000
D	838,000	108,000	730,000

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Chapter 9



INVENTORY AND IAS 2

Introduction

In this chapter we will look at the adjustment for inventory. Although the actual entries are very simple indeed, they may seem a little strange because with modern computerised accounting it is now common to have continuous accounting for inventory. This will be explained within the chapter. We will also consider the methods of valuing inventory and the provisions of IAS 2 Inventories.

The accounting entries

You will recall that whenever we buy goods for resale we debit a purchases account, and that whenever we sell goods we credit a sales account. In all of the examples in these notes until now there has been no inventory at the end of the period and therefore the gross profit was simply the difference between the sales and the purchases.

No entries have been made to an inventory account as part of the day to day bookkeeping, and this will remain the case. Any inventory left at the end of the period will be adjusted for by the accountant when preparing the financial statements.

We will explain the necessary entries by way of three very short examples. Firstly with no inventories; secondly with inventory at the end of the period; and thirdly with inventory at both the beginning and end of the period.

EXAMPLE 1

In year 1 (the first year of trading), a business had purchases of \$20,000 and sales of \$30,000. There was no inventory at the end of the period.

	,	1
(a)		the trading account of the business for year 1, in a form suitable for presentation to the
	owne	rs, and
(b)	Write	up the accounts for purchases and sales, and close them off at the end of the year.

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INVENTORY AND IAS 2	Chapte
XAMPLE 2	
year 2, the business had purchases of \$25,000 and made sa the period of \$4,000.	les of \$34,000. There was inventory at the e
Show the trading account of the business for year 2	, in a form suitable for presentation to
owners, and	
Write up the accounts for purchases, sales, and inve	ntory, and close them off at the end of t
year.	

Example 3

In year 3, the business had purchases of \$38,000 and made sales of \$50,000.

There was inventory at the end of the period of \$6,000.

- Show the trading account of the business for year 3, in a form suitable for presentation to the owners, and
- Write up the accounts for purchases, sales, and inventory, and close them off at the end of the year.

-		

Summary of the accounting entries

At the end of each period, two entries are required:

remove the opening inventory:

Debit Income Statement account

Credit Inventory account

(b) create the closing inventory

Debit Inventory account

Credit Income Statement account

Note that the Inventory account does not keep a day-by-day record of inventory and is therefore only correct at the end of each period after the adjusting entries have been made.

3 The valuation of inventory

The figure for the closing inventory in the above examples would have come from physically counting the inventory. (There are often day by day inventory records kept, but because of the importance of the accuracy of the figure a physical count would still be made as a check.)

The basic rule for valuation is:

Inventory should be valued at the lower of cost and net realisable value.

Cost is the cost of getting the goods to the state that they are in.

Net realisable value is the selling price less any extra costs that there will be in order to get the goods in a state to be sold.

Normally the lower of the two will be the cost (otherwise the business would always be making losses). However, there can be occasions (such as damaged, or obsolete items) when the net realisable value is the lower.

This rule is an application of the prudence concept, in that we will only take profit when it is actually realised (the reason for normally valuing at cost), but that we should charge any loss as soon as it is foreseen (the reason for valuing at net realisable value if this is lower than the cost).

Example 4

A company has closing inventory as follows:

Item	Units	Cost p.u. to date	Estimated further costs to be incurred p.u.	Estimated final selling price p.u.
A	100	10	3	15
В	200	12	5	16
C	150	6	4	11

You are required to calculate the total value of inventory at the end of the period.

•	

The determination of cost 4

The rule in section 3, i.e. that we value at the lower of cost and net realisable value, always applies. However, the cost of an item may not be as obvious as might be seemed.

Suppose that we buy and sell lamps. During the year we have bought 10,000 lamps and at the end of the year we have 1,000 left in inventory.

What was the cost of these 1,000 lamps? The cost is obviously what we paid for them! Suppose at the beginning of the year we were having to pay \$1 a lamp but there have been large price increases and by the end of the year we were having to pay \$5 a lamp (for identical lamps). Are the ones that we have left in inventory old ones (that therefore cost \$1 each) or new ones (that therefore cost \$5 each)?

Unless the cost is actually marked on each lamp, the only way in which we can establish a cost it to have a policy of valuation.

There are four approaches that you should be aware of:

(a) unit cost

This is where we can establish the cost of each individual item (e.g. the cost is marked on each item).

FIFO: first-in-first-out

With this approach we value inventory on the basis that every time we sold items during the year we were selling the oldest ones first

Average cost

Under this approach we value the inventory remaining after each sale at the average cost of the inventory prior to the sale.

Selling price less an estimated profit margin

The first and last approaches do not need illustrating. We will explain the other two approaches by means of an example.

INVENTORY AND IAS 2

Example 5

FIFO:

On 1 November 2002 a company held 300 units of finished goods valued at \$12 each. During November the following purchases took place:

Date	Units pur-	Cost per
2000	chased	unit
10 November	400	\$12.50
20 November	400	\$14
25 November	400	\$15

Goods sold during November were as follows:

Date	Units sold	Sales price per unit
14 November	500	\$20
21 November	400	\$20
28 November	100	\$20

You are required to calculate the value of the closing inventory applying the FIFO and average cost bases of valuation.

Average cost			
$lue{egin{array}{c}}$			
U			

The provisions of IAS 2: Inventories

The following are the main provisions of the accounting standard:

- Inventories should always be valued at the lower of cost and net realisable value (a)
- (b) The cost of inventories should include all costs of purchase, costs of conversion, and other costs incurred in bringing the inventories to their present location and condition.

Overhead expenses which should be excluded from cost are:

- selling costs
 - storage costs
 - abnormal wastage
 - administrative costs

(i.e. only the costs of production should be included)

- For measuring cost, unit cost should be used if costs can be specifically identified. However, if this is not possible, then the benchmark treatments are FIFO and average cost.
- (d) Disclosure requirements:
 - the accounting policy for valuation
 - the inventory total, analysed appropriately
 - the amount of any inventories valued at net realisable value

Continuous inventory recording 6

In the accounting entries illustrated in section 2 of this chapter, the only entries for inventory are made at the end of the period. The inventory account does not keep a day to day record of inventory.

However, in practice it is very common to keep day by day records of inventory, and often (due to the use of computers) these are integrated into the accounting. When this happens, then a record is kept of each movement of inventory.

Although this would make the day by day accounting slightly different, the need to physically count the inventory at the end of the period would remain (as a check on the records). Also, the valuation rules will remain – for example, any damaged inventory might need to be valued lower.



Test

QUESTION 1

A sole trader took some goods costing \$1,920 from inventory for his own use. The normal selling price of the goods is \$3,840.

Which of the following journal entries would correctly record this?

		Dr	Cr
		\$	\$
A	Drawings account	1,920	
	Inventory account		1, 920
B	Drawings account	1,920	
	Purchases account		1, 920
C	Sales account	3,840	
	Drawings account		3,840

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

According to IAS 2 Inventories, which of the following costs should be included in valuing the inventories of a manufacturing company?

- (1) Carriage inwards
- (2) Carriage outwards
 - (3) Depreciation of factory plant
 - (4) General administrative overheads
 - A All four items
 - **B** 1, 2 and 4 only
 - C 2 and 3 only
 - **D** 1 and 3 only

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

A company values its inventory using the first in, first out (FIFO) method. At 1 May 2007 the company had 700 engines in inventory, valued at \$190 each.

During the year ended 30 April 2008 the following transactions took place:

2007			
1 July	Purchased	500 engines	at \$220 each
1 November	Sold	400 engines	for \$160,000
2008			
1 February	Purchased	300 engines	at \$230 each
15 April	Sold	250 engines	for \$125,000

What is the value of the company's closing inventory of engines at 30 April 2008?

- **A** \$188,500
- **B** \$195,500
- **C** \$166,000
- **D** \$106,000

Which of the following statements about inventory valuation for Statement of Financial Position purposes are correct?

- According to IAS Inventories, average cost and FIFO (first in and first out) are both acceptable methods of arriving at the cost of inventories.
- (2)Inventories of finished goods may be valued at labour and materials cost only, without including overheads.
- Inventories should be valued at the lowest of cost, net realisable value and replacement cost. (3)
- It may be acceptable for inventories to be valued at selling price less estimated profit margin. (4)
- 1 and 3 A
- 2 and 3 В
- \mathbf{C} 1 and 4
- 2 and 4 D



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Chapter 10



BOOKS OF PRIME ENTRY

Introduction

We have now covered all of the day-to-day bookkeeping (and also the four types of adjustment required for preparation of the financial statements). However, it would be far too time-consuming for all but very small businesses to record every single transaction in the way we have been doing.

In practice we make the process more efficient by listing each transaction in one of several books (known as the books of prime entry) and only make the double entries in the nominal ledger at the end of each month using the totals from the books of prime entry.

The Books of Prime Entry

As stated in the introduction, these are books in which we simply list each transaction as it occurs. (They are also called Books of First or Original Entry). They do not form part of the double entry – they are simply lists – but they do mean that we have a record.

At the end of each month we will take the totals from these books and perform the double entry in the nominal ledger accounts.

Each business will keep whatever books of prime entry that it finds useful, however the main ones (of which you should be aware) are the following:

The Cash Book

This will list all receipts and payments in and out of the bank.

It will usually be split into two books – one for receipts and one for payments.

The Purchases Journal (or purchase day book)

This will list all purchases on credit

The Sales Journal (or sales day book)

This will list all sales on credit

The Petty Cash Book

The will record all receipts and payments of loose cash.

The Journal

This will be used to record any other, less common, transactions that are not covered by the other books.

(The entries for dealing with the Inventory at the end of a period, that we covered in the previous chapter, are an example of a transaction that may be recorded in this book).

The Receivables and Payables Ledgers 3

You will remember that in the Nominal Ledger we have a Receivables Account and a Payables Account. The balances on these accounts represent the total receivables and total payables respectively. However, they do not show the amounts owing from or to each individual customer or supplier.

This is fine for the Statement of Financial Position – all we need is the total receivables and total payables. However, we obviously need a day by day record for each individual customer and each individual supplier, in order to be able to chase customers and to know how much to pay each supplier.

A record of how much each customer is owing to us will be kept in the Receivables Ledger. There will be an account for each customer and an entry will be made every time we make a sale or receive cash. The information will be obtained from the Sales Journal and from the Cash Receipts Book.

It is extremely important to note that the Receivables Ledger is not normally part of the double entry system of the business, but it simply a memorandum (or note) record of the amount owing to us by each individual.

In a similar way a record will be kept of how much we are owing to each individual supplier in the Payables Ledger.

A comprehensive illustration

Pattie started business on 1 January 2008 as a trader in chairs. Her transactions during her first month were as follows (in date order):

- She paid \$6,000 into a separate bank account for the business.
- (b) The business bought chairs for \$1,600 cash.
- The business sold some of the chairs for \$1,200 cash. (c)
- (d) The business bought a van for \$2,500 cash
- The business bought more chairs for \$400, on credit from Chris.
- (f) The business bought more chairs for \$800 from Chris, on credit
- (g) The business bought chairs for \$600 on credit from William
- (h) The business sold some of the chairs for \$2,100 to Ann on credit.
- The business sold some chairs for \$350, on credit to Edwina (i)
- The business sold some chairs on credit for \$700 to Andrew (j)
- (k) Rent for the month was paid of \$300
- (1)Paid three quarters of the amount due to Chris
- Received \$1,000 from Ann in respect of the amount owing by her (m)
- Pattie paid another \$4,000 of her own money into the business bank account (n)
- Chairs were purchased on credit from William for \$1,000, and on credit from Bertha for \$1,600 (o)
- (p) Chairs were sold for \$1,350 on credit to Tony
- (q) Chairs were sold to George for \$2,100 on credit
- (r) The business paid wages of \$400 to the shop assistant
- Pattie withdrew \$700 cash from the business bank account, for herself.

(there was no closing inventory)



BOOKS OF PRIME ENTRY

	(t	t)	Write u	n the	books	of Prime	Entry	v for	the	month
--	----	----	---------	-------	-------	----------	-------	-------	-----	-------

- Write up the relevant accounts in the Receivables and Payables Ledgers
- (v) Post the totals from the Books of Prime Entry to the relevant accounts in the Nominal

(w)	Prepare a Trial Balanc	e at the end of the	ne month.	
1)				

A diagram of the complete bookkeeping system 5

The petty cash book 6

In the above example, there was no petty cash. This is very common in examinations, and 'cash' refers to all cash – we do not separate between cash at bank and petty cash.

However, in practice there will be two records kept of cash – the cash receipts and cash payments books will record cash in and out of the bank, whereas the petty cash book will record cash in and out of the petty cash box (the loose cash).

Normally this book will record both receipts and payments (in one book) since there are unlikely, in most businesses, to be many transactions. It is also often the only book of prime entry that is actually part of the double entry bookkeeping i.e. we will actually debit the petty cash book with receipts.

Since most companies will have expenditure from petty cash, but no receipts of loose cash, money will periodically have to be taken from the bank. If this is not controlled properly, there is a danger of theft by an employee. One very standard way of controlling is the **imprest system** of petty cash, whereby cash is drawn from the bank at regular intervals e.g. weekly, and the amount drawn s exactly equal to the amount spent during the previous week. As a result the balance is always topped up' to the same fixed amount, which fixes an upper limit on the amount that could ever be stolen.



Test

QUESTION 1

Which of the following explains the imprest system of operating petty cash?

- Weekly expenditure cannot exceed a set amount.
- В The exact amount of expenditure is reimbursed at intervals to maintain a fixed float.
- \mathbf{C} All expenditure out of the petty cash must be properly authorised.
- D Regular equal amounts of cash are transferred into petty cash at intervals.

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Which of the following documents should accompany a payment made to a supplier?

- Supplier statement
- В Remittance advice
- \mathbf{C} Purchase invoice

(1 mark)

QUESTION 3

A computerised accounting system operates using the principle of double entry accounting.

Is this statement true or false?

- True
- B False

(2 marks)





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Chapter 11



JOURNAL ENTRIES

1 Introduction

We mentioned in the last chapter that one of the books of prime entry is known as the journal, and is used to list unusual transactions.

A journal entry is an entry in this book. However, it is also used in the examination to refer to any entry that is written down in words (as opposed to actually entered in t-accounts).

In this chapter we will explain how journal entries are written in the examination.

2 The format of journal entries

A journal entry is the name given to an entry that is written in words

The format is always as follows:

- (a) write the debit entry first, followed by the credit entry on the next line.
- (b) write below the entry a brief description of why the entry is to be made. This is known as the narrative.

EXAMPLE 1

The business purchases goods for resale from Mike for \$2,500 on credit.

You are required to write down the journal entry for this transaction.

•	

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Chapter 12 SALES TAX



1 Introduction

In this chapter we will explain the principles of the operation of a sales tax (e.g. VAT in the UK). We will also explain how to calculate the sales tax on transactions, and the effect on the accounting entries.

The principles of sales tax

If a business is registered with the state for sales tax, then they are required to add the tax to the price of all their sales. They are acting as tax collectors for the state, and the tax that they have charged on their sales is payable to the state periodically (in some countries it is accounted for monthly and in some countries three-monthly). The tax charged on their sales is known as **output** tax.

However, the business will have suffered (i.e. will have been charged) sales tax on their purchases. The tax they have suffered is known as **input tax**.

At the end of each period, the excess of the output tax collected by the company over the input tax suffered by the company is payable to the state.

If in any period the input tax exceeds the output tax then the difference will be repaid by the state.

Illustration:



The calculation of sales tax 3

The rate of sales tax is determined by the state and differs from country to country. Also, many countries have different rates of sales tax depending on the nature of the item being sold.

Some businesses quote their selling price without sales tax, and then add the relevant percentage. Other businesses (particularly shops selling to the general public) quote a selling price including sales tax.

It is important in the examination to be able to identify the net sales price, the gross sales price, and the amount of sales tax.

Example 1
Alpha sells goods at a net (or tax exclusive) price of \$150. The rate of sales tax is 16%.
What is the gross (or tax inclusive) selling price?
Example 2
Beta sells goods at a gross (or tax inclusive) price of \$120. The rate of sales tax is 16%.
What is the net (or tax exclusive) selling price, and what is the amount of the sales tax?

EXAMPLE 3

Gamma sells goods at a gross (or tax inclusive) price of \$220.

The rate of sales tax is 17.5%.

What is the net (or tax exclusive) selling price, and what is the amount of the sales tax?					

4 The accounting entries

Input tax

When a company makes purchases, the amount charged will include sales tax, but the tax suffered will be recovered from the state.

The entry is therefore:

Dr Purchases (with the net cost)

Dr Sales tax (with the amount of the tax)

Cr Payables / Cash (with the gross cost)

Output tax

When a company makes sales, the amount charged includes sales tax, but the tax collected will be paid to the state.

The entry is therefore:

Dr Receivables / Cash (with the gross amount)

Cr Sales (with the net amount)

Cr Sales tax (with the amount of the tax)

The balance on the Sales Tax account will represent the amount of sales tax owing to or from the state.

If, at the end of the period, there is a credit balance, then the balance will be paid to the state:

Dr Sales tax

Cr Cash

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If alternatively there is a debit balance, then the state will repay the business:

Dr Cash

Cr Sales tax

(note that more commonly a debit balance is not repaid, but is left on the account to reduce the payment to the state in the following period)

Example 4					
Delta's purchases and s	ales for Dece	mber are as fo	ollows:		
	Net	Sales tax	Gross		
Purchases on credit	432,000	75,600	507,600		
Sales on credit	624,000	109,200	733,200		
Record these transact	ions in the le	edger accoun	its		
Record these transact	ions in the i	ruger uccoun	163.		
•					
1					

SALES TAX

5 **Discounts**

A company might offer discounts to its customers for two reasons:

- for buying large quantities of goods this is known as a trade discount
- (b) for fast payment – this is known as a cash discount

Trade discounts are deducted from sales price and the sales are recorded as the invoice amount (after the discount).

Cash discounts are only recorded when payment is made, and are entered as an expense. The invoice amount recorded is the amount before any cash discount.

The calculation of the amount of sales tax on the invoice is made on the gross amount less all discounts.

Example 5

Epsilon sells goods to Janice with a selling price before discounts of \$1,200 (before Sales Tax). Janice is given a trade discount of 20% and is offered a discount of 5% if payment is made within 10 days. Janice does make payment within 10 days.

The rate of Sales Tax is 18%

- (a) calculate the amount of the invoice, and
- (b) show the entries to record the invoice, and to record the receipt of Janice's payment,

Test

QUESTION 1

Jim sells goods on credit to John. John receives a 10% trade discount from Jim and a further 5% settlement discount if goods are paid for within 14 days. John bought goods with a list price of \$480,000 from Jim. Sales tax is at 17.5%.

What amount should be included in Jim's receivables ledger for this transaction?

- A
- \$507,600 В
- \mathbf{C} \$482,220
- D \$503,820

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Gareth, a sales tax registered trader purchased a computer for use in his business. The invoice for the computer showed the following costs related to the purchase:

<i>\$</i>
2,136
228
24
48
60
2,496
436.8
2,932.8

How much should Gareth capitalise as a non-current asset in relation to the purchase?

- \$2,932.8 A
- \$2,496 В
- \mathbf{C} \$2,136

(2 marks)







ACCOUNTING FOR LIMITED COMPANIES

Introduction

Most of our examples so far have related to sole traders. In this chapter we will consider limited companies.

All the day to day double entries are as we have covered, but there are various differences that we need to consider in terms of the layout of the financial statements and the terminology,

The key features of a limited company

A limited company is a separate legal entity

The owners of the company (shareholders) are separate from the management (directors)

The shareholders have limited liability for the debts of the company

There are more formalities required (e.g. disclosure, audit)

3 Share capital

The capital paid in by the owners is known as share capital, and each shareholder receives a certificate stating how many shares he owns.

Each share has a nominal value. This is the amount printed on the share. However, this is not necessarily the amount of capital that was paid in - simply the minimum price at which shares may be issued. (Any excess paid when shares are issued is known as the share premium – this will be dealt with later in this chapter).

The amount of the dividend will often be expressed in relation to the nominal value.

For example, if a company has shares with a nominal value of \$1 and declares a dividend of 10%. The dividend will be 10% of \$1 – i.e. 10c.

The nominal value bears no relationship to the market value. The market value is the amount at which shares may be traded between shareholders and shareholders will hope that this will rise over time. There is no direct relevance of the market value to the company (and it will not be shown in the financial statements), but the company will be concerned with it – partly because shareholders will be wanting the market value to increase, and partly because a falling market value will make it harder for the company to raise more finance.

Types of shares

The share capital may be of two types – ordinary shares and preference shares.

Ordinary Shares

These are the normal shares – they give the owners the right to vote at company meetings and to receive dividends.

The amount of the dividend will be recommended by the directors, but will be voted on by the shareholders, and will vary according to the level of profits made by the company.

Dividends are often paid twice a year – one payment during the year (an **interim dividend**) and one payment after the end of the year when the profit is known (a **final dividend**).

Dividends are not an expense of the company, but an appropriation of the profit (equivalent to drawings for a sole trader).

Ordinary shares are sometimes referred to as equity shares.

Preference Shares

Preference shares carry a fixed rate of dividend, and this dividend must be paid before any ordinary dividend.

If the profits are not sufficient to cover the preference dividend, then the preference shareholders get whatever there is and the ordinary shareholders get nothing.

ACCOUNTING FOR LIMITED COMPANIES

5 **Issue of shares**

The company can issue shares at any price it wants, provided that it is not less than the nominal value (the amount printed on the shares and stated in the statutes of the company).

If shares are issued at a price higher than the nominal value, then the extra is known as share premium.

The total raised is effectively the capital, but it is shown as two separate items on the Statement of Financial Position – share capital (the nominal amount) and share premium (the excess).

Example 1
A company is formed on 1 January 2003 and issues 10,000 \$1 shares at a price of \$1.20 each. Show what will appear in the Statement of Financial Position under the heading 'equity'.
lackbox

Rights issues and public issues

There are two main ways in which a company can raise more capital from shareholders.

Rights issue

This is an offer of shares to existing shareholders.

The offer must be to all existing shareholders in the same ratio.

Example 2

A company is formed by the issue of 10,000 \$1 shares at a price of \$1.20 per share. 5 years later, the company has a rights issue of 1 for 5 at \$3 per share. Show what will appear on the Statement of Financial Position under the heading 'equity' after the rights issue (assuming that all of the rights are taken up).

If a shareholder does not want to take up his rights then he does not have to. He can however sell the rights to others and they are then entitled to buy the shares.

Public issue

A public issue is an issue of shares to the general public. The issue is normally advertised in the newspapers and anybody can apply to buy shares.

This will normally be relevant only for companies wishing to raise large amounts of money.

In order to be able to have a public issue, the company must have the permission of existing shareholders and must also become a plc (or public limited company) which normally carries with it more legal requirements.

Reserves 6

'Reserves' is the name given to anything owed to the shareholders above the share capital.

The share premium is one example of a reserve – it is owed to the shareholders, but is classified on the Statement of Financial Position separately from the share capital.

Another example is accumulated profits (or retained earnings). With a sole trader, the capital keeps increasing with any profits made and reducing due to any drawings. For a limited company, the total profits less dividends to date are shown as a separate item on the Statement of Financial Position (under the heading 'capital' or 'equity').

Again, this is an example of a reserve in that it is money owed to the shareholders, but is separate from the share capital.

Other reserves that you should be aware of are:

Revaluation reserve

Any profit on revaluation of an asset is not shown on the Income Statement, but is kept separately in a Revaluation Reserve. This is because it is a profit that has not been realised. It is a requirement that this profit be kept separate.

ACCOUNTING FOR LIMITED COMPANIES

Plant replacement reserve

This is not a legal requirement, but is quite common. Most companies will not distribute all their profits as dividends, but will retain some in order to finance the expansion of the company. Even if the company is not expanding, the assets will need replacing in time and again, the company will need to retain some profits in order to finance it.

In order to ensure that shareholders are aware as to why profits are being retained, some companies will transfer some of the profits to a plant replacement reserve. This is still money owed to the shareholders and is shown as part of the total equity, but showing it as a separate item makes the reason more clear to the shareholders.

Capital and Revenue Reserves.

It is a rule that a company may only distribute to shareholders (as dividend) any realised profits that have been made. Anything else – original capital or unrealised profits may not be distributed as dividend. They may only be paid to shareholders if the company closes down, and only then provided that all liabilities have been paid off in full.

Capital reserves are those reserves that may not be distributed as dividends. The two examples of which you must be aware are Share Premium account and Revaluation account.

Revenue reserves are those reserves that may be distributed as dividends. Examples of which you should be aware are Retained Earnings and Plant Replacement Reserve.

The reason for this rule about only being able to distribute realised profits is to protect creditors. If the rule did not exist then it would be possible to create fictitious profits by, for example, revaluing assets. The high profits could then be used to pay high dividends, leaving nothing for the creditors! This clearly can not be allowed.

Bonus issue of shares

A bonus issue of shares (or a scrip issue, or capitalisation issue) is an issue of free shares to existing shareholders, in proportion to their existing shareholdings. It is done by using the reserves of the company.

No cash or other consideration is passed from the shareholders to the company.

The bonus issue is financed from reserves, and the necessary bookkeeping entry is:

Debit Reserves

Credit Share Capital

Any reserve may be used to finance the bonus issue. However, capital reserves will be used in preference to revenue reserves.

The total amount owing to shareholders in the Statement of Financial Position will not change, and the issue of bonus shares is generally used as a way of 'tidying up' the Statement of Financial Position.

8 Types of debt

A company may have long term debt borrowings, just as a sole trader.

However, although they may have simple long term loans, it is common to issue debt and therefore raise the finance from many people instead of just from one source.

Debt is issued in a similar way to share capital, and the lenders will receive a certificate. However, it is only debt and the lenders will receive fixed interest each year, which is an expense in the Income Statement.

The treatment in the Statement of Financial Position is no different from that for a sole trader - it is shown under the heading 'non-current liabilities'. It can have several names - e.g. 10% debentures; 8% loan notes; 9% bonds. In each case the quoted % refers to the rate of interest that has been promised.

9 **Taxation**

A limited company is a separate legal entity and therefore will pay tax. (A sole trader will pay tax, but as an individual on all his income. The business itself is not a legal entity and will not itself pay tax).

As a result, there will normally be a tax expense in the Income Statement of a company. Also, since it is not normally possible for the tax to be calculated until the end of the year, there will normally be a liability for tax on the Statement of Financial Position (a current liability).

You cannot be expected to calculate tax in this examination.



10 The layout of Financial Statements

The layout of the financial statements is very similar to that of a sole trader. There are however a few important differences:

- (a) the capital will be shown differently in the Statement of Financial Position
- (b) the company will prepare two income statements, one for internal management use which is exactly the same as for a sole trader, but also a summarised version. The reason is that the financial statements of a limited company are available to the general public and they are therefore only required to make a summary version available.
- (c) the financial statements will also include a 'Statement of Changes in Equity' in order to inform shareholders as to why the equity balances have changed over the year.

Note that a limited company will normally also be required to produce a Statement of Cash Flows. We will deal with this in a separate chapter

(Note also, that in practice the financial statements will always show last years figures also (or comparative figures). However you will never be required to show these in examinations.



Finance costs (Interest)

Profit before tax

Income Tax expense

Profit for the year

ACCOLLATING FOR LIAMTER COMMONAUTE		
ACCOUNTING FOR LIMITED COMPANIES		
Statement of Financial Position as at 31	December 2008	
ASSETS	\$	\$
Non-current assets		
Property, plant and equipment	100,000	
Goodwill	20,000	
		120,000
Current assets		
Inventories	5,000	
Trade receivables	8,000	
Prepayments	500	
Cash	1,500	
		15,000
Total assets		135,000
EQUITY AND LIABILITIES		
Capital and reserves		
Share capital	50,000	
Capital reserves	15,000	
Retained earnings	42,000	4.0= 0.00
1. 1.100		107,000
Non-current liabilities	20.000	
10% Loan Notes	20,000	20.000
Comment linkilising		20,000
Current liabilities	6,000	
Trade and other payables	6,000	
Short term borrowings		0,000
Total equity and liabilities		8,000 135,000
Total equity and habilities		133,000
Income Statement for year ended at 31	December 2008	
		<i>\$</i>
Revenue		100,000
Cost of sales		(40,000)
Gross profit		60,000
Other income		2,000
		62,000
Distribution costs		(26,000)
Administrative expenses		(9,000)
·		

27,000

(2,000)

25,000

(5,000)

20,000

ACCOUNTING FOR LIMITED COMPANIES

	Share capital \$	Share pre- mium \$	Revaluation reserve \$	Retained Earnings \$	Total \$	
Balance b/f	40,000	-	-	27,000	67,000	
Surplus on revaluation			5,000		5,000	
Net profit for the period				20,000	20,000	
Dividends paid				(5,000)	(5,000)	
Issue of share capital	10,000	10,000			20,000	
Balance c/f	50,000	10,000	5,000	42,000	107,000	





Test

QUESTION 1

Should dividends paid appear on the face of a company's income statement?

- В No

(2 marks)

Question 2

At 31 December 2004 a company's capital structure was as follows:

\$

Ordinary share capital

(500,000 shares of 25c each) 125,000 Share premium account 100,000

In the year ended 31 December 2005 the company made a rights issue of 1 share for every 2 held at \$1 per share and this was taken up in full. Later in the year the company made a bonus issue of 1 share for every 5 held, using the share premium account for the purpose.

What was the company's capital structure at 31 December 2005?

Ordinary share cap	oital Share	ргетіит ассоип	t
--------------------	-------------	----------------	---

	\$	\$
A	450,000	125,000
В	225,000	250,000
C	225,000	325,000
D	212,500	262,500

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

Which of the following should appear as items in a company's statement of changes in equity?

- Profit for the financial year
- Income from investments (2)
- Gain on revaluation of non-current assets (3)
- (4)Dividends paid
- 1, 3 and 4
- В 1 and 4 only
- 2 and 3 only C
- 1, 2 and 3 D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

The following information is available about a company's dividends:

		Ф
2005		
Sept.	Final dividend for the year ended 30 June 2005 paid (declared August 2005)	100,000
2006		
March	Interim dividend for the year ended 30 June 2006 paid	40,000
Sept.	Final dividend for the year ended 30 June 2006 paid (declared August 2006)	120,000

What figures, if any, should be disclosed in the company's income statement for the year ended 30 June 2006 and its Statement of Financial Position as at that date?

	Inco	me statement for the period	Statement of Financial Position liability
A		\$160,000 deduction	\$120,000
В		\$140,000 deduction	nil
C		nil	\$120,000
D		nil	nil

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

At 30 June 2005 the capital and reserves of Smith, a limited liability company, were:

	\$m
Share capital	
Ordinary shares of \$1 each	100
Share premium account	80

During the year ended 30 June 2006, the following transactions took place:

A bonus issue of one ordinary share for every two held, using the share premium 1 September 2005

account.

A fully subscribed rights issue of two ordinary shares for every five held at that 1 January 2006

date, at \$1.50 per share.

What would the balances on each account be at 30 June 2006?

	Share capital	Share premium account	
	\$m	\$m	
A	210	110	
В	210	60	
C	240	30	
D	240	80	
			(2 marks)

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STATEMENTS OF CASH FLOWS

Introduction

Companies are required by IAS 7 Statements of Cash Flows to include a Statement of Cash Flows in their financial statements.

In this chapter we will look at the required format and explain how to prepare a Statement of Cash Flows.

2 Description

A Statement of Cash Flows is simply a summary of the cash receipts and payments. The purpose is to provide users of the financial statements with more information than is provided just by the Income Statement and Statement of Financial Position.

For example, the company may have issued shares during the year, but the cash balance at the end of the year may be lower than at the end of the previous year. An ordinary shareholder may be puzzled by this, but maybe the explanation is that the company had very large expenditure on non-current assets. To you as an accountant, this may be obvious from inspection of the Statement of Financial Position, but a Statement of Cash Flows will make it more obvious to the shareholder.

3 The indirect method

There are two approaches allowed in preparing a Statement of Cash Flows – the direct method and the indirect method. We will look at the indirect method first which is more common in practice.



Statement of Cash Flows - PROFORMA

X plc Statement of Cash Flows for the year ended 31 December 2008

7		
	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>
Cash flows from operating activities		
Net profit before taxation	X	
Adjustments for:		
Depreciation	X	
Profit on sale of non-current assets	(x)	
Interest expense	_X_	
Op. profit before working cap. changes	X	
Increase in accounts receivable	(x)	
Increase in inventories	(x)	
Increase in accounts payable	<u>X</u>	
Cash generated from operations	X	
Interest paid	(x)	
Dividends paid	(x)	
Taxation paid	<u>(x)</u>	
Net cash from operating activities		X
Cash flows from investing activities		
Purchase of non-current assets	(x)	
Sale proceeds of non-current assets	X	
Interest received	X	
Dividends received	<u>X</u>	
Net cash from investing activities		X
Cash flows from financing activities		
Proceeds from issue of shares	X	
Repayment of debenture loan	<u>(x)</u>	
Net cash from financing activities		_X_
Net increase in cash & cash equivalents		X
Cash and cash equivalents b/f		_X_
Cash and cash equivalents c/f		_X_



EXAMPLE

	2008		2007	
	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>
ASSETS				
Non-current assets		545,000		410,000
Current assets:				
Inventories	90,000		81,000	
Receivables	83,000		75,000	
Cash	45,000		64,000	
		218,000		220,000
		763,000		630,000
EQUITY AND LIABILITIES				
Capital and reserves:				
\$1 ordinary shares		150,000		100,000
Share Premium Account		20,000		
Accumulated profits		476,000		431,000
		646,000		531,000
Current liabilities:				
Trade payables	97,000		69,000	
Corporation tax payable	20,000		30,000	
		117,000		99,000
		763,000		630,000
The same of the sa	1 D 1 2000			
ncome statement for the year ended 3	1 December 2008		d	
T			\$	
Turnover			1,000,000	
Cost of sales			700,000	
Gross profit			300,000	
Administrative expenses			199,000	
Operating profit			101,000	
Interest			1,000	
Profit before tax			100,000	
Tax			39,000	
Profit after tax			\$61,000	
The following information is relevant:				
1) Administrative expenses include	depreciation of \$4	10,000		
2) During the year there had been s			\$30,000. The	assets sold had origin
cost \$50,000 and had a net book				8
Dividends paid during the year w	rere \$16,000			
Produce a Statement of Cash Flows i	for the week and	d 21 Docomb	or 2008	

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The direct method 4

In the previous paragraph, where we used the indirect method, we established the cash flow from operations by taking the profit from the Income Statement and working backwards – eliminating non-cash items and adjusting for changes in working capital.

The alternative approach is to calculate the cash flow from operations directly by taking the cash receipts from customers and deducting the cash payments. This is known as the direct method. (Note that the rest of the Statement of Cash Flows stays the same as before.)

The layout for arriving at the cash flow from operations is as follows:

Cash received from customers	X
Cash payments to suppliers	(x)
Cash paid to and on behalf of employees	(x)
Other cash payments	(x)
Net cash inflow from operating activities	X

EXAMPLE 2

Gatis has the following Income Statement for the year ended 31 December 2007:

	<i>\$</i>
Revenue	1,200,000
Cost of sales	(840,000)
Gross profit	360,000
Distribution and administrative expenses	(120,000)
Net profit before tax	240,000

The following are extracts from Gatis's Statements of Financial Position:

	2007	2006	
	\$	<i>\$</i>	
Current assets			
Inventory	160,000	140,000	
Trade receivables	259,000	235,000	
Current liabilities			
Trade payables	168,000	138,000	

You are given the following further information:

- expenses include depreciation of \$36,000, bad debt write-offs of \$14,000 and employment costs of \$42,000
- (2)during the year Gatis disposed of a non-current asset for \$24,000 which had a book value of \$18,000, the profit on which had been netted off expenses.

You are required to show:

- how the cash generated from operations would be presented on the Statement of Cash Flows using the indirect method.
- (b) how the cash generated from operations would be presented on the Statement of Cash Flows under the direct method.

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STATEMENTS OF CASH FLOWS

Test

QUESTION 1

Part of a company's Statement of Cash Flows is shown below:

	\$'000
Operating profit	8,640
Depreciation charges	(2,160)
Increase in inventory	(330)
Increase in accounts payable	440

The following criticisms of the extract have been made:

- (1) Depreciation charges should have been added, not deducted.
- (2) Increase in inventory should have been added, not deducted.
- (3) Increase in accounts payable should have been deducted, not added.

Which of the criticisms are valid?

- 2 and 3 only
- B 1 only
- C 1 and 3 only
- 2 only

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Which of the following items could appear in a company's Statement of Cash Flows?

- Surplus on revaluation of non-current assets
- Proceeds of issue of shares (2)
- (3) Proposed dividend
- Dividends received
- 1 and 2
- В 3 and 4
- 1 and 3 C
- 2 and 4 D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

In a Statement of Cash Flows which of the items below would not appear on the Statement of Cash Flows?

- The nominal value of debentures redeemed at par during the year
- The dividends paid to preferred shareholders during the year
- \mathbf{C} The income statement charge for taxation for the year
- D The purchase of long term investments

(2 marks)

DATA FOR QUESTIONS 4 AND 5

Extracts from a company's Statements of Financial Position show the following non-current assets at net book value:

	30 June	
	20X8	20X9
	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>
Intangible assets:		
Development expenditure	60,000	95,000
Tangible assets:		
Freehold	750,000	1,230,000
Plant and machinery	320,000	370,000
Fixtures and fittings	105,000	90,000
Tixtures and fittings	105,000	70,000

The expenditure for the year on development projects had been \$55,000.

The depreciation charge for tangible assets was \$100,000.

QUESTION 4

What is the amortisation charge included in the reconciliation of operating profit to net cash flows from operating activities?

- \$20,000 A
- **B** \$60,000
- \$95,000
- D \$115,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

What is the additions figure for tangible non-current assets included under investing activities?

- \$515,000 A
- В \$615,000
- \mathbf{C} \$175,000
- \$1,690,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 6

Which of the following statements are correct?

- A Statement of Cash Flows prepared using the direct method produces a different figure for operating cash flow from that produced if the indirect method is used.
- (2)Rights issues of shares do not feature in Statements of Cash Flows.
- A surplus on revaluation of a non-current asset will not appear as an item in a Statement of Cash Flows (3)
- A profit on the sale of a non-current asset will appear as an item under Cash Flows from Investing Activities in a Statement of Cash Flows.
- 1 and 4 A
- В 2 and 3
- \mathbf{C} 3 only
- D 2 and 4

(2 marks)

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Chapter 15



BANK RECONCILIATIONS

1 Introduction

There are many errors that can be made in the bookkeeping – for example, it is very easy to enter a number incorrectly – and it is therefore important to carry out as many checks as possible on the accuracy.

One of the most obvious checks is to compare the cash book with the bank statement. The balance on both should be the same. If there are any errors then this check should discover that they exist. In principle this check is very simple, but it can be a little more involved due, mainly, to the use of cheques in many countries.

2 Terminology

Before we explain the nature of bank reconciliations, it is important to make sure that you are familiar with the terminology related to bank transactions.

Balance on bank statement

One important aspect to be aware of is that if you put money into the bank, the bank statement will show a credit balance. This is despite the fact that in the books of the business we will debit the cash account and say that we have a debit balance. The reason for this is that the bank statements is a reflection of the balance on your account in the books of the bank. As far as the bank is concerned, they owe you money – hence the credit balance.

It is very easy to get confused in an exam question, and so be very careful. A credit balance on the bank statement means that you have money, whereas a debit balance on the bank statement means that you are overdrawn.

Cheques

Drawer (of cheque)

Unpresented cheques (or outstanding cheques)

Dishonoured cheques



Reasons why the balance on the bank statement may differ from the balance in the cash account

If there is a difference between the balance on the bank statement and the balance in the cash account, then clearly we need to find out why.

There are three types of situations that can result in a difference:

cash book errors and omissions Examples:

If there are any cash book errors or omissions, then these must be corrected

bank mistakes Examples:

If there are any errors by the bank, then the bank must be informed and these errors corrected by the bank

'timing differences'

Even if all the entries in the bank statement and the cash book are correct, the two balances are unlikely to agree. This is because of unpresented cheques and lodgements not credited. The receipts and payments have been correctly entered in the cash book, but because of the time delay they have not yet appeared in the bank statement. This is not a mistake on the bank's part – the transactions will appear at some time in the future – and so no correction is necessary. However, if we list the unpresented cheques and lodgements not yet credited, we should be able to explain (or reconcile) the difference between the balances. If we cannot reconcile the two then there must be errors remaining which we must find.

The statement reconciling the balances is called a bank reconciliation statement.

The preparation of a bank reconciliation statement 4

- compare the cash account to the bank statement and tick off all items that agree
- any remaining items must be either errors or timing differences
- correct any errors in the cash account by putting through the necessary debits or credits (in the examination write up a t-account, starting with the balance given in the question and ending with the correct balance)
- prepare a bank reconciliation statement. This is always a statement (not a t-account), starting with the balance on the bank statement, listing any bank errors and timing differences, and ending with what should be the corrected balance in the cash account.

Pro-forma bank reconciliation statement:

Balance per bank statement	X
Add/Less bank errors	X
	X
Add: Lodgements not credited	X

Less: Unpresented cheques Balance as per (corrected) cash account



BANK RECONCILIATIONS

EXAMPLE 1

At 31 December 2007, the balance on the cash account was \$11,820 (DR), but the balance appearing on the bank statement was \$15,000 (CR).

The reasons for the difference were as follows:

- (1) Bank charges of \$20
- (2) A payment of \$1,200 had been entered in the cash account as \$2,100
- (3) A cheque for \$200 had been dishonoured

(4) There were unpresented cheques totalling \$6,500	
(5) Lodgements of \$4,000 had not yet appeared on the bank statement	
Calculate the correct balance on the cash account, and prepare a bank reconciliation statement.	

Test

QUESTION 1

The following bank reconciliation statement has been prepared by a trainee accountant:

	<i>\$</i>
Overdraft per bank statement	9,264
less: Outstanding cheques	21,984
	12,720
add: Deposits credited after date	40,056
Cash at bank as calculated above	52,776

What should be the correct balance per the cash book?

A \$52,776 balance at bank as stated

B \$8,808 balance at bank

C \$27,336 balance at bank

D \$8,808 overdrawn.

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

- In preparing a company's bank reconciliation statement at March 2006, the following items are causing the difference between the cash book balance and the bank statement balance:
- (1) Bank charges \$912
 - (2) Error by bank \$2,400 (cheque incorrectly debited to the account)
 - (3) Lodgements not credited \$10,992
 - (4) Outstanding cheques \$3,540
 - Direct debit \$840 (5)
 - Cheque paid in by the company and dishonoured \$960. (6)

Which of these items will require an entry in the cash book?

- 2, 4 and 6
- 1, 5 and 6 B
- C 3, 4 and 5
- **D** 1, 2 and 3

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

Which of the following statements about bank reconciliations are correct?

- In preparing a bank reconciliation, unpresented cheques must be deducted from a balance of cash at bank shown in the bank statement.
- A cheque from a customer paid into the bank but dishonoured must be corrected by making a debit entry in the cash book.
- An error by the bank must be corrected by an entry in the cash book. (3)
- An overdraft is a debit balance in the bank statement.
- A 1 and 3
- 2 and 3 B
- C 1 and 4
- D 2 and 4

(2 marks)

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Chapter 16



CONTROL ACCOUNTS

Introduction

The last chapter – bank reconciliations – covered a method of checking the accuracy of the entry of transactions concerning cash in and out of the bank.

However, a great many of the transactions of a company involve purchases and sales on credit. It is important to have a way of checking these also. This chapter covers a way of checking them.

It is important that you revise, and are happy with, the earlier chapter on Books of Prime Entry. You will not be asked to write up these books, but, as you will see, it is very likely that you will be presented with errors that have been made in these books.

Control Accounts

You will remember that in practice, the following occurs if we make a sale on credit:

- the invoice is listed in the Receivables Journal (no double entry)
- the amount of the invoice is taken from the Receivables Journal and entered in the account of the relevant customer in the Receivables Ledger (not double entry)
- at the month end, the total of the Receivables Journal is posted in the Nominal Ledger:

Debit: Receivables account,

Credit: Sales account

In a similar way, if cash is received from a customer:

- the amount is listed in the Cash Receipts book (no double entry)
- the amount of the receipt is taken from the Cash Receipts book and entered in the account of the (b) relevant customer in the Receivables Ledger (no double entry)
- at the month end, the total of the Cash Receipts book is posted in the Nominal Ledger:

Debit: Cash account:

Credit: Receivables account.

As a result, we end up with several 'receivables' accounts. We have an account for each individual customer in the Receivables Ledger, and also a (total) Receivables account in the Nominal Ledger.

To avoid any confusion, we call the account in the Nominal Ledger the Total Receivables Account, or (more commonly) the Receivables Ledger Control Account.

An obvious check that we can perform every month is to ask the bookkeeper in charge of the Receivables Ledger to list all the individual balances and to total them up. This total should agree with the balance on the Receivables Ledger Control Account. If the two figures do not agree, then there must be an error (or errors) that need to be corrected.

If the Receivables Ledger Control Account contains errors, then our Financial Statements will be incorrect. If the Receivables Ledger contains errors, then we risk chasing individual customers for the wrong amounts, or alternatively not chasing debtors when we should be doing so!

This check will not discover all types of errors, but is a simple exercise to perform and certainly detect many types of errors.

CONTROL ACCOUNTS

Returns, discounts, and contra entries 3

Before we look at examples of control accounts, there are three 'special' types of entry that we need to consider.

These entries may be necessary in any type of examination question, but are particularly common in control account questions.

Returns

Suppose we sell goods for \$500 on credit to Mr X.

A week later, Mr X returns half the goods to us (and we accept the return).



Clearly, the return must be recorded in the individual account in the Receivables Ledger, and the Receivables Ledger Control Account in the Nominal Ledger.

Discounts

Suppose we sell goods for \$1,000 on credit to Mr Y, and offer him a 5% discount if he pays the invoice within 1 month.

Mr Y does pay the account within 1 month and therefore pays us only \$950



Clearly, the discount must be recorded in the individual account in the Receivables Ledger, and the Receivables Ledger Control Account in the Nominal Ledger.



Contra entries

Suppose we sell goods for \$800 on credit to Mr Z.

Mr Z also happens to be a supplier, and we buy goods from him for \$1,000 on credit.

We agree with Mr Z that instead of him paying us in full, and us paying him in full, we will simply pay to him the net amount owing of \$200.



This bookkeeping entry to 'cancel' or 'set-off' the balances is known as a **contra entry**.

Clearly, the contra entry must be recorded in the individual account in the Receivables Ledger, and the Receivables Ledger Control Account in the Nominal Ledger.

The Payables Ledger Control Account

Throughout this chapter so far, we have been using sales on credit to illustrate the use of Control Accounts.

However, exactly the same situation occurs with purchases on credit, and the balance on the Total Payables Account – or Payables Ledger Control Account – should equal the total of the list of individual balances in the Payables Ledger.

Returns, discounts and contra entries stand to be applicable in exactly the same sort of way as with the Receivables Ledger Control Account.



CONTROL ACCOUNTS

EXAMPLE 1

Scimitar Co, proves the accuracy of its receivables and payables ledgers by preparing monthly control accounts. At 1 September 2007 the following balances existed in the company's accounting records, and the control accounts agreed:

	Debit	Credit
	\$	\$
Receivables ledger control account	186,220	_
Payables ledger control account	_	89,290

The following are the totals of transactions which took place during September 2007, as extracted from the company's records.

	\$
Credit sales	101,260
Credit purchases	68,420
Sales returns	9,160
Purchases returns	4,280
Cash received from customers	91,270
Cash paid to suppliers	71,840
Cash discounts allowed	1,430
Cash discounts received	880
Irrecoverable debts written off	460
Refunds to customers	300
Contra settlements	480

Prepare the receivables ledger control and payables ledger control (total) accounts for the month of September 2007.



Test

QUESTION 1

The following control account has been prepared by a trainee accountant:

Receivables ledger control account

\$		\$
740,640	Cash received from credit customers	353,280
370,080	Discounts allowed to credit customers	3,360
211,440	Interest charged on overdue accounts	5,760
11,040	Irrecoverable debts written off	11,760
	Allowance for receivables	6,720
	Closing balance	952,320
1,333,200		1,333,200
	740,640 370,080 211,440 11,040	740,640 Cash received from credit customers 370,080 Discounts allowed to credit customers 211,440 Interest charged on overdue accounts 11,040 Irrecoverable debts written off Allowance for receivables Closing balance

What should the closing balance be when all the errors made in preparing the receivables ledger control account have been corrected?

- \$948,480 A
- В \$730,320
- \mathbf{C} \$742,800
- \$737,040

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Peter received a statement of account from a supplier Paul, showing a balance to be paid of \$8,950. Peter's payables ledger account for Paul shows a balance due to Paul of \$4,140.

Investigation reveals the following:

- (1) Cash paid to Paul \$4,080 has not been allowed for by Paul
- Peter's ledger account has not been adjusted for \$40 of cash discount disallowed by Paul. (2)

What discrepancy remains between Peter's and Paul's records after allowing for these items?

- \$690 A
- В \$770
- \mathbf{C} \$9,850
- D \$9,930



QUESTION 3

Edgar is a sole trader who does not keep full accounting records. The following details relate to his transactions with credit customers and suppliers for the year ended 30 June 2008:

	<i>\$</i>
Trade receivables, 1 July 2007	130,000
Trade payables, 1 July 2007	60,000
Cash received from customers	686,400
Cash paid to suppliers	302,800
Discounts allowed	1,400
Discounts received	2,960
Contra between payables and receivables ledgers	2,000
Trade receivables, 30 June 2008	181,000
Trade payables, 30 June 2008	84,000

What figure should appear in Edgar's income statement for the year ended 30 June 2008 for purchases?

- **A** \$331,760
- **B** \$740,800
- C \$283,760
- **D** \$330,200

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

- The total of the list of balances in Adele's payables ledger was \$438,900 at 30 June 2008. This balance did not agree with Adele's payables ledger control account balance. The following errors were discovered:
 - (1) A contra entry of \$980 was recorded in the payables ledger control account, but not in the payables ledger.
 - (2) The total of the purchase returns journal was undercast by \$1,000.
 - (3) An invoice for \$4,344 was posted to the supplier's account as \$4,434.

What amount should Adele report in its Statement of Financial Position as accounts payable at 30 June 2008?

- **A** \$436,830
- **B** \$438,010
- C \$439,790
- **D** \$437,830

(2 marks)

Question 5

A debit entry to the sales account could represent

- A cash sales
- **B** credit sales or the correction of an error
- **C** irrecoverable debts written off
- **D** the correction of an error or goods returned

QUESTION 6

The payables ledger control account below contains a number of errors:

D1.1	1 - 1	1	
Payables	ieager	control	account

	rayabies iei	iger control account	
Opening balance			
(amounts owed to suppliers)	318,600	Purchases	1,268,600
		Contras against debit	
Cash paid to suppliers	1,364,300	balances in receivables ledger	48,000
Purchases returns	41,200	Discounts received	8,200
Refunds received from suppliers	2,700	Closing balance	402,000
	\$1,726,800		\$1,726,800
			<u> </u>

All items relate to credit purchases.

What should the closing balance be when all the errors are corrected?

- \$128,200 \mathbf{A}
- B \$509,000
- \mathbf{C} \$224,200
- D \$144,600



Chapter 17



ADJUSTMENTS TO PROFIT AND SUSPENSE ACCOUNTS

1 Introduction

These are two areas, often related, asking you to show the effect of correcting errors. They are a good way of testing your knowledge and understanding of bookkeeping, without requiring you to produce lots of t-accounts.

Adjustments to profit

In these questions, a set of draft (or rough) financial statements have been prepared. However, subsequently various errors and omissions have been discovered.

Our task is to calculate the correct profit. However, you are not required to produce a new Income Statement. Therefore we produce a statement which starts with the profit from the financial statements, adds or subtracts to adjust for the various errors listed, and ends with the correct profit.

EXAMPLE 1

Alison's draft financial statements show a net profit for the year of \$52,380. Subsequently, the following errors come to light:

- (a) No entry has been made for \$563 cash received from Adele, a customer whose debt was written off last year as irrecoverable.
- (b) Closing inventory valued in the draft accounts at its cost of \$8,920, was believed to have a potential sales value of \$7,930
- (c) Goods which had cost \$2,000 had been sent to a customer just before the year end on a sale or return basis. These had been accounted for as a firm sale, with a profit of 20% of cost. No confirmation of the sale had been received from the customer.
- (d) A payment for rent charged in full to the current year included \$490 which relates to the next accounting period. No adjustment had been made for this when preparing the draft accounts.

repare a s	tatement of	adjustments to	o profit in or	der to calcula	ate the correc	t net profit to	r the year.

ADJUSTMENTS TO PROFIT AND SUSPENSE ACCOUNTS	Pa Chap

3 **Suspense Accounts**

In an earlier chapter we looked at the Trial Balance. The trial balance should balance, and if it does not then there must be errors somewhere that need to be found.

However, it is likely that the difference on the trial balance is the net result of several errors. In practice, we would have to start checking the bookkeeping entries until we found an error. It would then be useful to have a note of how much errors still remained in order that we would know when we had finally found all the errors!

A common way of doing this (and a common exercise in the examination) is to open a t-account called the Suspense Account (or Difference Account) with a balance equal to the trial balance difference. This is in some ways an artificial account, in that had the double entries all been correct then there would be no trial balance difference.

However, it does provide a useful check when finding errors. Every time we find an error in the bookkeeping, we will correct it and at the same time make an entry in the Suspense Account to show that part of the difference had been found. When all the errors have been found, the balance on the Suspense Account will fall to zero.

EXAMPLE 2

Biruta has prepared the following trial balance.

	Dr	Cr
Motor Van, at cost	5,500	
Inventory	6,230	
Receivables Ledger Control	19,167	
Cash at bank	218	
Petty Cash	50	
Payables Ledger Control Account		13,166
Prepayments	490	
Accruals		70
Motor Van – accumulated depreciation		2,000
Sales		93,870
Purchases	76,182	
Rent expense	1,200	
Wages expense	12,500	
Electricity expense	516	
Telephone expense	230	
Accountancy expense	500	
Van expenses	280	
Depreciation expense	1,000	
Capital		10,000
	124,063	119,106

The trial balance does not balance, and Biruta realises that this means that there must be errors in the bookkeeping.

On investigation, the following errors are discovered:

- A transposition error was made when posting a sales day book total of \$8,132. The correct figure was entered in the receivables ledger control account, but it was posted to the sales account as \$1,832
- The balance on the electricity account was incorrectly recorded and should read \$615
- (c) One cash payment for electricity of \$200 had been recorded throughout as \$20
- When accounting for the telephone accrual of \$70 at the year end, a single entry had been made. It was the expense account entry that had been missed out.
- A mistake had been made when casting the purchases account. The total should have been \$77,356

You are required to open a suspense account. For each error make any relevant entries in the suspense account.



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ADJUSTMENTS TO PROFIT AND SUSPENSE ACCOUNTS

Test

OUESTION 1

The debit side of a company's trial balance totals \$1920 more than the credit side.

Which one of the following errors would fully account for the difference?

- A \$960 paid for plant maintenance has been correctly entered in the cash book and credited to the plant asset account.
- В Discount received \$960 has been debited to discount allowed account
- A receipt of \$1920 for commission receivable has been omitted from the records
- The petty cash balance of \$1920 has been omitted from the trial balance.

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

A company's income statement for the year ended 31 December 2005 showed a net profit of \$200,640. It was later found that \$43,200 paid for the purchase of a motor van had been debited to the motor expenses account. It is the company's policy to depreciate motor vans at 25% per year on the straight line basis, with a full year's charge in the year of acquisition.

What would the net profit be after adjusting for this error?

- \$254,640
- \$168,240 В
- C \$233,040
- D \$243,840

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

Tom's trial balance failed to agree and a suspense account was opened for the difference. The following errors were found in Tom's accounting records:

- In recording an issue of shares at par, cash received of \$333,000 was credited to the ordinary share capital account as \$330,000
- (2)Cash \$2,800 paid for plant repairs was correctly accounted for in the cash book but was credited to the plant asset account
- (3)The petty cash book balance \$500 had been omitted from the trial balance
- (4)A cheque for \$78,400 paid for the purchase of a motor car was debited to the motor vehicles account as \$87,400.

Which of the errors will require an entry to the suspense account to correct them?

- 1, 2 and 4 only
- В 1, 2, 3 and 4
- \mathbf{C} 1 and 4 only
- D 2 and 3 only

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

In October 2006 James sold some goods on sale or return terms for \$2,500. Their cost to James was \$1,500. The transaction has been treated as a credit sale in James's financial statements for the year ended 31 October 2006. In November 2006 the customer accepted half of the goods and returned the other half in good condition.

What adjustments, if any, should be made to the financial statements?

- Sales and receivables should be reduced by \$2,500, and closing inventory increased by \$1,500. A
- В Sales and receivables should be reduced by \$1,250, and closing inventory increased by \$750
- C Sales and receivables should be reduced by \$2,500, with no adjustment to closing inventory
- D No adjustment is necessary

QUESTION 5

A business received a delivery of goods on 29 June 2006, which was included in inventory at 30 June 2006. The invoice for the goods was recorded in July 2006.

What effect will this have on the business?

- Profit for the year ended 30 June 2006 will be overstated.
- (2)Inventory at 30 June 2006 will be understated.
- (3)Profit for the year ending 30 June 2007 will be overstated.
- (4)Inventory at 30 June 2006 will be overstated.
- 1 and 2 A
- 2 and 3 В
- \mathbf{C} 1 only
- D 1 and 4

(2 marks)

QUESTION 6

Which of the following errors would cause a trial balance not to balance?

- An error in the addition in the cash book.
- (2)Failure to record a transaction at all.
- Cost of a motor vehicle debited to motor expenses account. The cash entry was correctly made. (3)
- Goods taken by the proprietor of a business recorded by debiting purchases and crediting drawings account.
- 1 only A
- В 1 and 2 only
- 3 and 4 only \mathbf{C}
- All four items D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 7

The bookkeeper of Barbara made the following mistakes:

Discounts allowed \$3,840 was credited to the discounts received account

Discounts received \$2,960 was debited to the discounts allowed account

Which journal entry will correct the errors?

i i		DR	CR
A	Discounts allowed	\$7,680	
	Discounts received		\$5,920
1 /	Suspense account		\$1,760
В	Discounts allowed	\$880	
	Discounts received	\$880	
	Suspense account		\$1,760
C	Discounts allowed	\$6,800	
	Discounts received		\$6,800
D	Discounts allowed	\$3,840	
	Discounts received		\$2,960
	Suspense account		\$880

Chapter 18



MARK-UP AND MARGINS

Introduction Occasionally it is the case that all selling prices are calculated so as to give a fixed percentage profit. This information means that if we know the cost of sales we are able to calculate the sales (and vice versa). Make sure that you can do the arithmetic, but that also you learn the terminology and remember the difference between a mark-up and a gross profit margin. Mark-up A mark-up is the gross profit expressed as a percentage of the cost. EXAMPLE 1 (a) Jelena has cost of goods sold of \$20,000 and applies a mark-up of 20%. What are the sales? Karen has sales of \$50,000 and applies a mark-up of 25%. What is her cost of goods sold?

Gross profit margin 3

The gross profit margin is the gross profit expressed as a percentage of the selling price.

Еха	MPLE 2
(a)	Peter has sales of \$120,000. His gross profit is 20%. What is his cost of goods sold?
(b)	Paul has a cost of goods sold of \$45,000 and a gross profit of 25%. What are his sales?

MARK-UP AND MARGINS

Test

QUESTION 1

A fire on 30 September destroyed some of a company's inventory and its inventory records.

The following information is available:

	<i>\$</i>
Inventory 1 September	318,000
Sales for September	612,000
Purchases for September	412,000
Inventory in good condition at 30 September	214,000

Standard gross profit percentage on sales is 25%

Based on this information, what is the value of the inventory lost?

\$96,000

В \$271,000

C \$26,400

\$57,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

• The inventory value for the financial statements of X for the year ended 31 May 2008 was based on an inventory count on 4 June 2008, which gave a total inventory value of \$836,200.

Between 31 May and 4 June 2008, the following transactions took place:

	\$
Purchases of goods	8,600
Sales of goods (profit margin 30% on sales)	14,000
Goods returned by X to supplier	700

What adjusted figure should be included in the financial statements for inventories at 31 May 2008?

\$838,100 A

\$853,900 В

 \mathbf{C} \$818,500

D \$834,300

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

The draft accounts of Anthea Co. for the year ended 31 December 20X9 include the following:

Revenue \$80,000 Gross profit \$20,000

It was subsequently discovered that revenue had been understated by \$10,000 and closing inventory overstated by \$5,000. After correction of these errors the gross profit percentage will be:

33.3% A

В 16.7%

C 31.3%

D 27.8%

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MARK-UP AND MARGINS

Chapter 18

QUESTION 4

Silver Co made sales of \$193,200 during the year ended 31 August X1. Inventory decreased by \$13,200 over the year and all sales were made at a mark up of 42%.

What was the cost of purchases during the year, to the nearest \$1,000?

- A \$149,000
- В \$136,000
- \mathbf{C} \$123,000
- D \$109,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

On 1 September 2006, a business had inventory of \$380,000. During the month, sales totalled \$650,000 and purchases \$480,000. On 30 September 2006 a fire destroyed some of the inventory. The undamaged goods in inventory were valued at \$220,000. The business operates with a standard gross profit margin of 30%.

Based on this information, what is the cost of the inventory destroyed in the fire?

- \$185,000 A
- В \$140,000
- \mathbf{C} \$405,000
- \$360,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 6

All the sales made by a retailer are for cash, and her sale prices are fixed by doubling cost. Details recorded of her transactions for September 2006 are as follows:

		\$
1 Sept.	Inventories	40,000
30 Sept.	Purchases for month	60,000
	Cash banked for sales for month	95,000
	Inventories	50,000

Which two of the following conclusions could separately be drawn from this information?

- \$5,000 cash has been stolen from the sales revenue prior to banking
- (2)Goods costing \$5,000 have been stolen
- Goods costing \$2,500 have been stolen (3)
- Some goods costing \$2,500 had been sold at cost price (4)

1 and 2

B

C

1 and 3 2 and 4

3 and 4





ACCOUNTING CONVENTIONS AND POLICIES

Introduction

There are many accounting conventions and concepts underlying the preparation of financial statements.

In this chapter we will explain the main conventions and concepts, but you must also read the relevant chapter in the Study Text in detail

The fundamental accounting concepts.

These are contained in IAS 1 Presentation of Financial Statements, and must be followed.

Fair presentation

Financial statements should be 'fairly presented'

Going concern

It is assumed that a business will continue to operate for the foreseeable future.

Accruals

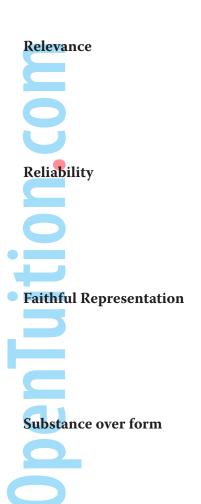
Assets, liabilities, equity, income and expenses are recognised when they occur, and not when cash is received or paid.

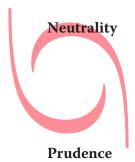
Consistency

Items should be treated in the same way from one period to the next, unless there is a significant change in the nature of the operations.

Other accounting concepts and qualitative characteristics 3

Materiality

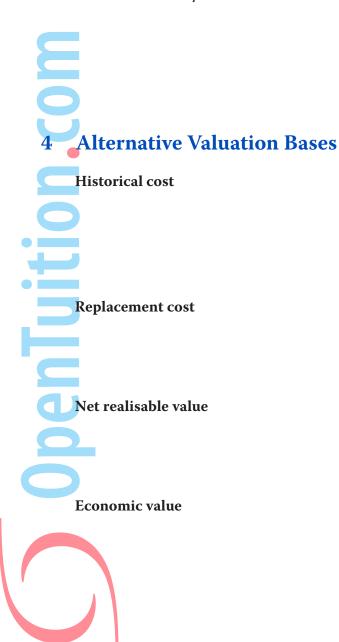




Completeness

Comparability

Understandability



IAS 18 Revenue Recognition 5

This accounting standard defines when revenue should be recognised (i.e. at what date it should be regarded as having been earned).

Sale of goods:

Revenue should be recognised when all of the following conditions have been satisfied:

- all the significant risks and rewards have been transferred to the buyer
- (b) the seller retains no effective control over the goods sold
- (c) the amount of revenue can be reliably measured
- the benefits to be derived from the transaction are likely to flow to the enterprise
- the costs incurred or to be incurred for the transaction can be reliably measured

Services:

The difference with services is that the service given is often spread over a period of time.

Revenue can be recognised according to the stage of completion of the transaction at the date of the Statement of Financial Position.

The same conditions apply as for sale of goods, except for condition (a) above.

Disclosure requirements:

- The financial statements should disclose:
- the accounting policies for revenue recognition
- a split between different categories of revenue
- the amount of revenue from the exchange of goods or services (if material)



ACCOUNTING CONVENTIONS AND POLICIES

Test

OUESTION 1

In times of rising prices, what effect does the use of the historical cost concept have on a company's asset values and profit?

- Asset values and profit both understated A
- В Asset values and profit both overstated
- \mathbf{C} Asset values understated and profit overstated
- Asset values overstated and profit understated.

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

The IASB's Framework for the preparation and presentation of financial statements gives qualitative characteristics that make financial information reliable.

Which of the following are examples of those qualitative characteristics?

- Faithful Representation, neutrality and prudence
- B Neutrality, comparability and true and fair view
- C Prudence, comparability and accruals
- Neutrality, accruals and going concern

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

The business entity concept requires that a business is treated as being separate from its owners.

Is this statement true or false?

- True
- В False

(2 marks)

Question 4

What is the role of the International Financial Reporting Interpretations Committee?

- To create a set of global accounting standards
- To issue guidance on the application of International Financial Reporting Standards

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

Which of the following statements are correct?

- Materiality means that only items having a physical existence may be recognised as assets.
- The substance over form convention means that the legal form of a transaction must always be shown in financial statements even if this differs from the commercial effect.
- The money measurement concept is that only items capable of being measured in monetary terms can be recognised in financial statements.
- A 2 only
- В 1, 2 and 3
- \mathbf{C} 1 only
- D 3 only

QUESTION 6

Which of the following characteristics of financial information contribute to reliability, according to the IASB's Framework for the Preparation and Presentation of Financial Statements?

- Completeness
- (2)Prudence
- (3)Neutrality
- Faithful representation (4)
- All four items A
- В 1, 2 and 3 only
- \mathbf{C} 1, 2 and 4 only
- D 2, 3 and 4 only



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Chapter 20



IAS 10: EVENTS AFTER THE REPORTING PERIOD

Introduction

This chapter covers the provisions of IAS 10. The provisions themselves are not difficult to learn, but you must make sure that you learn the terminology.

2 IAS 10: Events after the reporting period

If a company has a year end of 31 December 2008, then it will be some time before the financial statements are finalised and signed by the directors. It will take time to produce the financial statements, and then more time while they are checked by the auditors. It may not be until (say) 20 March 2009 before the financial statements become final and are signed.

Although the financial statements should show the position as at 31 December 2008, we are able to make changes at any time up to 20 March 2009 when the financial statements are finalised. If we discover any errors after 20 March 2009, then it is too late to change anything.

Events after the reporting period refer to events that occur between the date of the Statement of Financial Position and the date on which the financial statements become final.

There are two types of events:

Adjusting events

There are events that provide additional evidence about the estimation of amount at the Statement of Financial Position date (for example, the auditors discover an error in the valuation of inventory).

For these events, the financial statements will be changed.

Non-adjusting events

These are events that do not affect the value of assets and liabilities at the Statement of Financial Position date (for example, a factory is destroyed by fire after the date of the Statement of Financial Position).

For these events, the financial statements will not be changed. However, if the amount is material, they will be disclosed by way of a note giving details of the event.

Examples of adjusting and non-adjusting events:

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Test

QUESTION 1

Should details of material adjusting or material non-adjusting events after the Statement of Financial Position date be disclosed in the notes to financial statements according to IAS 10 Events after the reporting period?

- Adjusting events
- Non-Adjusting events В

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Which of the following material events after the reporting period and before the financial statements are approved are adjusting events?

- (1) A valuation of property providing evidence of impairment in value at the Statement of Financial Position date.
- Sale of inventory held at the Statement of Financial Position date for less than cost.
- Discovery of fraud or error affecting the financial statements.
- (4) The insolvency of a customer with a debt owing at the Statement of Financial Position date which is still outstanding.
- **1**, 2, 3 and 4
- **B** 1, 2 and 4 only
- 3 and 4 only
- **D** 1, 2 and 3 only.



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Chapter 21



INTANGIBLE ASSETS: GOODWILL, RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

In this chapter we will consider two types of intangible assets that you are required to know about for the examination. Intangible assets are assets which have a value to the business, but cannot be touched (i.e. have no physical substance).

The two that you must have knowledge of are goodwill, and research and development, and we will consider the accounting treatment of both.

Goodwill

Goodwill is the excess of the value of a business over the fair value of the net assets.

Purchased goodwill

This is goodwill that arises when a company purchases another company. It is commonly the case that the consideration paid is greater than the fair value of the net assets, and this excess is the goodwill.

Non-purchased goodwill

An existing company is likely to be worth more, were it to be sold, than the worth of the net tangible assets. A company could therefore claim that there was an extra asset of goodwill.

However, non-purchased goodwill should not normally be recognised in the financial statements. This is because no event has occurred to identify the value of the business.



Research and Development 3

IAS 38 Intangible assets governs the accounting treatment of these costs.

Research

This is 'original and planned investigation undertaken with the prospect of gaining new scientific or technical knowledge and understanding.



Development

This is 'the application of research findings or other knowledge to a plan or design for the production of new or substantially improved materials, devices, products, processes, systems or services prior to the commencement of commercial production or use'.



Accounting treatment



Research expenditure should all be charged to the Income Statement as an expense in the period in which it is incurred.

Development expenditure should be capitalised and shown as an asset on the Statement of Financial Position if (and only if) the following conditions apply:

- there should be an identifiable product
- the company should have the resources to be able to complete the development (b)
- (c) there should be an identified market for the product
- (d) the expenditure should be measurable

If the costs are capitalised, then they must be amortised in line with the pattern of income resulting.

If the conditions are not fulfilled, then the expenditure should be written off in the Income Statement in the period incurred.

(Note that all the above only applies to intangible assets. If any tangible assets are purchased then they must be capitalised and depreciated as normal.)

Chapter 21

Disclosure requirements

The following should be disclosed in the financial statements:

- the amortisation method used for development expenditure
- (b) the amount of amortisation during the period
- a reconciliation between the written down value brought forward and the value carried forward (c)
- (d) the amount of research expenditure charged in the Income Statement for the period.

The position of each development project should be reviewed each year. If any project no longer meets the IAS 38 criteria then it should be written off.



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Test

QUESTION 1

Which of the following statements are correct?

- Capitalised development expenditure must be amortised over a period not exceeding five years.
- (2)Capitalised development costs are shown in the Statement of Financial Position under the heading of Non-current Assets
- (3)If certain criteria are met, research expenditure must be recognised as an intangible asset.
- 2 only A
- 2 and 3 В
- \mathbf{C} 1 only
- D 1 and 3





Chapter 22



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IAS 8 AND IAS35

Introduction

This chapter looks briefly at the main provisions of two more International Accounting Standards that you should be aware of.

IAS 8: Accounting policies, changes in accounting estimates and errors

This accounting standard deals with various things that are relevant to the layout of company accounts. The main provisions are listed below.

Disclosure of unusual items

These are also called exceptional items, and are items that do result from normal activities (and are therefore not extraordinary), but are of such 'size, nature or incidence' that their disclosure is relevant to users.

These should be included in the appropriate expense heading as normal, but there should be disclosure by way of a note.

Fundamental errors

This relates to the situation where an error has been discovered in the financial statements for previous periods.

The treatment is that the error should be corrected by adjusting the opening balance of retained earnings, and by adjusting comparative figures.

There should be a note stating the nature and amount of the error, and the way in which it has been corrected.

Changes in accounting policies

Accounting policies should remain the same from year to year.

However they may be changed for the following reasons:

- a new accounting standard
- a statutory requirement
- if the change will result in more appropriate presentation in the financial statements

If an accounting policy is changed, then the benchmark treatment is to present the financial statements as though the new policy had always been in use. This will involve adjusting the opening balance of retained earnings, and adjusting the comparative figures.

There should be a note showing the effect of the change and the reasons for the change.



3 IFRS 5: Discontinued operations

If part of a business's operations is discontinued, then the following disclosures are required:

- a description of the discontinued operation
- the date and nature of the discontinuance
- the values of the total assets and total liabilities disposed of
- the amounts of revenue, expenses, and pre-tax profit or loss from the discontinued operation in the current period, together with the tax expense relating to it.
 - the gain or loss on the sale, and the tax expense related to it, shown separately from the operating profit.

These disclosures are required if the discontinuance occurs during the financial year or in the period after the Statement of Financial Position date up to the date that the financial statements are approved by the directors.



IAS 8 AND IAS35

Chapter 22

Test

QUESTION 1

At 31 December 2004 Q, a limited liability company, owned a building that cost \$800,000 on 1 January 1995. It was being depreciated at two per cent per year.

On 1 January 2005 a revaluation to \$1,000,000 was recognised. At this date the building had a remaining useful life of 40 years.

What is the depreciation charge for the year ended 31 December 2005 and the revaluation reserve balance as at 1 January 2005?

	Depreciation charge for year ended 31 December 2005	Revaluation reserve as at 1 January 2005
	\$	\$
A	25,000	200,000
В	25,000	360,000
C	20,000	200,000
D	20,000	360,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

A company has made a material change to an accounting policy in preparing its current financial statements.

- Which of the following disclosures are required by IAS 8 Accounting policies, changes in accounting estimates and errors in the financial statements?
 - (1) The reasons for the change.
 - (2) The amount of the adjustment in the current period and in comparative information for prior periods.
 - (3) An estimate of the effect of the change on the next five accounting periods.
 - A 1 and 2 only
 - **B** 1 and 3 only
 - C 2 and 3 only
 - **D** 1, 2 and 3

(2 marks)

Dr

CR

Question 3

Which of the following journal entries are correct, according to their narratives?

500,000 50c shares issued at \$1.50 per share in exchange for shares in X

\$ \$ Suspense account 18,000 Rent received account 18,000 Correction of error in posting \$24,000 cash received for rent to the rent received account as \$42,000 400,000 Share premium account Share capital account 400,000 1 for 3 bonus issue on share capital of 1,200,000 50c shares 3 Trade investment in X 750,000 Share capital account 250,000 Share premium account 500,000

- **A** 1 and 2
- **B** 2 and 3
- C 1 only
- **D** 3 only

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT **OF FINANCIAL POSITION (1)**

Introduction

Consolidated accounts are required when one company controls other companies. This can happen in many ways, but you will only be expected to deal with the simplest situation, which is where one company controls one other company.

Each company will prepare its own set of accounts. However, another set of accounts will be prepared for the group as a whole. These are known as the consolidated accounts.

In this and the next chapter we will look at the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position. In the third chapter we will consider the Consolidated Income Statement.

Definitions

Consolidated accounts are required if ever one company controls another. The precise definition of control contains several provisions, but the most common situation is where one company owns more than 50% of the ordinary share capital of the other company.

Parent company

The parent company is the company that controls the other company.

Subsidiary company

The subsidiary company is the company that is controlled by the parent company.

Group of companies

This is the parent company plus its subsidiaries.

Consolidated accounts

These are the accounts for the whole group, where we treat the group as though it is one big company.

Non-controlling interest

If the parent company does not own 100% of the subsidiary then the part owned by others is known as the non-controlling interest.

3 The Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

The purpose of the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position is to show all the assets and liabilities that are controlled by the parent company – effectively as though it is one big company.

We will work through a simple example and then gradually bring in the various complications that can occur.

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (1)

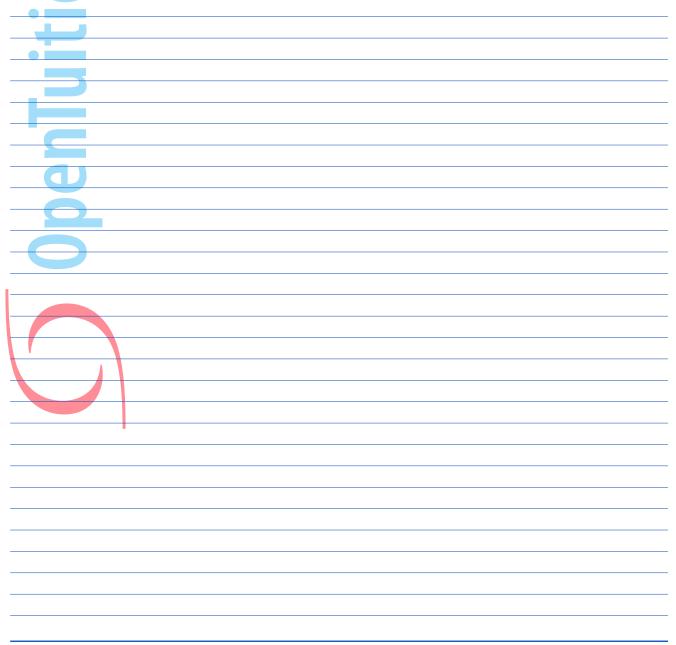
Chapter 23

EXAMPLE 1

On 1 January 2008, P acquired 100% of the ordinary shares of S, which was incorporated on that date. On 31 December 2010, the Statements of Financial Position of each the two companies were as follows:

	P	S
Non-current assets	25,000	12,000
Investment in S, at cost	10,000	
Current assets	8,000	9,000
	43,000	21,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	25,000	10,000
Retained earnings	15,000	8,000
Current liabilities	3,000	3,000
	43,000	21,000

Prepare a Consolidated Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2010 for the P group.



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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (1)

Chapter 23

Pre-acquisition profits

In the previous example, P had acquired S on incorporation (i.e. on the date that the company was formed).

Very often a company acquires another company some years after incorporation in which case the company will have earned profits by the time that they are acquired.

As a result the purchase price paid by the parent company will be for the share capital plus any profits already earned. These profits earned before the date of acquisition are known as preacquisition profits.

EXAMPLE 2

P acquired 100% of the share capital of S on 1 January 2006 for \$28,000, at which date the retained earnings of S amounted to \$8,000.

At 3 December 2009 the companies' Statements of Financial Position were as follows:

	P	S
Non-current assets	55,000	25,000
Investment in S, at cost	28,000	
Current assets	18,000	14,000
	101,000	39,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	60,000	20,000
Retained earnings	38,000	15,000
Current liabilities	3,000	4,000
	101,000	39,000

Prepare the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2009 for the P group.

\	

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (1)

Chapter 23

5 Goodwill arising on consolidation

In both of the previous examples the amount that the parent company paid for the subsidiary was equal to the value of the subsidiary as shown in its Statement of Financial Position.

However, there are two reasons why the parent company may have paid more than this amount.

One reason is that the non-current assets may have been worth more than the carrying value (this is particularly likely to apply to any land and buildings). We would therefore expect the parent company to have paid a 'fair value' for the assets.

A second reason is that the parent company may have paid more than the fair value of the assets and liabilities because they were acquiring the goodwill of the subsidiary. If they did pay for goodwill, then although it will not appear in the accounts of the individual companies it will mean that there is an extra asset to appear in the consolidated Statement of Financial Position.

Example 3

P acquired 100% of the share capital of S on 1 January 2005 for \$60,000. On 1 January 2005, the retained earnings of S were \$15,000 and the fair value of the non-current assets was \$9,000 more than the carrying value.

At 31 December 2009 the companies' Statements of Financial Position were as follows:

+-	P	S
Non-current assets	82,000	27,000
Investment in S, at cost	60,000	
Current assets	20,000	12,000
	162,000	39,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	50,000	10,000
Retained earnings	110,000	28,000
Current liabilities	2,000	1,000
	162,000	39,000

Prepare a Consolidated Statement of Financial Position as at 31 December 2009 for the P group.

•

ROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDAT	TED STATEMENT OF FII	NANCIAL POSITION	I (1) Chapter 23
			•
•			
CAMPLE 4			
acquired 100% of the share capital of S	on 1 July 2004 for \$25,000). On 1 July 2004, the	retained earnings of
were \$6,000 and the fair value of the nor			
30 June 2010 the companies' Statemen	ts of Financial Position w	ere as follows:	
		_	
	D	ζ	
on-current assets	P 76 000	S 18 000	
	76,000	S 18,000	
nvestment in S, at cost	76,000 25,000	18,000	
nvestment in S, at cost	76,000 25,000 12,000	9,000	
nvestment in S, at cost	76,000 25,000	18,000	
nvestment in S, at cost current assets	76,000 25,000 12,000	9,000	
urrent assets hare capital - \$1 shares	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000	9,000 27,000	
nvestment in S, at cost urrent assets hare capital - \$1 shares etained earnings	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000	
urrent assets are capital - \$1 shares etained earnings	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000	
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nvestment in S, at cost urrent assets hare capital - \$1 shares etained earnings urrent liabilities	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	? group.
hare capital - \$1 shares Letained earnings Current liabilities	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	group.
Non-current assets nvestment in S, at cost Current assets hare capital - \$1 shares Retained earnings Current liabilities repare a Consolidated Statement of Fi	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	P group.
hare capital - \$1 shares Letained earnings Current liabilities	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	P group.
hare capital - \$1 shares Setained earnings Current liabilities	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	? group.
hare capital - \$1 shares Letained earnings Current liabilities	76,000 25,000 12,000 113,000 40,000 70,000 3,000 113,000	18,000 9,000 27,000 5,000 20,000 2,000 27,000	P group.

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Test

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS RELEVANT FOR QUESTIONS 1 AND 2

P acquired 100% of the share capital of Q on 1 January 2002 for \$90,000 on which day the retained earnings of Z were \$22,500.

At 31 December 2009 the companies' Statements of Financial Position were as follows:

	\boldsymbol{P}	\boldsymbol{Z}
Non-current assets	123,000	40,500
Investment in Z, at cost	90,000	
Current assets	30,000	18,000
	243,000	58,500
Share capital - \$1 shares	75,000	15,000
Retained earnings	165,000	42,000
Current liabilities	3,000	1,500
	243,000	58,500

QUESTION 1

What amount should appear for goodwill in the consolidated statement of financial position?

- 67,500
- 52,500
- 75,000
- 90,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

What amount should appear for retained earnings in the consolidated statement of financial position?



(2 marks)

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (1)

Chapter 23

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS RELEVANT FOR QUESTIONS 3 AND 4

A acquired 100% of the share capital of Z on 1 August 2003 for \$60,000 on which day the retained earnings of Z were \$14,400 and the fair value of the non-current assets was \$15,000 more than their carrying value.

At 31 July 2010 the companies' Statements of Financial Position were as follows:

	A	\boldsymbol{Z}
Non-current assets	182,400	43,200
Investment in Z, at cost	60,000	
Current assets	28,800	21,600
	271,200	64,800
Share capital - \$1 shares	96,000	12,000
Retained earnings	168,000	48,000
Current liabilities	7,200	4,800
	271,200	64,800

QUESTION 3

What amount should appear for goodwill in the consolidated statement of financial position?

- 30,600
- В 18,600
- \mathbf{C} 33,600
- D 41,400

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

What amount should appear for retained earnings in the consolidated statement of financial position?

- 216,000 A
- В 90,600
- \mathbf{C} 33,600
- D 201,600

(2 marks)



Chapter 24



GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

Introduction

In the previous chapter we looked at the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position. However in every example the parent company owned 100% of the subsidiary.

In this chapter we will look at what happens when the parent company owns less than 100% but still has control of the subsidiary.

We will also look at the effect of any trading between the parent company and the subsidiary company.

2 Non-controlling interest

The fundamental point when the parent company owns less than 100% of the subsidiary is that in the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position we still show all the assets and liabilities of the group (because the parent company controls them), but we need to take account of the fact that part of these are in fact owned by the non-controlling interest.

EXAMPLE 1

On 1 January 2008, P acquired 80% of the ordinary shares of S, which was incorporated on that date.

On 31 December 2010, the Statements of Financial Position of each of the two companies were as follows:

P	S
30,000	15,000
8,000	
7,000	6,000
45,000	21,000
25,000	10,000
15,000	8,000
5,000	3,000
45,000	21,000
	30,000 8,000 7,000 45,000 25,000 15,000 5,000

Prepare a Consolidated Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2010 for the P group.

ROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION	ON (2) Chapte

Goodwill arising on consolidation 3

The previous example was very simple because P acquired its holding in S on the date of incorporation and simply paid the value of its share of the assets less liabilities on that date.

However you will remember from the previous chapter that it is more likely that P would have acquired the holding on a later date and therefore may have paid more due to paying for goodwill.

As with all the other assets and liabilities, we wish to show the full value of the goodwill in the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position, but this will no longer simply be the difference between the amount paid and the value of the assets – it will be the difference between the total value of the business at the date of acquisition and the fair value of all the assets less liabilities at the date of acquisition.

The calculation of the goodwill arising on consolidation therefore becomes as follows:

Fair value of consideration transferred

Plus: fair value of non-controlling interest at date of acquisition

X

Less:fair value of net assets at date of acquisition

Share capital

Retained earnings at date of acquisition

X X

Goodwill arising on consolidation

(X)

Consider the following example:

EXAMPLE 2

P acquired 60% of the shares in S on 1 January 2007 when the retained earnings of P stood at \$6,000.

The fair value of the non-controlling interest at the date of acquisition was \$30,000.

On 31 December 2010, the Statements of Financial Position of each of the two companies were as follows:

	\boldsymbol{P}	\boldsymbol{S}
Non-current assets	50,000	30,000
Investment in S, at cost	40,000	
Current assets	14,000	12,000
	104,000	42,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	50,000	20,000
Retained earnings	44,000	16,000
Current liabilities	10,000	6,000
	104,000	42,000

Calculate the amount of the goodwill arising on consolidation.

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

Chapter 24

We will show the full amount of the goodwill in the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position (in addition to showing the full amount of all the other assets and liabilities as usual). However, as before we will have an extra figure in the Statement of Financial Position showing the amount owing to the non-controlling interest.

The entitlement of the NCI will be made	de up of the	following:
---	--------------	------------

Fair value of the NCI at the date of acquisition	X
Plus: NCI's share of post-acquisition profits	X
	X

Example 3	
Using the s	ame information as in example 2, calculate the non-controlling interest at 31 Decembe
2010.	
	<u> </u>

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

(Note: you may be wondering why we have not calculated the non-controlling interest in the same way as in example 1 - i.e. by just taking 40% of the share capital and reserves of S.

The reason is that they are also entitled to a share of the goodwill arising on consolidation, which does not appear in S's own accounts.

We can calculate this and thus check the NCI as follows:

Fair value of NCI at date of acquisition	30,000
NCI in net assets at date of acquisition	
$(40\% \ x \ (20,000 + 6,000)$	10,400
Goodwill attributable to NCI	19,600
NCI at 31 December 2010:	
Share capital (40% x 20,000)	8,000
Retained earnings (40% x 16,000)	6,400
Goodwill attributable to NCI	19,600
Total NCI	34,000

This is the same figure that we have already calculated.)

Now we need to calculate the retained earnings belonging to P. This will be calculated in the normal way:

		
Retained earnings of P		X
Retained earnings of S	X	
Less: pre-aquisition profits	X	
Post-acquisition profits of S	X	
P's share of post-acquisition profits of S		X
		X

Example 4

Using the information in example 2, calculate the retained earnings for inclusion in the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position as 31 December 2010.

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Chapter 24

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

Chapter 24

We are now in a position to produce the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position as at 31 December 2010.

Example 5
Using the information in example 2 (and the workings from the later examples) prepare the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2010 for the P group.
1

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

Chapter 24

4 Inter-entity transactions

Although our work focuses on preparing a set of consolidated accounts, do remember that the parent company and the subsidiary company are two separate companies and that both of them prepare their own accounts in the normal way.

It is quite possible that the two companies trade with each other - i.e. that the parent company sells goods to the subsidiary company (or vice versa).

If this has happened, then there are two things that we need to be aware of when we come to prepare the consolidated accounts:

- (a) we only want to show receivables and payables from outside the group we do not want to include receivables and payables between the parent and subsidiary
- (b) we only wish to record profits made as a result of sales outside the group

We will illustrate these two problems and how we deal with them by way of examples.

(a) Inter-entity balances

Example 6

Company P has a controlling interest in company S.

Extracts from the statements of financial position of each company individually as at 31 December 2010 are as follows:

 P
 S

 Receivables
 50,000
 30,000

 Payables
 35,000
 40,000

Included in P's receivables is \$8,000 owing from S. S's payables include the \$8,000 owing to P.

Calculate the total receivables and payables to be shown on the Consolidated Statement of Financial
Position as at 31 December 2010.
1 osteon as at 31 December 2010.
\ ' \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
<u> </u>

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

(b) Inventory sold at a profit within the group

The problem here relates to the situation where one of the companies has sold goods to the other company at a profit, and the receiving company still has some of the goods in inventory.

If the goods have been sold by the receiving company then all the profit has been realised and there is no problem.

If, however, some of the goods are still in inventory then there are two problems when we come to prepare consolidated accounts:

- the inventory in the accounts of the receiving company will include the profit made by the selling company, whereas in the consolidated accounts we should be showing it at cost to the group.
- included in the profits of the selling company will be all the profit on goods sold to the other company. However the profit on any goods still in inventory should not be included in the profit of the group because the goods have not left the group (and the profit has therefore not been realised)

To deal with both problems we do the following:

- calculate the unrealised profit in inventory,
 - reduce the inventory and reduce the retained earnings of the company that has sold the goods by the amount of the unrealised profit.

Example 7

P acquired 75% of the share capital of S on its incorporation. The Statements of Financial Position of the two entities as at 31 December 2010 are as follows:

	P	S
Non-current assets	50,000	25,000
Investment in S, at cost	15,000	
Inventory	13,000	7,000
Other current assets	10,000	6,000
	88,000	38,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	45,000	20,000
Retained earnings	30,000	15,000
Current liabilities	13,000	3,000
	88,000	38,000

During December 2010 S had sold goods to P for \$6,000. S sells to P at cost plus 25%.

P had not sold any of these goods and all were therefore included in inventory.

Additionally, P had not paid S for these goods and therefore the sum of \$6,000 is included in P's payables and in S's receivables.

Prepare a Consolidated Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2010.

GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITI	ION (2)	Chapter
- 		
I		

Chapter 24

Test

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS RELEVANT FOR QUESTIONS 1, 2 AND 3

On 1 January 2009, X paid \$21,600 to acquire 90% of the ordinary shares of Y, which was incorporated on that date.

On 31 December 2010, the Statements of Financial Position of each of the two companies were as follows:

X	Y
70,000	36,000
21,600	
27,000	15,000
118,600	51,000
62,000	24,000
44,600	19,500
12,000	7,500
118,600	51,000
	21,600 27,000 118,600 62,000 44,600 12,000

QUESTION 1

What amount for goodwill should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

21,600

24,000

Zero

19,500

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

What amount for retained earnings should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

64,100

В 62,150

C 17,550

D 44,600

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

What amount for non-controlling interest should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

A 4,350

В 1,950

 \mathbf{C} 2,400

21,900 D

(2 marks)

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED STATEMENT OF FINANCIAL POSITION (2)

Chapter 24

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION IS RELEVANT FOR QUESTIONS 4, 5 AND 6

On 1 January 2008, Orange paid acquired 70% of the ordinary shares of Apple, when the retained earnings of Apple stood at \$15,000.

The fair value of the non-controlling interest at the date of acquisition was \$40,000.

On 31 December 2010, the Statements of Financial Position of each of the two companies were as follows:

	Orange	Apple
Non-current assets	125,000	75,000
Investment in S, at cost	50,000	
Current assets	30,000	15,000
	205,000	90,000
Share capital - \$1 shares	120,000	50,000
Retained earnings	65,000	32,000
Current liabilities	20,000	8,000
	205,000	90,000

QUESTION 4

What amount for goodwill should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

A 4,500 B 25,000 C 15,000 D 23,000

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

What amount for non-controlling interest should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

A 24,600 B 46,900 C 5,100 D 45,100

(2 marks)

QUESTION 6

What amount for retained earnings should appear in the consolidated statement of financial position?

A 70,100B 76,900C 11,900D 97,000

(2 marks)

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GROUP ACCOUNTS THE CONSOLIDATED INCOME STATEMENT

Introduction

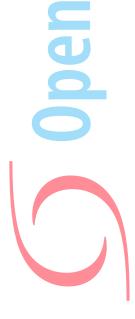
We have seen in the previous chapters that when one company controls another it is necessary for us to prepare a Consolidated Statement of Financial Position.

Similarly it is necessary for us to prepare a Consolidated Income Statement and we will look at how this is prepared in this chapter.

The Principles

As with the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position, the aim of the Consolidated Income Statement is to show the results of the group as if it were a single entity.

We will use the same principles as we applied for the Statement of Financial Position in that we will show the total profits made by the group and then show the extent to which these profits are owned by the parent company and are owned by the non-controlling interest.



EXAMPLE 1

P acquired 80% of the share capital of S on that company's incorporation in 2008.

The respective Income Statements of the two companies for the year ended 31 December 2009 are as follows:

	\boldsymbol{P}	S
Revenue	52,000	24,000
Cost of sales	12,000	10,000
Gross profit	40,000	14,000
Expenses	8,000	4,000
Profit before taxation	32,000	10,000
Income tax	12,000	3,000
Profit for the year	20,000	7,000
Note: movement on retained earnings		
Retained earnings brought forward	80,000	20,000
Profit for the year	20,000	7,000
Retained earnings carried forward	100,000	27,000

Prepare the Cons	solidated Income Statement and the movement on retained earnings for the P group
	sometical mediane statement and the movement on returned earnings for the rigidal
	•

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GROUP ACCOUNTSTHE CONSOLIDATED INCOME STATEMENT

Chapter 25

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In the previous example, P acquired S on the date of S's incorporation and is therefore entitled to its share of all S's retained earnings.

However, if P acquired S at a later date then P is only entitled to its share of S's post-acquisition retained earnings (just as when we prepared the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position).

EXAMPLE 2

P acquired 60% of S on 1 January 2008, at which date the retained earnings of S were \$8,000.

The respective Income	e Statements of the two	companies for the	vear ended 31 Decer	nber 2010 are as follows:
THE TESPECTIVE INCOME	e statements of the two	companies for the	year chucu or Decer	libel 2010 are as lollows.

	\boldsymbol{P}	S
Revenue	85,000	31,000
Cost of sales	21,000	12,000
Gross profit	64,000	19,000
Expenses	12,000	7,000
Profit before taxation	52,000	12,000
Income tax	16,000	4,000
Profit for the year	36,000	8,000
Note: movement on retained earnings		
Retained earnings brought forward	120,000	17,000
Profit for the year	36,000	8,000
Retained earnings carried forward	156,000	25,000

Prepa	are the C	Consolidated	Income Sta	atement and	the movement	t on retained	l earnings i	for the P	group



3 Inter entity (or intra-group) trading

Just as with the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position, the Consolidated Income Statement should show the results of the group as though it were a single entity.

When one company in the group sells goods to another company in the group, then the sales will have been included in the revenue of the selling company and an identical amount will have been included in the cost of sales of the other company. However, as far as the group's dealings with outsiders is concerned, no transaction has taken place.

In the Consolidated Income Statement, the figure for sales revenue should represent sales to outsiders, and the figure for cost of sales should represent purchases from outsiders. We will therefore need to reduce both the sales revenue and the cost of sales by the value of the inter entity sales during the year.

You will also remember from the previous chapter that if any goods sold at a profit within the group are still in inventory, then the unrealised profit needs to be excluded from the group profit.

We will achieve this (i.e. reduce the group profit) by increasing the cost of sales for the group by the amount of the unrealised profit in inventory.

EXAMPLE 3

P acquired 55% of S on 1 June 2008.

The Income Statements of the two companies for the year ended 31 May 2009 are as follows:

	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{P}}$	\boldsymbol{S}
Revenue	120,000	110,000
Cost of sales	55,000	50,000
Gross profit	65,000	60,000
Expenses	9,000	10,000
Profit before taxation	56,000	50,000
Income tax	20,000	14,000
Profit for the year	36,000	36,000

During the year S sold goods to P for \$28,000 (including a mark-up of 40%). One quarter of these goods remained in P's inventory at the year end.

Prepare a Consolidated Income Statement for the P group.

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GROUP ACCOUNTS – FURTHER POINTS

Introduction

In this – the final chapter on group accounts – we will state the full definition of what is meant by a subsidiary, and explain the meaning of associated companies and how we deal with them.

2 The definition of a subsidiary

A subsidiary is an entity controlled by another entity.

Control is the power to govern the financial and operating policies of the entity so as to obtain benefits from its activities.

Control is presumed to exist when the parent owns, directly or indirectly through subsidiaries, more than one half of the voting power of an entity unless, in exceptional circumstances, it can be clearly demonstrated that such ownership does not constitute control.

Control also exists when the parent owns half or less of the voting power of an entity when there is:

power over more than half the voting rights by virtue of an agreement with other investors power to govern the financial and operating policies of the entity under statute or agreement power to appoint or remove the majority of the directors or equivalent governing body power to cast the majority of votes at meetings of the directors or equivalent governing body

3 Associate companies

An associate is an entity in which the investor has significant influence, but which is not a subsidiary.

Significant influence is the power to participate in the financial and operating policy decisions of the entity, but not to control these policies.

Although the full definition of an associate is more involved, as far as we are concerned for this examination it is where the investing company holds more than 20% of the shares (but not more than 50% - this would make it a subsidiary).

IAS 28 requires the use of what is called the **equity method** of accounting for investments in associates.

This means the following:

Consolidated Income Statement (i)

The investing company should add to the consolidated profit the group's share of the associated company's profit after tax.

(Note that the associate's revenue and costs are not added to those of the group as with a subsidiary – we simply add the group's share of the associate's profit.

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

A figure for "investment in associates" is shown as an asset in the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position. This figure is the original cost of the investment plus the group's share of post-acquisition retained earnings of the associate.

Note: the above requirements only apply if consolidated accounts are being prepared because the parent company has subsidiaries. If there are no subsidiaries (and therefore no consolidated accounts) then the associate is treated simply as a trade investment and shown as a noncurrent asset.







INTERPRETATION OF FINANCIAL STATEMENTS

Introduction

Financial statements are prepared to assist users in making decisions. They therefore need interpreting, and the calculation of various ratios makes it easier to compare the state of a company with previous years and with other companies.

In this chapter we will look at the various ratios that you should learn for the examination.

The main areas

When attempting to analyse the financial statements of a company, there are several main areas that should be looked at:

Profitability

Liquidity

Gearing

We will work through an example to illustrate the various ratios that you should learn under each heading.

Worked example 3

EXAMPLE 1

Statements of Financial Position as a	at 30 June			
	2010		2009	
	\$	\$	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>
ASSETS				
Non-current assets		3,218		1,982
Current assets				
Inventory	2,414		2,090	
Receivables	2,275		1,699	
Cash	864		240	
		5,553		4,029
		8,771		6,011
EQUITY AND LIABILITIES				
Share capital and reserves		5,255		3,361
Non-current liabilities		1,200		960
Current liabilities		2,316		1,690
		8,771		6,011

Income statement for the year ended 30 June

2010	2009
<i>\$</i>	\$
17,232	13,044
12,924	10,109
4,308	2,935
804	610
1,608	1,217
1,896	1,108
120	125
1,776	983
629	346
1,147	637
	\$ 17,232 12,924 4,308 804 1,608 1,896 120 1,776 629

You are required to calculate the profitability, liquidity and gearing ratios.

Profitability

Profit before interest and tax Return on capital employed Total long term capital (= capital + reserves + long-term liabilities)

Net profit margin =
$$\frac{\text{Profit before interest and tax}}{\text{Revenue}}$$

Revenue Asset turnover Total long term capital

NB: ROCE = asset turnover \times net profit margin

NB: ROCE = as Gross profit Revenue

Return on equity Profit after tax and preference dividend Equity shareholders funds

Liquidity

Current assets Current ratio Current liabilities

Current assets – Inventory Quick ratio (or acid test) Current liabilities

Inventory ×365 days Inventory days

Average collection period (receivables days)

Average payment period (payables days)

$$= \frac{\text{Trade payables}}{\text{Purchases}} \times 365 \text{ days}$$

Gearing

Gearing

Total long-term debt Shareholders' equity + total long-term debt

Leverage

Shareholders' equity Shareholders' equity + total long-term debt

Interest cover

Profit before interest and tax Interest charges

Limitations of ratio analysis

You must learn the various ratios. However, it is important that you are able to discuss briefly the relevance of the various ratios, and also their limitations.

Very few of the ratios mean much on their own – most are only useful when compared with the ratios for previous years or for similar companies.

Many of the ratios use figures from the Statement of Financial Position. These only represent the position at one point in time, which could be misleading. For example, the level of receivables could be unusually high at the year end, simply because a lot of invoicing was done just before the year end. Perhaps more sensible in that sort of case would be to use the average for the year. Normally in the examination you will be expected simply to use Statement of Financial Position figures at the end of the year, but do be prepared to state the problem if relevant.

TEST

THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION RELATES TO QUESTIONS 1 TO 5.

The accounts of Lola plc for year ended 31 December 2010 include the following information:

Revenue	7,200
Gross profit	2,376
Net profit	1,080
Inventory	300
Trade receivables	624
Cash	1,608
Trade payables	1,890

QUESTION 1

Calculate the net profit percentage.

33%

66%

15%

85%

(2 marks)

QUESTION 2

Calculate the gross profit percentage.

33%

B 66%

15%

85%

(2 marks)

QUESTION 3

Calculate the receivables payment period (all sales are on credit).

211 days

B 95 days

C 49 days

32 days D

(2 marks)

QUESTION 4

Calculate the current ratio.

A 1.18

В 1.34

C 0.49

D 0.75

(2 marks)

QUESTION 5

Calculate the quick ratio.

- 1.18 \mathbf{A}
- В 1.34
- \mathbf{C} 0.49
- D 0.75



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ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Chapter 1

No Examples

Chapter 2

Answer to Example 1

Increase in net assets = capital introduced + profit - drawings

32,000 - 25,000 = 10,000 + Profit - 7,000

7,000 = Profit + 3,000Profit **= \$4,000**

Answer to Example 2

Increase in net assets = capital introduced + profit – drawings

150,000 - 118,000 = 0 + 54,000 - drawings32,000 = 54,000 - drawings

Drawings = 54,000 - 32,000 = \$22,000

Chapter 3

Answer to Example 1 and 2

	Cash a/c				Capital a/c			
Capital	5,000	Car	1,000			Cash	5,000	
Sales	800	Purchases	500					
Receivables	500	Rent	200					
		Payables	400					
		Withdrawals	100					
		Balance	4,100					
	6,300		6,300					
Balance	4,100							
Car a/c			Purchases a/c					
Cash	1,000			Cash	500			
				Payables	600			
						Balance	1,100	
					1,100		1,100	
				Balance	1,100			
	Payal	bles a/c			Ren	t a/c		
Cash	400	Purchases	600	Cash	200			
Balance	200							
Daimineo	600		600					
		Balance	200					

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ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

	Sale	es a/c			Receiva	bles a/c	
		Cash	800	Sales	900	Cash	500
		Receivables	900				
Balance	1,700					Balance	400
	1,700		1,700		900		900
		Balance	1,700	Balance	400		
	Withdra	wals a/c					
Cash	100						
Answer to Ex. Trial Balance	AMPLE	3					
		Debit	Credit				
		<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>				
Cash		4,100					
Capital			5,000				
Car		1,000					
Purchases		1,100					
Payables			200				
Rent		200					
Sales			1,700				
Receivables		400					
Withdrawals		100					
		6,900	6,900				
Answer to Ex							
		ash			Сар	pital	
Balance	4,100					Balance	5,000
	_	_			_	-	
p. 1		Car				hases	
Balance	1,000			Balance	1,100		
						Incomo Statomont	1 100
					1 100	Income Statement	1,100 1,100
•	_						1,100
	Pay	ables	200	D 1		ent Communication of the Commu	200
		Balance	200	Balance	200	Income Statement	200
					200		200
	_	_					200
T. C. I		ales	1 700	D 1		vables	
Income Statement	1,700	Balance	1,700	Balance	400		
	1,700		1,700				
			1,700				
D 1		drawals					
Balance	100						
		i e					

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Income Statement						
Purchases	1,100	Sales	1,700			
Rent	200					
Balance	400					
	1,700		1,700			
		Balance (Profit)	400			

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 5

Statement of Financial Position

\$ \$ **ASSETS** Non-current assets Car 1,000 Current assets 4,100 Cash Receivables 400 4,500 5,500

CAPITAL AND LIABILITIES

Capital

Capital Introduced 5,000 Profit 400 Less: Withdrawals (100)

5,300

1,800

Current liabilities

Payables 200

200 5,500

Chapter 4

Insurance

Answer to Example 1

Insurance				Prepayments		
Cash	800	Prepayments a/c	1,000	Insurance	1,000	
Cash	2,000					
		Income Statement	1,800			
		_				
	2,800	_	2,800			
Income Statement				Statement of	Financial Pos	i-
				tion		
Expenses:				Current Asset	S	

Answer to Example 2

Telephone			Accruals		
Cash	500		Telephone	950	
Cash	600				
Cash	750				
	Income Statement	2,800			
Accruals	950				
	2,800	2,800			

Prepayment

1,000

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950

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Income Statement

Statement of Financial Position

Expenses:

Current Liabilities

Telephone

2,800 Telephone

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3

Prepayments				Insurance				
Balance b/f	1,000	Insurance	1,000	Prepayments	1,000			
	1,000		1,000	Cash	2,400	Prepayments	1,200	
						Income Statement	2,200	
Insurance	1,200				3,400	_	3,400	

Income Statement

Statement of Financial Posi-

tion

Expenses:

Current Assets Prepayment

Insurance 2,200 1,200

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 4

Accruals			Telephone				
Telephone	950	Balance b/f	950	Cash	950	Accruals	950
	950		950	Cash	1,000		
		Accruals	1,500	Cash	1,200		
				Cash	1,350		
				Accruals	1,500	Income Statement	5,050
					6,000	_	6,000

Income Statement

Statement of Financial Posi-

tion

Expenses:

Current Liabilities

Telephone

Accruals

5,050

1,500

Chapter 5

No Examples

Chapter 6

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1

 $\frac{12,000-2,000}{2} = 2,000$ p.a. Depreciation = 2002: $%2 \times 2,000$ 1,500 2003: 2,000 2004: 2,000

	31.12.2002	31.12.2003	31.12.2004
Income Statement:			
Depreciation	1,500	2,000	2,000
Statement of Financial Position:			
Cost	12,000	12,000	12,000
Less: Accumulated Depreciation	(1,500)	(3,500)	(5,500)
	10,500	8,500	6,500

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Answer to Example 2

	Cost	15,000
Yr 1	Depreciation (20%)	(3,000)
		12,000
Yr 2	Depreciation (20%)	(2,400)
		9,600
Yr 3	Depreciation (20%)	(1,920)
		7,680

	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Income Statement:			
Depreciation	3,000	2,400	1,920
Statement of Financial Position:			
Cost	15,000	15,000	15,000
Less: Accumulated Depreciation	(3,000)	(5,400)	(7,320)
	12,000	9,600	7,680

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3

Depreciation =
$$\frac{15,000-1,000}{5}$$
 = 2,800p.a.

$$Y/e 30.6.02$$
 $\%_{12} \times 2,800 = \$1,400$

Car		Accumulated Depreciation A/C						
Cash	15,000					2002	Dep Exp	1,400
I control			2003	Balance	4,200	2003	Dep Exp	2,800
I .				Cash	4,200			4,200
I .							Balance	4,200
			2004	Balance	7,000	2004	Dep Exp	2,800
4					7,000			7,000
							Balance	7,000

Depreciation Expense A/C							
2002	Accum Dep	1,400	2002	Inc Stat.	1,400		
		1,400			1,400		
2003	Accum Dep	2,800	2003	Inc Stat.	2,800		
2004	Accum Dep	2,800	2004	Inc Stat.	<u>2,800</u> 2,800		

Answer to	EXAMPLE 4	1					
Car			Accumulated Depreciation				
Balance	15,000 I 	Disposal	15,000	Balance Disposal		Balance Dep Exp $(\sqrt[3]{12} \times 2,800)$ Balance	7,000
	Depreciatio	on Expense		Disposai	7,700 7,700 Dispos		7,700
Accum Depr		Inc Stat	700	Car	15,000		7,700 6,500 800 15,000

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Answi	ER TO	Examp	LE 5
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Buildings				Accumulated Depreciation			
Balance	3,600,000	Revaluation a/c	528,000			Balance	1,080,000
		Balance	3,072,000	Balance	1,116,000	Dep Exp (W1)	36,000
	3,600,000		3,600,000		1,116,000		1,116,000
Balance	3,072,000			Revaluation	1,116,000	Balance	1,116,000
					1,116,000		1,116,000
						Dep Exp (W2)	44,522
Depreciation Expense					Revalua	tion A/C	
Accum Dep	36,000			Building	528,000	Accum Dep	1,116,000
Accum Dep	44,522	Inc Stat	80,522	Profit on reval.	588,000		
	80,522		80,522		1,116,000		1,116,000

(W1) Dep Exp =
$$\%_{12} \times 2\% \times 3,600,000 = \$36,000$$

(W2) Dep Exp =
$$\frac{6}{12} \times \frac{3,072,000}{34.5} = \$44,522$$

With depreciation at 2% p.a., expected life of building was 50 years.

At date of revaluation, the accumulated depreciation is \$1,116,000. At the rate of \$72,000 p.a..

this is
$$\frac{1,116,000}{72,000} = 15.5$$
 years.

So expected life remaining = 50 - 15.5 = 34.5 years.

Chapter 7

No Examples

Chapter 8

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1

Statement of Financial Position

	<i>\$</i>
Current assets	
Receivables (W1)	58,400
Less: Allowance for receivables (W2)	(5,024)
Income Statement	53,376
Expenses	
Irrecoverable debts (2,500 + 1,600)	4,100
Increase in allowance for receivables	5,024
l l	9,124
(W1) Receivables: 62,500 – 2,500 – 1,600 = (W2) Allowance for receivables:	\$58,400
Specific:	2,800
General: $(4\% \times (58,400 - 2,800)$	2,224
	5,024

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

Receivables				Allowance for Receivables
Balance	82,000	Irrecoverable	5,000	Irrecoverable 12,560
		Irrecoverable	3,000	
		Balance	74,000	
	82,000		82,000	
Balance	74,000			

Irrecoverable Debts Expense

Receivables	5,000		
Receivables	3,000	Inc Stat	20,560
Allowance a/c	12,560		
	20,560		20,560

Calculation for allowance for receivables

Specific: (8,000 + 2,000)	10,000
General: $(4\% \times (74,000 - 10,000)$	2,560
	12,560

Answer to Example 3

Receivables				Allowance for Receivables			s
Balance	74,000	Cash	238,000	Irrecov. debts	3,312	Balance	12,560
Sales	261,000	Balance	97,000				
	335,000		335,000	Balance	9,248		
Balance	97,000	Irrecoverable	8,000		12,560		12,560
Irrecoverable	2,200	Irrecoverable	4,000			Balance	9,248
		Balance	87,200				
	99,200		99,200				
Balance	87,200						

Irrecoverable Debts Expense

Receivables	8,000	Receivables	2,200
Receivables	4,000	Allowance	3,312
		Inc Stat	6,488
	12,000		12,000

Calculation for allowance for receivables

Specific: (Mick)	6,000
General: (4% × (87,200 – 6,000)	3,248
	9,248
Balance brought forward	12,560
Decrease in allowance	3,312

Chapter 9

Answer to Example 1

Trading Account

Sales	30,000
Purchases	20,000
Gross Profit	10,000

Sales			Purchases				
Inc Stat	30,000	Cash	30,000	Cash	20,000	Inc Stat	20,000
	30,000		30,000		20,000		20,000

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Income Statement						
Purchases	20,000	Sales	30,000			
Profit	10,000					
	30,000		30,000			

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

Trading Account

Sales 34,000

Less: Cost of Sales

Purchases 25,000

Closing inventory (4,000)21,000 Gross Profit 13,000

Sales			Purchases				
Inc Stat	34,000 C	ash	34,000	Cash	25,000	Inc Stat	25,000
	34,000		34,000		25,000		25,000
	Income Sta	atement			Inve	ntory	
Durchagos	25 000 Sc	olog	24,000	Inc Stat	4.000		

	income s	siaiemeni			inventory	
Purchases	25,000	Sales	34,000	Inc Stat	4,000	
Profit	13,000	Inventory	4,000			
	38,000		38,000			

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3

Trading Account

Sales 50,000

Less: Cost of Sales

Opening inventory 4,000 Purchases 38,000

Closing inventory (6,000)36,000 Gross Profit 14,000

Sales **Purchases** 50,000 Cash 38,000 Inc Stat Inc Stat 50,000 Cash 38,000 50,000 50,000 38,000 38,000

_						l	
Income Statement				Inventory			
Inventory	4,000	Sales	50,000	Balance	4,000	Inc Stat	4,000
Purchases	38,000	Inventory	6,000	Inc Stat	6,000	Balance	6,000
Profit	14,000				10,000		10,000
	56,000		56,000	Balance	6,000		

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 4

A:	$100 \times \$10 =$	1,000
B:	200 × \$11 =	2,200
C:	$150 \times \$6 =$	900
	-	4,100

Answer to Example 5

Closing stock (units):

300 + 400 + 400 + 400 - 500 - 400 - 100 = 500 units

FIFO

 $400 \times $15 =$ 6,000 $100 \times $14 =$ 1,400 500 units \$7,400

Average cost

	80 0000					
		units		Total cost	Average cost	
		300	× \$12 =	3,600		
10/11	Purchase	400	× \$12.50 =	5,000		
		700		8,600	12.29	$(\frac{8,600}{700})$
14/11	Sale	500				700
		200	× \$12.29 =	2,458		
20/11	Purchase	400	× \$14 =	5,600		
		600		8,058	13.43	$(\frac{8,058}{600})$
21/11	Sale	400				000
	_	200	× \$13.43 =	2,686		
25/11	Purchase	400	×\$15 =	6,000		
		600		8,686	14.47	$(\frac{8,686}{600})$
28/11	Sale	100				000
		500	×\$14.47 =	\$7,235		

Chapter 10

Answer to Example 1

Cash Receipts Book

Description	Total	Capital	Sales	Receivables
Pattie	6,000	6,000		
Chairs	1,200		1,200	
Ann	1,000			1,000
Pattie	4,000	4,000		
	12,200	10,000	1,200	1,000

Cash Payments Book

Description	Total	Purchases	Van	Rent	Payables	Wages	Drawings
Chairs	1,600	1,600					
Van	2,500		2,500				
Rent	300			300			
Chris	900				900		
Wages	400					400	
Pattie	700						700
	6,400	1,600	2,500	300	900	400	700

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Payables Journal

Supplier	Amount
Chris	400
Chris	800
William	600
William	1,000
Bertha	1,600
	4,400

Receivables Journal

Customer	Amount
Ann	2,100
Edwina	350
Andrew	700
Tony	1,350
George	2,100
	6,600

Payables Ledger

	Ci	hris			Will	liam	
СРВ	900	PJ	400			PJ	600
		PJ	800			PJ	1,000
Balance	300			Balance	1,600		
	1,200		1,200		1,600		1,600
		Balance	300			Balance	1,600
	Be	rtha					
		PJ	1,600				

List of balances

Chris 300 William 1,600 1,600 Bertha 3,500

Receivables Ledger

_						
	A	nn			Edwina	
RJ	2,100	CRB	1,000	RJ	350	
	2,100	Balance				
	And	drew			Tony	
RJ	700			RJ	1,350	
	Ge	orge				
RJ	2,100					

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

List of balances

Ann	1,100
Edwina	350
Andrew	700
Tony	1,350
George	2,100
	5,600

Nominal Ledger

	Ca	ish		Capital	
CRB	12,200	СРВ	6,400	CRB	10,000
i e					
		Balance	5,800		
	12,200		12,200		
Balance	5,800				

	Se	ales			Recei	vables	
		CRB	1,200	RJ	6,600	CRB	1,000
		RJ	6,600				
Balance	7,800					Balance	5,600
ı	7,800		7,800		6,600		6,600
		Balance	7,800	Balance	5,600		

	Purc	chases			Van
СРВ	1,600			СРВ	2,500
PJ	4,400				
		Balance	6,000		
	6,000		6,000		
Balance	6,000				

	Rent		Paya	ables	
СРВ	300	СРВ	900	PJ	4,400
i I		Balance	3,500		
			4,400		4,400
					3,500

	Wages		Drav	vings
СРВ	400	СРВ	700	

Trial Balance

	DK	CA
Cash	5,800	
Capital		10,000
Sales		7,800
Receivables	5,600	
Purchases	6,000	
Van	2,500	
Rent	300	3,500
Payables		
Wages	400	
Drawings	700	
	21,300	21,300

Chapter 11

Answer to Example 1

DR Purchases 2,500 CR Payables 2,500 being the purchase of goods on credit

Chapter 12

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1

Gross selling price $= 150 + (16\% \times 150)$ = 150 + 24 = \$174

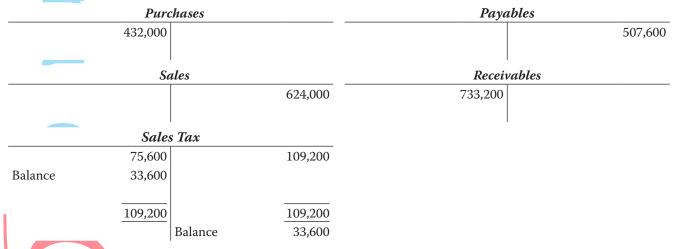
ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

If net selling price $= x + (0.16 \times x)$ then $=\frac{120}{1.16}=\$103.45$

Answer to Example 3

If net selling price $= x + (0.175 \times x)$ 220 then = 1.175 x $=\frac{220}{2}$ = \$187.23

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 4



Answer to Example 5

Selling price 1,200 less: trade discount (240)960 less: cash discount (48)912 Sales Tax at 18% 164.16 1076.16

Receivab	les	Sales Tax
1,124.16 Cas	sh 1,076.16	164.16
Disc	c Allowed 48.00	
1,124.16	1,124.16	

Sal	es		Discount	allowed	
	960	Receivables	48		

Chapter 13

Answer to Example 1

Statement of Financial Position

Equity

Share Capital 10,000 Share Premium 2,000 \$12,000

Answer to Example 2

	Share Capital	Share Premium
Share Capital	10,000	2,000
Share Premium	2,000	4,000
	\$12,000	\$6,000

Statement of Financial Position

Equity

Share Capital 12,000 Share Premium 6,000 \$18,000

Chapter 14

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1

Non-current asset				
Balance b/f	410,000	Depreciation	40,000	
Acquisitions	195,000	Disposals	20,000	
(balancing figure)		Telephone		
		Balance c/f	545,000	
	605,000		605,000	

Statement of Cash Flows

	<i>\$</i>	<i>\$</i>
Cash flows from operating activities		
Operating profit	101,000	
Depreciation	40,000	
Profit on sale of non-current assets	(10,000)	
	131,000	
Increase in inventories	(9,000)	
Increase in receivables	(8,000)	
Increase in payables	28,000	
Cash generated from operations	142,000	
Interest paid	(1,000)	
Taxation paid	(49,000)	
Dividends paid	(16,000)	
Net cash from operating activities		76,000

Cash flows from investing activities

Purchase of non-current assets	(195,000)
Sale of non-current assets	30,000

(165,000)

Cash flows from	n financii	ng activities
-----------------	------------	---------------

Proceeds from issue of shares	70,000
Net cash from financing activities	70,000
N	(10.000)
Net increase in cash	(19,000)
Cash and cash equivalents b/f	64,000
Cash and cash equivalents c/f	45,000

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

Direct Method

	\$
Cash received from customers	1,162,000
(235,000 + 1,200,000 - 259,000 - 14,000)	
Cash paid to suppliers	(830,000)
(840,000 + 160,000 - 168,000 - 140,000 + 138,000)	
Cash paid to employees	(42,000)
Other cash payments	
(120,000 - 36,000 - 42,000 + 6,000 - 14,000)	(34,000)
•	\$256,000

Indirect Method

	<i>\$</i>
Operating profit	240,000
Depreciation	36,000
Profit on sale	(6,000)
	270,000
Increase in Inventory	(20,000)
Increase in Receivables	(24,000)
Increase in Payables	30,000
	\$256,000

Chapter 15

	Cas	h a/c	
Balance	11,820	Bank charges	20
Error in payment	900	Dishonoured cheque	200
'		Balance	12,500
	12,720		12,720
Balance	12,500		

Balance at bank	150,000
Add: Lodgements not credited	4,000
Less: Unpresented cheques	(6,500)
Balance per cash account	\$12,500

Chapter 16

Answer to Example 1

Receivables Ledger Control Account

Receivables Leager Control Account				
Balance	186,220	Returns	9,160	
Sales	101,260	Cash	91,270	
Refunds	300	Discounts	1,430	
		Irrecoverable debts	460	
		Contras	480	
4		Balance	184,980	
	287,780		287,780	
Balance	184,980			

Payables Ledger Control Account

Returns	4,280	Balance	89,290
Cash	71,840	Purchases	68,420
Discounts	880		
Contras	480		
Balance	80,230		
	157,710		157,710
		Balance	80,230

Chapter 17

Answer to Example 1

Statement of adjustments to profit

Draft profit	52,380
Debt recovered	563
Closing inventories (8,920 – 7,930)	(990)
Sales or return	(400)
Prepayment	490
Adjusted profit	\$52,043

Answer to Example 2

Suspense Account

	Suspens	e Account	
Sales	6,300	Balance	4,957
		Electricity	99
		Telephone	70
		Purchases	1,174
	6,300		6,300

Chapter 18

Answer to Example 1

- Sales = $20,000 + (20\% \times 20,000) = $24,000$ (a)
- $50,000 = x + (0.25 \times x) = 1.25x$

Cost of goods sold:
$$x = \frac{50,000}{1.25} = $40,000$$

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

- Cost of goods sold = $120,000 (20\% \times 120,000) = \$96,000$
- 45,000 = x 0.25x = 0.75x

Sales:
$$x = \frac{45,000}{0.75} = $60,000$$

Chapter 19

No Examples

Chapter 20

No Examples

Chapter 21

No Examples

Chapter 22

No Examples

Chapter 23

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

Non-current assets (25,000 + 12,000)	37,000
Current assets (8,000 + 9,000)	17,000
•	54,000
Share capital	25,000
Retained earnings (15,000 + 8,000)	23,000
Current liabilities	6,000
	54,000

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

Non-current assets (55,000 + 25,000)	80,000
Current assets (18,000 + 14,000)	32,000
	112,000

5	Share capital		60,000
I	Retained earnings	(w)	45,000
C	Current liabilities		7,000
1			112,000

Workings – retained earnings:

P		38,000
S	15,000	
Less: pre-acquisition	8,000	
		7,000
		45,000

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES				
ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3 Consolidated Statement of Financia	al Position			
Non-current assets (82,000 + 27,000	+ 9,000)		118,000	
Goodwill arising on consolidation (V	W1)		26,000	
Current assets (20,000 + 12,000)		_	32,000	
<u>-</u>				
Share capital			50,000	
Retained earnings (W2)			123,000	
Current liabilities		-	3,000	
		_	176,000	
W(1) – Goodwill arising on consolida	tion:			
Consideration	ition.		60,000	
Less:			00,000	
Share capital		10,000		
Pre-acquisition profits		15,000		
Fair value adjustment		9,000	24.000	
			34,000	
W(2) – Retained earnings:			26,000	
p		110,000		
S	28,000	110,000		
Less: pre-acquisition	15,000			
Less, pre dequisition	15,000	13,000		
	_	123,000		
	-	125,000		
ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 4				
Consolidated Statement of Financia			100 000	
Non-current assets (76,000 + 18,000			100,000	
Goodwill arising on consolidation (V	V 1)		8,000	
Current assets (12,000 + 9,000)		-	21,000	
		-	129,000	
Clara and the l			40.000	
Share capital			40,000	
Retained earnings (W2) Current liabilities			84,000	
Current habilities		-	5,000	
		-	129,000	
W(1) – Goodwill arising on consolida	tion:			
Consideration			25,000	
Less:				
Share capital		5,000		

Pre-acquisition profits

Fair value adjustment

6,000

6,000

17,000 8,000

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

W(2) -	Retained	earnings:
--------	----------	-----------

P 70,000

S 20,000 Less: pre-acquisition 6,000

> 14,000 84,000

Chapter 24

Answer to Example 1

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

Non-current assets	45,000
Current assets	13,000
	58,000

Share capital 25,000

Retained earnings (W1) 21,400 46,400

Non-controlling interest (W2) 3,600
Total equity 50,000

Current liabilities 8,000 58,000

W(1) – retained earnings

P 15,000 80% share of S 8,000 x 80% 6,400 21,400

W(2) – non-controlling interest

 Share capital – 20% x 10,000
 2,000

 Post-acquisition earnings – 20% x 8,000
 1,600

 3,600

Answer to Example 2

Goodwill arising on consolidation:

١	Consideration tran	sferred	40,000
	Fair value of NCI		30,000
			70,000
	Chara capital	20,000	

Share capital 20,000
Pre-acquisition retained earnings 6,000

Goodwill arising on consolidation 26,000
44,000

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3

Non-controlling interest

Fair value of the NCI at the date of acquisition	30,000
NCI's share of post-acquisition profits	

(40% x (16,	000 - 6	,000)	•	4,000
				34,000

Answer to Example 4

Retained earnings

Retained earnings of P	4	44,000
Retained earnings of S	16,000	
Less: pre-acquisition profits	6,000	
Post-acquisition profits of S	10,000	
D. 1	·	c 000

P's share of post-acquisition profits of S (60% x 10,000) 6,000 50,000

Answer to Example 5

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

Non-current assets	80,000
Goodwill arising on consolidation	44,000
Current assets	26,000
	150,000
Share capital	50,000
Retained earnings	50,000
	100,000
Non-controlling interest	34,000
Total equity	134,000
Current liabilities	16,000
	150,000

Answer to Example 6

Extract from the Consolidated Statement of Financial Position:

Receivables	(50,000 + 30,000 - 8,000)	72,000
Pavables (35	000 + 40,000 - 8,000	67,000

Answer to Example 7

Consolidated Statement of Financial Position

Non-current assets	75,000
Inventory (W1)	18,800
Other current assets (W2)	10,000
	103,800
Share capital	45,000
Retained earnings (W4)	40,350
	85,350
Non-controlling interest (W5)	8,450

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ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Current liabilities (W6) 10,000 103,800

Provision for unrealised profit in inventory:

The selling price of the inventory is 6,000 and therefore the unrealised profit is $25/125 \times 6,000 = 1,200$.

We must reduce the inventory by this amount, and must also reduce S's retained earnings (because it is S who sold the goods and will have taken credit for the profit in its own accounts).

W(1) – Inventory:

Inventory in P	13,000
Inventory in S	7,000
Provision for unrealised profit	(1,200)
	18,800

W(2) - Other current assets:

$$10,000 + 6,000 - 6,000 = $10,000$$

W(3) – Current liabilities:

$$13,000 + 3,000 - 6,000 = $10,000$$

W(4) - Retained earnings:

D'a notain ad agunin ag	20,000
P's retained earnings	30,000

P's share of S's retained earnings:

W(5) – Non-controlling interest:

Share capital: 25% x 20,000	5 000
Snare capital: 25% x 20,000	5,000

Retained earnings:

Note: there is no goodwill arising on consolidation because the shares were acquired on incorporation at cost.

Chapter 25

Answer to Example 1

Consolidated Income Statement

Revenue (52,000 + 24,000)	76,000
Cost of sales (12,000 + 10,000)	22,000
Gross Profit	54,000
Expenses (8,000 + 4,000)	12,000
Profit before taxation	42,000
Income tax (12,000 + 3,000)	15,000
Profit for the year	27,000

25,600
1,400
27,000

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

Note: movement on retained earnings	
Retained earnings brought forward (80,000 + (80% x 20,000))	96,000
Group profit for the year	25,600
Retained earnings carried forward	121,600
ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 2 Consolidated Income Statement	
Revenue (85,000 + 31,000)	116,000
Cost of sales (21,000 + 12,000)	33,000
Gross Profit	83,000
Expenses (12,000 + 7,000)	19,000
Profit before taxation	64,000
Income tax (16,000 + 4,000)	20,000
Profit for the year	44,000
Profit attributable to:	
Owners of the parent (bal. figure)	40,800
Non-controlling interest (40% x 8,000)	3,200
	44,000
Note: movement on retained earnings	
Retained earnings brought forward (120,000 + (60% x (17,000 – 8,000)))	125,400
Group profit for the year	40,800
Retained earnings carried forward	166,200
ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 3 Consolidated Income Statement	
Revenue (120,000 + 110,000 – 28,000 (W1))	202,000
Cost of sales (55,000 + 50,000 - 28,000 (W1) + 2,000 (W2))	79,000
Gross Profit	123,000
Expenses (9,000 + 10,000)	19,000
Profit before taxation	104,000
Income tax (20,000 + 14,000)	34,000
Profit for the year	70,000
Profit attributable to:	
Owners of the parent (bal. figure)	54,700
Non-controlling interest (45% x (36,000 – 2,000 (W2)))	15,300
	70,000

W1 - Intra-group sales:

Sales price	140%	28,000
Cost of sales	100%	20,000
Profit	40%	8,000

S will have recorded \$28,000 in sales, and P will have recorded \$28,000 in cost of sales, and so we subtract \$28,000 from both.

(Note: although we need to do this so as to show only sales and purchases from outside the group, this adjustment will not affect the total profit. If all the inter entity sales had subsequently been sold outside the group then no other adjustment would be necessary because all the profit would have been realised).



Paper F3

ANSWERS TO EXAMPLES

W2 - Unrealised profit:

One quarter of the inter-entity sales remain in inventory and therefore the unrealised profit is $\frac{1}{4}$ x \$8,000 = \$2,000.

We therefore reduce S's inventory by \$2,000 which will increase the cost of sales.

Chapter 26

No Examples

Chapter 27

Answer to Example 1

ANSWER TO EXAMPLE 1		• • • • •	• • • • •
Net profit margin	$(\frac{1,896}{17,232})$	2010 11%	2009 8.5%
Gross profit margin	$(\frac{4,308}{17,232})$	25%	22.5%
Return on capital	$(\frac{1,896}{6,455})$	29.4%	25.6%
Asset turnover	$(\frac{17,232}{6,455})$	2.67	3.02
Return on equity	$(\frac{1,147}{5,255})$	21.8%	19.0%
Current ratio	$(\frac{5,553}{2,316})$	2.4	2.4
Quick ratio (or acid test)	$(\frac{3,139}{2,316})$	1.36	1.15
Inventory days	$(\frac{2,414}{12,924} \times 365)$	68.2 days	75.5 days
Receivables days	$(\frac{2,275}{17,232} \times 365)$	48.2 days	47.5 days
Payables days	$(\frac{2,316}{12,924} \times 365)$	65.4 days	61.0 days
Gearing ratio	$(\frac{1,200}{6,455})$	18.6%	22.2%
Leverage	$(\frac{5,255}{6,455})$	81.4%	77.8%
Interest cover	$(\frac{1,896}{120})$	15.8	8.9



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Paper F3

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE TESTS

Answers to test in chapter 1



Answers to test in chapter 2



	\$
Net assets 31/1/08	64,800
Less profit for year	(30,600)
Less capital introduced	(7,200)
plus withdrawals [(960 × 12) + 840]	12,360
Net assets @ 1/2/07	39,360

Answers to test in chapter 3

No tests

Answers to test in chapter 4

- $28,800 + (28,800 \times 2\%) + (21,600 \times 8/12) + 9,600 = 53,376$
- $(201,600 \times 2/12) + (230,400 \times 10/12) = 225,600; 230,400 \times 2/12 = 38,400$

Rent ledger

	\$		\$
Opening balance	50,880	Opening balance	68,800
Income statement	1,142,160	Cash received	1,154,880
Closing balance	74,880	Closing balance	44,160
	1,267,920		1,267,920

- $(2/3 \times 798.0) + 898.80 + 814.80 + 840.0 + (1/3 \times 966.0)$
- $\frac{3}{4} \times 25,920 + \frac{1}{4} \times 28,800 = 26,640$; prepayment $\frac{3}{4} \times 28,800 = 21,600$
- 2,003,040 + 323,040 11,520 + 20,880 346,560 = 1,988,880

Answers to test in chapter 5

- 1 В

Answers to test in chapter 6

- $(240,\!000\times20\%) + (\%_{12}\times160,\!000\times20\%) (\%_{12}\times60,\!000\times20\%) = 55,\!000$
- 2 A
- 3 Α
- 1/1/00 cost \$70,000 4 В

Depreciation charge =
$$\frac{70,000 - 7,000}{7} = 9,000$$

 \Rightarrow NBV after two years 31/12/01 = 52,000

Useful life revised to three years

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE TESTS

$$\Rightarrow \text{Depreciation charge} = \frac{52,000 - 7,000}{3} = \$15,000$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 NBV 31/12/03 = 52,000 - 30,000 = \$22,000

Proceeds 30,000
Less NBV (22,000)
Profit 8,000

Answers to test in chapter 7

No tests

Answers to test in chapter 8

1 B $88,800 + ((1,240,800 - 88,800) \times 5\%) - 93,600 = 52,800$

2 B

Irrecoverable debts 2,040
Decrease in allowance for receivables

 $(5,376 - 2\% \times 173,760) \qquad (1900.80)$ 139.20

3

Balance per trial balance 50,000
Less irrecoverable debt written off (2,500)
Add irrecoverable debt recovered 1,800
49,300

4 B 838,000 – 72,000 = 766,000; allowance 60,000

Answers to test in chapter 9

- 1 B
- **2** D
- **3** A (300@230) + (500@220) + (50@190) = 188,500
- 4

Answers to test in chapter 10

- 1 B
- **2** B
- **3** A

Answers to test in chapter 11

No tests

Answers to test in chapter 12

I

List Price 480,000
Trade discount (48,000)
432,000
Sales tax (17.5% × 95% × 432,000)
71,820
503,820

2 D 2,136 + 228 + 24 + 48 = 2,436

Answers to test in chapter 13

- **1** B
- 2 B 125,000 + (500,000 × ½ × 25c) + (750,000 × ½ × 25c) = 225,000; 100,000 + (500,000 × ½ × 75c) (750,000 × ½ × 25c) = 250,000
- **3** A

- D 4
- В 100 + 50 + 60; 80 - 50 + 30

Answers to test in chapter 14

- 2 D
- 3 C

Intangibles

	\$		\$
b/d	60	∴ Amortisation	20
Expenditure	55	c/d	95
	155		155

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	\$		\$
b/d	750	Depreciation	100
	320		
	105	c/d	1,230
∴ Additions	615		370
			90
	1,790		1,790

Answers to test in chapter 15

- -9,264 21,984 + 40,056 = 8,808
- 2 В

Answers to test in chapter 16

Receivables ledger control account

	\$		\$
Opening balance	740,640	Contras	11,040
Credit sales	370,080	Cash received	353,280
Interest charged	5,760	Discounts allowed	3,360
		Irrecoverable debts	11,760
		Closing balance	737,040
	1,116,480		1,116,480

- (8,950 4,080) (4,140 + 40) = 690

Payables ledger

	\$		\$
Cash paid	302,800	Opening balance	60,000
Discounts received	2,960	Purchases	331,760
Contra	2,000		
Closing balance	84,000		
	391,760		391,760

- 4 D 438,900 - 980-90 = 437,830
- 5 D

Paper F3

ANSWERS TO MULTIPLE CHOICE TESTS

6 Α

Davables ledger control account

	Payables leager	control account	
	\$		\$
Cash paid to suppliers	1,364,300	Opening balance	318,600
Purchase returns	41,200	Purchases	1,268,600
Contras against debit balances in receivables ledger	48,000	Refunds received from suppliers	2,700
Discounts	8,200		
Closing balance	128,200		
	1,589,900		1,589,900

Answers to test in chapter 17

- В 1
- 2 $200,640 + 43,200 - (43,200 \times 25\%) = 233,040$
- В 3
- A 4
- C 5

6

Answers to test in chapter 18

- D
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

Answers to test in chapter 19

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4 В
- D

6

Answers to test in chapter 20

- 1
- 2

Answers to test in chapter 21

A

Answers to test in chapter 22

- $1,000,000 / 40 \text{ years} = 25,000; 1,000,000 (800,000 (800,000 \times 2\% \times 10 \text{ years})) = 360,000$ 1
- 2 A
- 3 D

Answers to test in chapter 23

Goodwill arising on consolidation:

Consideration 90,000

Less:

15,000 Share capital Pre-acquisition profits 22,500

> 37,500 52,500

Retained earnings:

165,000

Z 42,000

22,500 Less: pre-acquisition

> 19,500 184,500

Goodwill arising on consolidation:

Consideration 60,000

Less:

Share capital 12,000 Pre-acquisition profits 14,400

Fair value adjustment 15,000

> 41,400 18,600

Retained earnings:

168,000

Z 48,000

Less: pre-acquisition 14,400

> 33,600 201,600

Answers to test in chapter 24

C

Y was acquired on incorporation and so there were no retained earnings at that date.

X 44,600

90% share of Y 90% x 19,500 17,550 62.150

3 A

> Share capital 10% x 24,000 2,400 Retained earnings 10% x 19,500 1,950

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4,350

В

	Consideration transferred		50,000
	Fair value of NCI		40,000
		-	90,000
	Share capital	50,000	
	Pre-acquisition retained earnings	15,000	
			65,000
	Goodwill arising on consolidation	-	25,000
		-	
5	D		
	Fair value of the NCI at date of acquisition	40,000	
	NCI's share of post-acquisition profits		
	(30% x (32,000 – 15,000))	5,100	
		45,100	
6	В		
	Retained earnings of Orange		65,000
	Retained earnings of Apple	32,000	
	Less: pre-acquisition profits	15,000	
	Post-acquisition profits of Apple	17,000	
	Orange's share of post-acq. profits		
	(70% x 17,000)		11,900
		-	76,900
		-	

Answers to test in chapter 25 No tests

Answers to test in chapter 26 No tests

Answers to test in chapter 27

- 1 1080/7200 x 100% = 15% 2 2376/7200 x 100% = 33% 3 D $624/7200 \times 365 = 32 \text{ days}$
- 4 В (300 + 624 + 1608) / 1890 = 1.345 (624 + 1608) / 1890 = 1.18

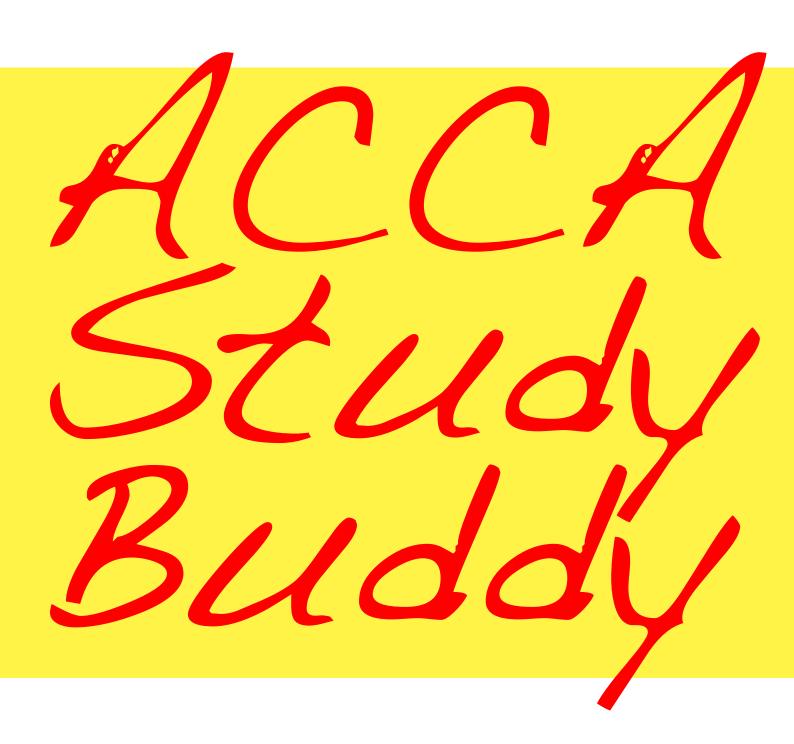
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