# Contract Law - II

**Answers to Important Question** 

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# **Module - 1: Indian Partnership Act, 1932**

#### **Q. Forms of Business Organization?**

- Under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, the following are the forms of business organization:
  - Sole Proprietorship: This is the simplest form of business organization where a single individual owns and manages the business. The sole proprietor has unlimited liability for the debts and obligations of the business.
  - Partnership: Partnership is formed when two or more individuals come together to carry on a business with the aim of making a profit.
     Partnerships can be further classified into different types based on their duration, liability of partners, and other factors.
    - General Partnership: In a general partnership, all partners have unlimited liability for the debts and obligations of the partnership. They also share profits and losses equally unless otherwise agreed upon.
      - Relevant sections:
        - Section 4: Definition of partnership
        - Section 25: Rights and duties of partners
        - Section 30: Liability of partners
    - **Limited Partnership:** In a limited partnership, there are both general partners and limited partners. General partners have unlimited liability, while limited partners have limited liability up to the extent of their investment in the business.
      - Relevant sections:
        - Section 6: Definition of limited partnership
        - Section 8: Rights and duties of limited partners
        - Section 9: Liability of limited partners
    - Registered Partnership: A registered partnership is one that is registered under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932. Registration provides certain legal benefits and protections to the partners.
      - Relevant sections:
        - Section 58: Rules for the registration of firms
        - Section 59: Effect of non-registration
        - Section 69: Public notice of partnership
  - Joint Hindu Family Business: This form of business organization is governed by Hindu Law and is typically found in India among Hindu families. It involves a business carried on by members of a Hindu undivided family, with the property and profits being jointly owned.



# Q. How many Sections, Chapters and Schedules are there under Indian Partnership Act, 1932?

- The Indian Partnership Act, 1932 contains a total of 74 sections organized into 8 chapters. Additionally, there are 2 schedules associated with the Indian Partnership Act, 1932.
- Here's an overview and breakdown of the same:
  - Sections: The act contains a total of 74 sections.
  - o **Chapters:** There are 8 chapters in the act.
  - **Schedules:** There are 2 schedules associated with the act:
    - Maximum Fees
    - Enactments repealed By repealing act, 1938 (1 of 1938) sec. 2 and schedule
- The act has been amended several times since its enactment in 1932, with the most recent amendment noted for the State of Maharashtra in 1984.

#### Q. State Rights and Duties of a partner under Indian Partnership Act 1932?

- Under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, the rights and duties of partners are outlined in various sections.
- Here's an overview:
  - Rights of Partners:
    - Right to take part in the conduct of the business: Every partner has the right to take part in the conduct of the partnership business according to Section 12 of the Act.
    - **Right to be Consulted:** Partners have the right to be consulted on important matters concerning the firm.
    - Right to Access Books: Section 12: Partners are entitled to access and inspect the books of accounts of the firm.
    - **Right to Remuneration:** Not explicitly provided for in the act but may be agreed upon in the partnership deed.
    - **Right to Share Profits:** Section 13: Partners have the right to share in the profits of the firm in a predetermined ratio.
    - **Right to Interest on Capital:** Not explicitly provided for in the act but may be agreed upon in the partnership deed.
    - **Right to Interest on Advances:** Not explicitly provided for in the act but may be agreed upon in the partnership deed.
    - Right to Indemnification: Section 10: Partners have the right to be indemnified by the firm for liabilities incurred while conducting firm business.
    - Right to Stop Admission of New Partners: Not explicitly provided for in the act but may be agreed upon in the partnership deed.



- Right to Retire: Section 32: Partners have the right to retire from the firm as per the terms agreed upon in the partnership deed.
- Right Not to be Expelled: Not explicitly provided for in the act but may be agreed upon in the partnership deed.
- **Right to Dissolve the Firm:** Section 39: Partners have the right to dissolve the firm under certain conditions as per the partnership agreement.

#### Duties of Partners:

- Duty to be Diligent: Not explicitly provided for in the act but implied by the fiduciary duty owed by partners.
- **Duty to Account for Profits:** Section 13: Partners must account for any profit earned from the firm's transactions.
- Duty to Indemnify for Loss Caused by Fraud: Section 10:
   Partners must indemnify the firm for any loss caused by their fraudulent acts.
- Duty to Use the Property of the Firm Properly: Not explicitly provided for in the act but implied by the duty of loyalty and care owed by partners.
- Duty to Share Losses: Section 13: Partners are obliged to share the losses of the firm in the same proportion as profits.
- Duty to Contribute to Losses: Section 13: Each partner is bound to contribute towards the losses sustained by the firm.

# Q. Rights and Liabilities of a Minor admitted to the Benefit of Partnership?

- Under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, a minor may be admitted to the benefits of a partnership with the consent of all the partners. However, a minor cannot be made a full-fledged partner in the firm. Instead, they are considered as a 'minor admitted to the benefits of partnership'.
- Let's delve into the rights and liabilities of such a minor:
  - Section 30: Rights of a Minor Admitted to the Benefits of Partnership:
    - **Share of Profits:** A minor has the right to his agreed share of the profits of the firm.
    - Access to Accounts: The minor can inspect and copy the accounts of the firm.
    - **Legal Action:** The minor can sue the partners for accounts or for payment of his share but only when severing his connection with the firm.
    - Option to Become a Partner: Upon attaining majority, the minor has six months to decide whether to become a partner or



- not. If they choose to become a partner, they are entitled to the share they were previously entitled to as a minor.
- Public Notice: If the minor chooses not to become a partner, they must give public notice of this decision to not be liable for any acts of the firm after the date of the notice.

#### Section 30: Liabilities of a Minor:

- **Extent of Liability:** Before attaining majority, the minor's liability is confined only to the extent of his share in the profits and property of the firm. The minor has no personal liability for the debts of the firm incurred during his minority.
- **Insolvency:** The minor cannot be declared insolvent, but if the firm is declared insolvent, the minor's share in the firm vests with the Official Receiver or Assignee.
- After Majority: If the minor elects to become a partner after reaching majority, they become personally liable to third parties for all acts of the firm done since they were admitted to the benefits of the partnership.
- **Failure to Give Notice:** If the minor fails to give public notice within six months of attaining majority regarding their decision not to become a partner, they will become liable for all acts done by the other partners until the date of such notice.

#### Q. Factors taken into consideration for Choice of Organization?

• When considering the choice of organization for a business, several factors come into play. These factors help determine the most suitable legal structure for the specific needs and circumstances of the business.

## • Here are some key factors to consider:

- Nature of Business: The type of business activity and the industry it operates in significantly influence the choice of partnership structure. Certain industries may favour specific partnership arrangements over others.
- Scale of Operations: The size and scope of the business, including its geographical reach and the volume of transactions, play a crucial role in determining the appropriate partnership structure. Larger-scale operations may require more complex organizational forms.
- Capital Requirement: The amount of capital needed to establish and operate the business, as well as the capacity of partners to contribute to the firm's capital, are essential considerations. Partnerships with higher capital requirements may opt for structures that allow for greater capital infusion.

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- Liability: Partners must consider their willingness to accept unlimited liability or their preference for limited liability. This decision impacts the personal exposure of partners to business debts and obligations.
- Management and Control: Preferences regarding the distribution of management responsibilities and control among the partners are critical. Partnerships may opt for structures that provide for centralized or decentralized decision-making processes based on their management preferences.
- Duration of Business: The intended duration of the business, whether
  it is a short-term project or a long-term venture, influences the choice
  of partnership structure. Some partnerships may be formed for a
  specific project or timeframe, while others may be intended for
  ongoing operations.
- **Taxation:** The tax implications of different partnership structures must be carefully considered. Partnerships may choose structures that offer tax advantages or minimize tax liabilities for the partners.
- Regulatory Compliance: Partnerships must ensure ease of compliance with legal and regulatory requirements. Different partnership structures may have varying levels of regulatory obligations, and partners must select a structure that aligns with their capacity to meet these requirements.
- Flexibility: Partnerships may desire a certain degree of flexibility in terms of adding or removing partners and making decisions. The chosen partnership structure should allow for the desired level of flexibility to accommodate changing business needs.
- Profit Sharing: Agreement among partners on how profits and losses will be shared is fundamental. Partnerships must establish clear profitsharing arrangements to ensure fairness and transparency among the partners.

#### Q. What is Partnership? Essential Elements of Partnership?

- According to Section 4 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, "Partnership is the relation between persons who have agreed to share the profits of a business carried on by all or any one of them acting for all."
- Partnership vs. Firm:
  - Partnership: Persons who have entered into partnership with one another are called individually "Partners" and collectively "a firm." It's a legal relation.
  - Firm: The name under which their business is carried on is called the "firm name." A firm is a collective name of partners. It is a physical unit. It is concrete. While partnership is merely an abstract legal relation between the partners.



# • All the following elements must be present if an association of persons is to be called a partnership:

- Association of two or more persons: There must be at least two persons to form a partnership.
- Agreement between persons: The relation of partnership arises from contract and not from status. The agreement of partnership may be expressed or implied.
- o **Business:** Partnership can be formed only for the purpose of carrying on some business. It includes every trade, occupation, or profession.
- Sharing of Profits: The division of profits is an essential condition of the existence of a partnership. It's prima facie evidence of the existence of partnership.
- Business carried on by all or any of them acting for all (Mutual Agency): Each partner is the agent of the firm as well as of the other partners. The business may be carried on by all the partners or by any of them acting for all.

#### Sharing of Losses (Liability):

- To establish a partnership, it's not necessary for partners to explicitly consent to share the losses, as affirmed in Raghunandan vs Harmasjee. One partner can agree to bear all the losses of the business. Thus, the existence of partnership is not contingent upon the consent to share losses.
- However, Section 13(6) of the Indian Partnership Act states that partners are entitled to share equally in the profits earned and must contribute equally to the losses incurred by the firm, unless otherwise agreed. Therefore, the sharing of losses may be inferred from the agreement to share profits. If nothing is specified regarding the sharing of losses, the agreement to share profits implies an agreement to share losses as well.

#### **Q. Contents of Partnership Deed:**

 The partnership deed is a crucial document that governs the rights, duties, and obligations of partners in a partnership firm. While the Indian Partnership Act of 1932 does not mandate the creation of a partnership deed, it is advisable for partners to have a written agreement to avoid misunderstandings and conflicts.

#### • The partnership deed typically contains the following contents:

- Name and Address of the Firm: This section includes the name under which the partnership operates and the principal place of business.
- Names and Addresses of Partners: The full names and addresses of all partners involved in the partnership.

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- Nature of Business: A description of the nature of the business activities conducted by the partnership.
- Duration of Partnership: Specifies whether the partnership is formed for a fixed term or at will.
- **Capital Contribution:** The amount of capital contributed by each partner to the partnership.
- o **Profit-Sharing Ratio:** The agreed-upon ratio or percentage at which profits and losses will be shared among the partners.
- Salaries and Drawings: Any provisions regarding salaries or drawings to be taken by partners for their services to the partnership.
- Interest on Capital and Drawings: Details regarding the interest, if any, to be paid on partners' capital contributions and drawings.
- Management Duties: Specifies the duties and responsibilities of each partner in managing the affairs of the partnership.
- Decision-Making Procedures: Procedures for making decisions within the partnership, including voting rights and procedures for resolving disputes.
- Admission of New Partners: Conditions and procedures for admitting new partners to the partnership.
- Retirement or Withdrawal of Partners: Procedures for the retirement or withdrawal of partners from the partnership, including buyout provisions.
- Expulsion of Partners: Circumstances under which a partner may be expelled from the partnership and the procedures for doing so.
- Dissolution and Winding Up: Provisions for the dissolution and winding up of the partnership, including distribution of assets and settlement of liabilities.
- Arbitration Clause: Any provisions for resolving disputes through arbitration rather than litigation.
- o **Banking Arrangements:** Details regarding the partnership's banking arrangements, including authorized signatories and bank accounts.
- Miscellaneous Provisions: Any other miscellaneous provisions deemed necessary by the partners.

#### Q. Kinds of Partnership

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, there are various kinds of partnerships recognized.
- Here are some of the common types of partnerships from the Act:
  - o **General Partnership:** Section 4 defines partnership. This is the most common form of partnership where all partners have unlimited liability for the debts and obligations of the firm.



- Particular Partnership: This is a partnership formed for a specific venture or undertaking, different from the usual business of the partners.
- Limited Liability Partnership (LLP): Introduced by the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008, LLP combines features of both partnerships and corporations, providing limited liability to its partners.
- Partnership at Will: Section 7 deals with partnership at will. This is a
  partnership where there is no fixed duration or specific agreement
  regarding the continuation of the partnership.
- Nominal Partnership: This is a partnership where a person lends their name to the firm without any actual involvement in the business operations.
- Minor Partnership: Sections 30-37 deal with minors admitted to the benefits of partnership. A partnership where one or more partners are minors. Minors can be admitted to the benefits of the partnership but cannot be full-fledged partners.
- Registered Partnership: Sections 57-65 deal with the registration of firms. A partnership that has been registered under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, providing certain legal benefits and advantages.

# Q. Partnership Property under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932:

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, partnership property refers to assets and resources owned or acquired by the partnership firm for the purpose of conducting its business.
- Here's an overview of partnership property:
  - Definition of Partnership Property: Section 14: Partnership property includes all property and rights originally brought into the partnership stock or acquired on account of the firm's business.
  - Nature of Partnership Property: Section 14: Partnership property is considered distinct from the individual assets of the partners. It is owned by the firm as a collective entity and not by individual partners.
  - Partnership Real Property: Section 14: Real property, such as land and buildings, acquired in the name of the partnership or for the partnership's benefit, is considered partnership property.
  - Partnership Personal Property: Section 14: Personal property, such as equipment, inventory, accounts receivable, and intellectual property, acquired for the partnership's use or benefit, is also considered partnership property.
  - Management of Partnership Property: Section 19: All partners have an equal right to the possession and use of partnership property for partnership purposes, subject to any agreement between the partners.



- Use of Partnership Property for Individual Benefit: Section 20:
   Partners are not entitled to use partnership property for their individual benefit without the consent of all the partners.
- Rights of Partners in Partnership Property: Section 14: Partners have a share in the partnership property as per the terms of the partnership agreement or as determined by the law.
- Disposition of Partnership Property: Section 19: Partnership property cannot be disposed of or transferred without the consent of all the partners, unless it is done in the ordinary course of business.

#### Q. Implied Authority of a Partner?

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, partners in a partnership firm have implied authority to act on behalf of the firm in certain situations. Implied authority refers to the authority granted to partners by virtue of their position as partners, even if such authority is not expressly conferred by the partnership agreement.
- Here are the key points regarding the implied authority of a partner along with relevant sections from the Act:
  - Implied Authority: Section 19 of the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, provides that every partner is the agent of the firm and has implied authority to bind the firm and other partners by their acts done in the ordinary course of business.
  - Acting in Ordinary Course of Business: Partners have implied authority to conduct the firm's business in the ordinary course, including entering into contracts, buying and selling goods, and engaging in transactions customary to the firm's operations.
  - Extent of Implied Authority:
    - The implied authority of a partner extends to acts done in the usual or customary manner of conducting the firm's business.
    - Section 19(2) specifies that a partner does not have implied authority to execute a deed of transfer of immovable property unless expressly authorized by the other partners.
  - Liability of the Firm: When a partner acts within their implied authority, the firm is bound by their actions, and other partners are jointly and severally liable for any obligations arising from such acts.
  - Notice to Third Parties: Section 20 of the Act provides that any act done by a partner on behalf of the firm in the ordinary course of business binds the firm, even if done without the knowledge or consent of the other partners.
  - Limits to Implied Authority: The implied authority of a partner is subject to any restrictions or limitations imposed by the partnership agreement or by unanimous agreement among the partners.



 Exceptions: Partners do not have implied authority to engage in acts outside the ordinary course of business or acts that are expressly prohibited by the partnership agreement or by unanimous agreement among the partners.

#### **Q. Incoming and Outgoing Partner:**

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, the entry and exit of partners in a partnership firm are governed by specific provisions.
- Here's an overview of the incoming and outgoing partners:
  - Incoming Partner (Section 31):
    - Admission of Partner: When a new partner joins an existing partnership, they are referred to as an incoming partner.
    - **Rights and Liabilities:** An incoming partner is entitled to share the profits and losses of the firm as per the terms of the partnership agreement.
    - Consent of Existing Partners: An incoming partner can only be admitted with the unanimous consent of all the existing partners, unless otherwise provided in the partnership agreement.
    - **Liability to Third Parties:** An incoming partner becomes personally liable for the debts and obligations of the firm incurred after their admission.
  - Outgoing Partner (Section 32):
    - Retirement of Partner: When a partner ceases to be a part of the partnership, either by retiring voluntarily or due to other reasons, they are known as an outgoing partner.
    - Rights and Liabilities: An outgoing partner remains liable for the firm's debts and obligations incurred before their retirement.
    - **Notice of Retirement:** An outgoing partner must give notice of their intention to retire from the firm to the other partners.
    - Settlement of Accounts: (Section 48) Upon retirement, an outgoing partner is entitled to have their share of the partnership assets determined and paid out.
    - Public Notice: An outgoing partner must give public notice of their retirement to avoid liability for the firm's debts and obligations incurred after their retirement.

#### Q. Registration of Partnership Firm

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, registration of a partnership firm is not mandatory, but it is highly recommended for various legal benefits and advantages.
- Here's an overview of the registration process:

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- Definition: Section 58: Registration refers to the process of officially recording the existence of a partnership firm with the Registrar of Firms.
- Registrar of Firms: Section 57: The Registrar of Firms appointed by the State Government is responsible for maintaining a register of all partnership firms within the jurisdiction.
- Application for Registration: Section 58: Any two or more persons intending to form a partnership must submit an application for registration to the Registrar of Firms.
- Contents of Application: Section 59: The application for registration must contain various details such as the firm name, place of business, names and addresses of partners, duration of the partnership, etc.
- Procedure for Registration: Section 59: Once the application is submitted along with the prescribed fee, the Registrar of Firms verifies the details and enters the firm's particulars in the Register of Firms.
- Certificate of Registration: Section 59: Upon registration, the Registrar issues a Certificate of Registration, which serves as conclusive evidence of the existence of the partnership and its particulars.
- Effects of Registration: Section 69: Registration of a partnership firm provides various legal benefits, including the ability to sue and be sued in the firm name, and the rights to file legal actions and claim set-offs.
- Amendment and Rectification: Section 64 & 65: The partnership deed or any changes in the firm's particulars can be amended or rectified by application to the Registrar of Firms.

#### Q. Dissolution of Partnership

• Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, the dissolution of a partnership refers to the termination of the relationship between partners and the closure of the partnership business.

#### • Here's an overview of the dissolution process:

- Definition: Section 39: Dissolution of partnership refers to the cessation of the partnership relationship between the partners.
- Modes of Dissolution: Sections 40-44: A partnership firm can be dissolved in various ways, including by agreement, by notice, by court order, or by the happening of certain contingencies.
- Dissolution by Agreement: Section 40: Partners may mutually agree to dissolve the partnership by entering into a dissolution agreement.
- Compulsory Dissolution: Section 41: The partnership may be compulsorily dissolved by the court if certain conditions are met, such as insanity of a partner, incapacity, misconduct, or persistent breach of partnership agreement.



- Dissolution by Notice: Section 43: A partnership at will may be dissolved by any partner giving notice in writing to all the other partners of their intention to dissolve the firm.
- Dissolution by Court: Section 44: The court may order the dissolution of a partnership on various grounds, including incapacity of a partner, continuous losses, or just and equitable grounds.
- Consequences of Dissolution: Sections 46-48: Upon dissolution, the
  partnership business is wound up, and the assets are realized, liabilities
  are paid off, and the remaining assets are distributed among the
  partners.
- Continuing Authority of Partners: Sections 47: After dissolution, partners continue to have authority to complete unfinished transactions and wind up the affairs of the partnership.

#### Q. Public Notice in case of Partnership:

- Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, public notice is required in specific situations involving a partnership firm to inform the public and interested parties about changes in the firm's composition or its dissolution.
- Here's a detailed explanation of when public notice is required and the process involved:
  - Retirement or Expulsion of a Partner:
    - When a partner retires or is expelled from a registered firm, a public notice must be given.
    - The purpose of this notice is to inform creditors, suppliers, and other stakeholders about the change in the partnership's composition.
    - The public notice should be submitted to the Registrar of Firms and published in the Official Gazette and at least one vernacular newspaper circulating in the district where the firm has its principal place of business.

#### Dissolution of a Firm:

- Upon the dissolution of a registered firm, a public notice is necessary to notify the public and interested parties about the end of the firm's business activities.
- The notice should be given to the Registrar of Firms and published in the Official Gazette and a vernacular newspaper circulating in the district where the firm operates.

#### Change in the Constitution of the Firm:

- Any change in the constitution of the firm, such as the admission or retirement of partners, also requires a public notice.
- This notice is essential to update the public and stakeholders about the current composition of the partnership.



Similar to retirement or expulsion notices, the public notice for a change in the constitution should be submitted to the Registrar of Firms and published in the Official Gazette and a vernacular newspaper in the district of the firm's principal place of business.

#### Process of Giving Public Notice:

- The public notice should be submitted to the Registrar of Firms along with any necessary documentation regarding the change in the partnership.
- Additionally, the notice should be published in the Official Gazette and at least one vernacular newspaper circulating in the district where the firm has its principal place of business.
- This process ensures that the public and any interested parties are duly informed about the changes in the legal status of the firm and its partners.

#### Q. Goodwill:

 Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, goodwill refers to the intangible asset of a partnership firm, which represents its reputation, brand value, customer loyalty, and other intangible factors contributing to its profitability and competitive edge in the market.

# • Here's a detailed explanation of goodwill:

#### Definition:

Goodwill is not explicitly defined in the Indian Partnership Act. However, it is commonly understood as the value of the business beyond its tangible assets, such as buildings, machinery, and inventory.

#### Nature of Goodwill:

- Goodwill is considered an intangible asset because it cannot be physically touched or seen but has significant value to the business.
- It arises from factors such as the firm's reputation, customer base, quality of products or services, location, and overall brand image.

#### Treatment in Partnership:

- Goodwill is an essential consideration in the valuation of a partnership firm, especially during its formation, dissolution, or when there are changes in partnership agreements.
- When a new partner is admitted to the firm, or an existing partner retires or dies, the value of goodwill may need to be determined and adjusted accordingly.
- Goodwill is typically shared among the partners in agreed proportions, as it represents a collective asset of the partnership.



#### Valuation:

- The valuation of goodwill can be subjective and depends on various factors such as the profitability of the business, its market position, and future earning potential.
- Methods for valuing goodwill may include the capitalization of past profits, the excess earnings method, or the market value approach.

# Legal Status:

- Goodwill is recognized as an asset of the partnership firm, and its treatment is governed by the partnership agreement and relevant provisions of the Indian Partnership Act.
- Partnerships are required to account for goodwill in their financial statements and maintain transparency regarding its valuation and distribution among partners.

#### Importance:

- Goodwill plays a crucial role in attracting customers, retaining them, and building long-term relationships, which ultimately contributes to the firm's profitability and sustainability.
- It enhances the firm's reputation and credibility in the market and can be a significant factor in determining its market value and growth prospects.

#### Q. Different kinds of Partners under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932:

• Under the Indian Partnership Act of 1932, partners in a partnership firm can be classified into different categories based on their roles, rights, and liabilities.

#### • Here are the various kinds of partners:

- Active or Working Partner: An active or working partner is actively involved in the day-to-day management and operations of the partnership firm.
- Sleeping or Dormant Partner: Section 18: A sleeping or dormant partner contributes capital to the firm but does not participate in its management or operations.
- Nominal Partner: Section 13(3): A nominal partner is one whose name is included in the firm's partnership deed to lend credibility or goodwill to the business, but who does not contribute capital or actively participate in the firm's operations.
- o **Partner by Estoppel:** Section 28: A partner by estoppel is an individual who, by their words or conduct, leads others to believe that they are a partner in the firm, even though they may not have been formally admitted as a partner.

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- o **Minor Partner:** Section 30: A minor partner is a person who has not attained the age of majority (18 years) but is admitted to the benefits of partnership with the consent of all partners.
- o **Partner in Profit Only:** Section 13(7) A partner in profit only is one who shares in the profits of the firm but does not bear any losses.



# Module - 2: Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008

# Q. Nature of Limited Liability Partnership [Sections 2 – 10]

- The nature of a Limited Liability Partnership (LLP) is defined by Sections 2 to 10 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008. These sections outline the fundamental characteristics and features that distinguish LLPs from other forms of business entities.
- Here's an overview of the nature of LLP as per these sections:
  - Separate Legal Entity (Section 3): An LLP is a separate legal entity distinct from its partners. This means that it can enter contracts, own property, sue, and be sued in its own name. The liabilities of the LLP are separate from the personal liabilities of its partners.
  - Limited Liability (Section 4): One of the primary features of an LLP is limited liability, as the name suggests. Section 4 of the LLP Act specifies that partners of an LLP have limited liability to the extent of their contribution to the LLP. This means that the personal assets of the partners are protected from the debts and liabilities of the LLP.
  - Perpetual Succession (Section 6): LLPs enjoy perpetual succession, meaning that the death, retirement, or insolvency of a partner does not affect the continuity of the LLP. The LLP continues to exist until it is wound up or dissolved in accordance with the provisions of the LLP Act.
  - Flexibility in Management (Section 7): LLPs have flexibility in their management structure. Section 7 of the LLP Act provides that partners may decide the internal management structure of the LLP by way of the LLP agreement. This allows partners to tailor the management of the LLP to suit their specific needs and preferences.
  - Limited Regulatory Requirements (Section 9): LLPs are subject to fewer regulatory requirements compared to companies. Section 9 of the LLP Act specifies that LLPs are not required to comply with certain provisions of the Companies Act, such as those related to meetings, resolutions, and maintenance of books of accounts.
  - Mutual Rights and Duties (Section 10): Partners in an LLP have mutual rights and duties towards each other and towards the LLP. Section 10 of the LLP Act outlines various rights and duties of partners, including the right to participate in the management of the LLP, the duty to act in good faith, and the duty to indemnify the LLP for losses caused by wilful misconduct or gross negligence.

#### Q. Incorporation of Limited Liability Partnership [Sections 11 – 21]:

• The process of incorporation of a Limited Liability Partnership (LLP) is governed by Sections 11 to 21 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008.



These sections outline the procedures, requirements, and legal aspects involved in the formation and registration of an LLP.

#### • Here's an overview:

- Section 11: Application for Reservation of Name: Before incorporating an LLP, the partners must apply to the Registrar for the reservation of the LLP's proposed name. The application must comply with the rules prescribed by the Central Government.
- Section 12: Reservation and Allotment of Name: The Registrar shall reserve and allot the name applied for, subject to availability and conformity with the rules. The reservation is valid for a period of three months.
- Section 13: Incorporation Document and Subscriber's Statement:
   Partners must file incorporation documents and a subscriber's statement with the Registrar. The incorporation document must contain details such as the LLP's proposed name, registered office address, partners' details, and the LLP agreement.
- Section 14: Incorporation of LLP: Upon receiving the incorporation documents, the Registrar shall register the LLP and issue a certificate of incorporation. The LLP comes into existence from the date specified in the certificate.
- Section 15: Effect of Registration: Registration of the LLP makes it a body corporate with perpetual succession and a separate legal entity from its partners. It can sue and be sued in its own name.
- Section 16: Partner's Contribution: Every partner must make a contribution to the LLP as specified in the LLP agreement. Contributions may be in the form of money, property, or services.
- Section 17: Designated Partners: Every LLP must have at least two designated partners, at least one of whom must be a resident of India.
   Designated partners are responsible for compliance with the provisions of the LLP Act.
- Section 18: Incorporation by Foreign LLPs: Foreign LLPs may establish a place of business in India by filing an application with the Registrar along with prescribed documents and paying the prescribed fee.
- Section 19: Registered Office: An LLP must have a registered office within 30 days of incorporation, where all communications and notices may be addressed.
- Section 20: Obligations of LLP and Its Partners: The LLP and its
  partners are required to comply with all the requirements of the LLP Act
  and any other law for the time being in force.



 Section 21: Penalty for False Statement: Any person who makes a false statement in any document required to be filed under the LLP Act is liable for penalties.

# Q. Partners and their Relations [Sections 22 – 25]:

- Sections 22 to 25 of the Limited Liability Partnership (LLP) Act, 2008, outline the provisions related to partners and their relations within an LLP.
- Here's an overview of these sections:
  - Section 22: Partners to be agents: This section establishes that every partner in an LLP is deemed to be an agent of the LLP. As agents, the actions, contracts, or other dealings of partners in the course of LLP business bind the LLP unless the partner has no authority to act for the LLP in that particular matter and the person with whom the partner is dealing has knowledge of this limitation or lack of authority.
  - Section 23: Contribution: Section 23 emphasizes the obligation of each partner to contribute an agreed amount to the LLP's capital as specified in the LLP agreement. Failure to contribute as agreed may result in the partner being obligated to pay a penalty or interest as stipulated in the LLP agreement.
  - Section 24: Duty to indemnify: Partners of an LLP have a duty to indemnify the LLP and other partners for any losses incurred by them due to the wrongful act or omission of the partner, or if the partner breaches the LLP agreement or acts outside their authority. This section emphasizes the responsibility of partners to compensate for any harm caused to the LLP or other partners.
  - Section 25: Rights and duties of partners: This section delineates the rights and duties of partners within an LLP. Partners have the right to participate in the management of the LLP, access LLP records, and share in the profits as per the LLP agreement. They also have a duty to act in good faith, with diligence, and in the best interests of the LLP, as well as to maintain transparency and accountability in their dealings.

# Q. Extent and Limitation of Liability of Limited Liability Partnership and Partners [Sections 26 – 31]:

- The sections 26 to 31 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008, deal with the extent and limitation of liability for both Limited Liability Partnerships (LLPs) as entities and their partners individually.
- Here's an overview of these provisions:
  - Extent of Liability of LLP:
    - Section 26 outlines that the liability of an LLP and its partners is limited, except as otherwise provided in the Act.



This means that the debts, obligations, and liabilities of the LLP are primarily the responsibility of the LLP itself, rather than the individual partners.

#### Extent of Liability of Partners:

- Section 27 specifies that partners of an LLP are not personally liable for the debts, obligations, or liabilities of the LLP solely by reason of being partners.
- ➤ This provision grants partners limited liability protection, shielding their personal assets from being used to satisfy the debts and obligations of the LLP.

## Exceptions to Limited Liability:

- ➤ However, Section 28 provides exceptions to the limited liability protection of partners. Partners may still be personally liable if they engage in wrongful or fraudulent conduct, or if they exceed the authority granted to them under the LLP agreement.
- ➤ Partners may also be liable for their own wrongful acts or omissions, independent of the LLP's obligations.

#### Indemnification:

- Section 29 allows an LLP to indemnify partners and other persons associated with the LLP against any liability incurred by them in connection with the LLP's affairs.
- ➤ This provision enables the LLP to compensate partners for liabilities arising from their actions on behalf of the LLP.

#### Insurance:

- > Section 30 permits an LLP to purchase and maintain insurance for the benefit of its partners against any liability incurred by them in their capacity as partners.
- This provision allows LLPs to mitigate risks and provide additional protection for their partners.

#### Actions Against LLP and Partners:

- > Section 31 clarifies that any action against the LLP or its partners for any liability arising from LLP activities must be brought against the LLP, and not against the partners individually.
- This reinforces the principle of limited liability for partners and directs legal actions to the LLP itself rather than its individual members.

#### Q. Contributions [Sections 32 – 33]

• Sections 32 to 33 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008, deal with the concept of contributions by partners to the LLP.



#### • Here's an overview of these sections:

#### Section 32: Contributions by Partners:

- Section 32 outlines the requirement for partners to make contributions to the LLP.
- Contributions can be made in the form of money, property, or other tangible or intangible assets.
- ➤ The LLP agreement typically specifies the nature and amount of contributions required from each partner.
- Partners are obligated to contribute the agreed-upon amount or value of their contributions to the LLP as per the terms of the partnership agreement.

# Section 33: Liability for Contribution:

- Section 33 establishes the liability of partners for their contributions to the LLP.
- Partners are obligated to fulfil their commitment to contribute as per the terms of the LLP agreement.
- ➤ If a partner fails to make the required contribution, they are liable to the LLP for the promised contribution.
- ➤ The LLP may take legal action against the defaulting partner to enforce the contribution obligation.

#### Q. Assignment and Transfer of Partnership Rights [Section 42]:

 Section 42 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008, pertains to the assignment and transfer of partnership rights within a Limited Liability Partnership (LLP).

#### • Here's an overview of these sections:

## Assignment of Partnership Rights:

- Section 42 allows partners in an LLP to assign their partnership rights to third parties, subject to the provisions of the LLP agreement.
- ➤ Partnership rights may include the right to receive profits, the right to participate in management decisions, and other rights conferred by the LLP agreement or by law.

# o Transferability of Partnership Rights:

- ➤ The section permits partners to transfer their partnership rights either wholly or partially to another person or entity.
- ➤ The transfer may involve the assignment of a partner's entire interest in the LLP or specific rights or benefits associated with the partnership.

#### Consent Requirement:

➤ The LLP agreement may specify conditions or restrictions on the assignment or transfer of partnership rights, including



- requirements for obtaining the consent of other partners or the LLP itself.
- ➤ If the LLP agreement is silent on the matter, partners may generally assign their rights without the need for consent, unless otherwise provided by law.

# Legal Effect of Assignment:

- Once a partner assigns their partnership rights to a third party in compliance with the LLP agreement and applicable legal requirements, the assignee assumes the assigned rights and obligations of the original partner.
- ➤ The assignee becomes entitled to the assigned benefits and subject to the corresponding duties and liabilities as outlined in the LLP agreement and under the Act.

#### Liability of Assignor:

➤ The assigning partner (assignor) remains liable to the LLP and other partners for any obligations or liabilities incurred before the assignment, unless released from such liabilities by the LLP agreement or by agreement with the LLP and other partners.

#### Q. Conversion into a Limited Liability Partnership [Sections 55 – 58]:

 The provisions regarding conversion into a Limited Liability Partnership (LLP) are outlined in Sections 55 to 58 of the Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008.
 These sections detail the procedures and requirements for existing entities to convert into LLPs.

#### • Here's an overview:

#### Section 55: Conversion of existing partnership firm into LLP:

- ➤ This section specifies the process for a partnership firm to convert into an LLP.
- ➤ It outlines the steps involved, including obtaining approval from all partners, obtaining a no-objection certificate from creditors, and filing an application for conversion with the Registrar of Companies (RoC).
- The application must include the LLP agreement, a statement of assets and liabilities of the firm, and other prescribed documents.

#### Section 56: Conversion of private company into LLP:

- Section 56 deals with the conversion of a private company into an LLP.
- ➤ It sets out the conditions and requirements for such conversion, including obtaining approval from shareholders, creditors, and other relevant authorities.



➤ The company must file an application for conversion with the RoC, along with necessary documents and fees.

## Section 57: Conversion of unlisted public company into LLP:

- ➤ Similar to the conversion of a private company, Section 57 addresses the conversion of an unlisted public company into an LLP.
- ➤ It specifies the procedures and requirements for obtaining approval from shareholders, creditors, and regulatory authorities.
- ➤ The company must file an application for conversion with the RoC, accompanied by prescribed documents and fees.

# Section 58: Obligations of company converting into LLP:

- ➤ This section imposes certain obligations on a company converting into an LLP.
- ➤ It requires the company to ensure compliance with all legal requirements, including settling liabilities, transferring assets, and informing creditors and other stakeholders about the conversion.
- ➤ The company must also change its name to reflect the LLP status and update its legal documents accordingly.

#### Q. Winding up and Dissolution [Sections 63 – 65]

- Sections 63 to 65 of the Limited Liability Partnership (LLP) Act, 2008, govern the process of winding up and dissolution of LLPs.
- Here's an overview of these sections:
  - Section 63: Winding up by Tribunal:
    - ➤ This section outlines the circumstances under which an LLP may be wound up by the Tribunal (National Company Law Tribunal, or NCLT).
    - Grounds for winding up include:
      - If the LLP decides it cannot continue its business due to financial or other reasons.
      - If the LLP becomes insolvent.
      - If the LLP fails to commence its business within one year of incorporation or suspends its business for a year.
      - If the number of partners falls below the statutory minimum required for LLPs.
    - ➤ The Tribunal has the authority to order the winding up of an LLP based on a petition filed by partners, creditors, or even suo motu if it deems fit.
  - Section 64: Application for Winding up:

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- ➤ This section details the procedure for filing an application for winding up with the Tribunal.
- ➤ Partners, creditors, or contributories (persons who have contributed to the assets of the LLP) may apply to the Tribunal for winding up.
- ➤ The application must be supported by evidence and specify the grounds for winding up.

# Section 65: Winding up on Occurrence of Certain Events:

- Section 65 outlines specific events upon the occurrence of which an LLP may be deemed dissolved without going through a winding-up process.
- > Such events include:
  - Expiry of the LLP's duration as specified in its incorporation documents.
  - Conducting business becoming unlawful or impracticable.
  - Inability to pay debts.
- ➤ In these cases, the LLP is deemed dissolved from the date of the event's occurrence, and winding-up provisions may not apply.

# Q. Difference between Limited Liability Partnership incorporated under Limited Liability Partnership Act, 2008, a Partnership Firm incorporated under the Indian Partnership Act, 1932, and a Company incorporated under Companies Act. 2013

Act, 2015	Limited Liability	Partnership Firm	Company
	Partnership (LLP)	Tarthership Tilli	Company
1. Legal Structure:	A hybrid entity	A traditional form of	A separate legal entity
	combining features of	business organization	distinct from its
	both partnerships and	where partners have	shareholders, offering
	corporations. It offers	unlimited liability for the	limited liability
	limited liability to its	debts and obligations of	protection to its
	partners.	the firm.	members.
2. Liability of	Partners enjoy limited	Partners have unlimited	Shareholders' liability
Partners/Members:	liability, meaning their	liability, exposing their	is limited to the extent
	personal assets are	personal assets to the	of their shareholding
	generally protected from	debts and liabilities of	in the company,
	the debts and liabilities	the firm.	protecting their
	of the LLP.		personal assets.
3. Incorporation	Requires registration with	No mandatory	Requires registration
Process:	the Registrar of	registration required,	with the RoC under
	Companies (RoC) under	although partners may	the Companies Act,
	the LLP Act, 2008,	choose to register under	2013, involving

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	involving filing of incorporation documents.	the Partnership Act for legal recognition.	compliance with various statutory requirements.
4. Management and Decision-making:	Managed by partners, who have the flexibility to structure management according to the LLP agreement.	Partners collectively manage the firm, with decisions made based on mutual agreement.	Managed by directors appointed by shareholders, with decision-making processes governed by the board of directors and general meetings.
5. Statutory Compliance:	Subject to compliance with the provisions of the LLP Act, 2008, including annual filing requirements and regulatory obligations.	Fewer statutory compliance requirements compared to companies, but still subject to taxation and partnership deed obligations.	Subject to extensive statutory compliance requirements, including annual filings, board meetings, audit, and regulatory reporting.
6. Transferability of Ownership Interest:	Ownership interest can be transferred subject to the provisions of the LLP agreement and consent of partners.	Ownership interest cannot be freely transferred without the unanimous consent of all partners.	Ownership interest in the form of shares can be freely transferred, subject to certain restrictions and compliance with legal procedures.
7. Legal Status and Perpetual Succession:	A separate legal entity distinct from its partners, with perpetual succession.	Not a separate legal entity; the firm and partners are considered one entity, with no perpetual succession.	A separate legal entity distinct from its shareholders, with perpetual succession until formally dissolved or wound up.



# Module - 3: Sale of Goods Act, 1930:

# **Q. Significance of Transfer of Property:**

- The significance of the transfer of property in the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, is paramount as it determines the moment when ownership rights and responsibilities are transferred from the seller to the buyer in a transaction involving the sale of goods.
- Here are some key points illustrating its significance:
  - Risk and Title: The transfer of property signifies the point at which the
    risk of loss or damage to the goods shifts from the seller to the buyer.
    Until property is transferred, the seller bears the risk. After the transfer,
    the buyer assumes the risk, along with the ownership title.
  - Passing of Ownership: The transfer of property marks the legal passing of ownership from the seller to the buyer. Once the property is transferred, the buyer becomes the rightful owner of the goods, with all associated rights, including the right to use, possess, and dispose of the goods.
  - Rights and Obligations: With the transfer of property, the buyer gains certain rights and obligations. They have the right to sue the seller for breach of contract if the goods are defective or not as described. Additionally, the buyer becomes responsible for paying the purchase price and any other obligations stipulated in the contract.
  - Insolvency and Creditors' Rights: In cases where the seller becomes insolvent or faces legal action from creditors, the timing of the transfer of property is crucial. If the transfer occurs before the insolvency event or creditor action, the goods are considered the property of the buyer and are protected from the seller's creditors.
  - Passing of Property in Specified Situations: The Sale of Goods Act,
     1930, provides specific rules for determining the timing of the transfer of property in various situations, such as specific goods to be delivered, unascertained goods, and goods in a deliverable state.
  - o **Importance in Resolving Disputes:** Determining the timing of the transfer of property is essential in resolving disputes between buyers and sellers regarding the delivery, condition, and ownership of goods. It provides clarity and legal certainty to both parties involved in the transaction.

## Q. Concept of Buyer and Seller:

- The concept of buyer and seller in the context of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, defines the roles, rights, and responsibilities of the parties involved in a transaction for the sale of goods.
- Here's an overview of their roles and obligations under the Act:



#### Seller:

 Definition: The seller is the party who transfers or agrees to transfer the ownership of goods to the buyer in exchange for a price.

#### Rights and Obligations:

- ➤ **Right to Sell:** The seller has the right to sell the goods if they are the rightful owner or have the authority to do so.
- > **Title and Transfer:** The seller must ensure that they have the legal title to the goods and can transfer it to the buyer.
- ➤ **Delivery:** The seller is responsible for delivering the goods to the buyer according to the terms of the contract.
- ➤ Warranties: Depending on the nature of the transaction and the terms of the contract, the seller may be required to provide certain warranties regarding the quality, fitness, and description of the goods.
- ➤ **Payment:** The seller is entitled to receive payment from the buyer in exchange for the goods, as per the agreed-upon price and terms of payment.
- ➤ **Remedies for Breach:** If the buyer fails to fulfill their obligations, such as paying for the goods or accepting delivery, the seller may have remedies available under the Act, such as seeking damages or specific performance.

#### Buyer:

 Definition: The buyer is the party who agrees to acquire or acquires ownership of goods from the seller in exchange for a price.

#### Rights and Obligations:

- ➤ **Right to Goods:** The buyer has the right to receive the goods that conform to the terms of the contract, including quantity, quality, and description.
- ➤ **Acceptance:** The buyer must accept delivery of the goods and pay the price as agreed upon in the contract.
- ➤ **Inspection:** The buyer has the right to inspect the goods upon delivery and reject them if they do not meet the agreed-upon standards.
- ➤ **Payment:** The buyer is obligated to pay the price for the goods according to the terms of the contract.
- ➤ **Warranties:** Depending on the nature of the transaction and the terms of the contract, the buyer may receive certain warranties from the seller regarding the quality, fitness, and description of the goods.



➤ **Remedies for Breach:** If the seller fails to fulfil their obligations, such as delivering defective goods or breaching warranties, the buyer may have remedies available under the Act, such as rejecting the goods, seeking damages, or specific performance.

#### Q. Difference between Sale and Hire Purchase:

	Sale and Hire Purchase:	Hire Purchase
1.Ownership:	In a sale, ownership of the goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer immediately upon completion of the transaction.	In a hire purchase, ownership of the goods remains with the seller (or the finance company) until the buyer makes the final payment, typically referred to as the "option to purchase" or "final instalment."
2.Payment Structure:	In a sale, the buyer typically pays the entire purchase price upfront or in installments, with ownership transferring upon payment.	In a hire purchase, the buyer pays for the goods in installments over a specified period, with ownership transferring only after the final payment is made.
3.Use of Goods:	Upon purchase, the buyer has full rights to use, possess, and dispose of the goods as they see fit.	The buyer has possession and use of the goods during the hire period but does not have the right to sell or dispose of the goods until the final payment is made and ownership is transferred.
4. Risk and Responsibility:	Upon transfer of ownership, the buyer assumes all risks and responsibilities associated with the goods, including maintenance, repairs, and insurance.	Until ownership is transferred, the seller retains responsibility for maintaining and insuring the goods, while the buyer is responsible for their safekeeping and proper use.
5.Termination of Agreement:	Once a sale is completed, the transaction is final, and there is no further obligation between the buyer and seller regarding the goods.	The hire purchase agreement can typically be terminated by the buyer at any time before the final payment, but the buyer may be required to return the goods or pay a termination fee.

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6.Cancellation	Generally, there is no	Some jurisdictions may
Rights:	statutory right to cancel a	provide statutory cooling-off
	sale once it is completed,	periods or cancellation rights
	although certain consumer	for hire purchase agreements,
	protection laws may provide	allowing buyers to cancel the
	cancellation rights in specific	agreement within a specified
	circumstances.	timeframe without penalty.
7. Depreciation and	The buyer bears the risk of	The seller retains ownership
Value Retention	any depreciation in the value	until the final payment, so
	of the goods over time, as	they bear the risk of any
	ownership has already been	depreciation in the value of
	transferred.	the goods until ownership is
		transferred to the buyer.

Q. Difference between Sale and Agreement to Sell:

	Sale	Agreement to Sell
1. Transfer of Ownership:	In a sale, the ownership of the goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer immediately upon the execution of the contract.	In an agreement to sell, the seller agrees to transfer the ownership of the goods to the buyer at a future date or upon the occurrence of a specified event.
2. Transfer of Property:	In a sale, the property in the goods passes from the seller to the buyer immediately, regardless of whether the goods are delivered at the time of the contract or at a later date.	In an agreement to sell, the property in the goods remains with the seller until the conditions specified in the agreement are fulfilled, such as payment of the purchase price or the occurrence of a specified event.
3. Risk and Responsibility:	Upon completion of the sale, the buyer assumes the risk and responsibility for the goods, including any loss or damage.	Until the transfer of ownership occurs, the seller retains the risk and responsibility for the goods, including their safekeeping and maintenance.



4. Right to Sue for Breach:	In the case of a sale, if either party fails to fulfill their obligations under the contract, the other party has the right to sue for breach of contract.	In the case of an agreement to sell, until the conditions specified in the agreement are fulfilled, neither party has the right to sue for breach of contract.
5. Right to Transfer:	Once the sale is completed, the buyer has the right to transfer or sell the goods to a third party without the consent of the seller.	Until the transfer of ownership occurs, the buyer does not have the right to transfer or sell the goods to a third party without the consent of the seller.
6. Insolvency and Creditors' Rights:	In the case of a sale, if either party becomes insolvent or faces legal action from creditors, the goods are considered the property of the buyer and are protected from the seller's creditors.	Until the transfer of ownership occurs, the goods remain the property of the seller and may be subject to claims by the seller's creditors.
7. Termination of Contract:	Once a sale is completed, the contract is terminated, and there are no further obligations between the buyer and seller regarding the goods.	Until the conditions specified in the agreement are fulfilled, the contract remains in force, and either party may terminate the agreement if the other party fails to fulfill their obligations.

#### **Q. Condition and Warranty:**

- Certainly! "Condition" and "Warranty" are two essential concepts outlined in the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, which governs the sale and purchase of goods in India.
- Here's an explanation of each:
  - Condition:
    - **Essential Term:** A condition is a fundamental term or stipulation of a contract of sale. It is a crucial aspect of the agreement between the buyer and the seller. Conditions are directly related to the main purpose of the contract.
    - Breach Consequences: If a condition is breached, it is considered a serious matter. The injured party, usually the buyer, has the right to



- treat the contract as repudiated (i.e., terminated) and can claim damages for any losses suffered as a result of the breach.
- **Goes to the Root:** Conditions are terms that go to the root of the contract. They are vital for the performance of the contract and are integral to the buyer's decision to enter into the agreement.
- Examples: Conditions often relate to the quality, fitness for purpose, and conformity to description of the goods. For instance, if a buyer purchases a car with a condition that it should be in working condition, any breach of this condition would entitle the buyer to reject the car and claim damages.

#### Warranty:

- Secondary Term: A warranty is a secondary or subsidiary term of a contract of sale. While warranties are important, they are not as fundamental as conditions and are not directly related to the main purpose of the contract.
- Breach Consequences: Breach of a warranty does not entitle the injured party to repudiate the contract. Instead, the injured party, typically the buyer, can only claim damages for any losses suffered due to the breach.
- Collateral to Main Purpose: Warranties are collateral to the main purpose of the contract. While they are still important and form part of the agreement, they do not go to the root of the contract like conditions do.
- **Examples:** Warranties often include statements of fact about the goods made by the seller to induce the buyer to enter into the contract. For example, if a seller warrants that a laptop has a certain battery life, the buyer may claim damages if the battery life falls short of what was promised.

Q. Differences between Condition and Warranty

	Condition	Warranty
1.Nature and Importance:	Conditions are essential terms of the contract, integral to its main purpose, while warranties are secondary terms, supplementary to the primary purpose of the contract.	Conditions go to the root of the agreement, affecting its very essence, while warranties are additional assurances provided by the seller.

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2.Effect of Breach:	Breach of a condition allows the injured party to repudiate the contract (i.e., treat it as void) and claim damages for losses suffered.	Breach of a warranty only gives rise to a claim for damages; it does not provide grounds for terminating the contract.
3.Severity of Breach:	Conditions are considered more serious breaches because they directly impact the core of the contract and the parties' intentions.	Warranties are less severe breaches, as they are not central to the main purpose of the agreement.
4.Remedies Available:	In case of a breached condition, the injured party has the right to reject the goods and claim damages for any losses suffered.	For a breached warranty, the injured party can only claim damages for any losses incurred; they cannot reject the goods or terminate the contract.
5.Impact on Performance:	Breach of a condition directly affects the performance of the contract and may render it incapable of being fulfilled	Breach of a warranty may not hinder the performance of the contract but may result in compensation for any deficiencies or losses experienced.

#### Q. Delivery of Goods and its Rules:

- Delivery of goods is a critical aspect of a contract of sale, governed by specific rules and requirements to ensure the smooth transfer of ownership and possession from the seller to the buyer.
- Here's an overview of the rules and requirements concerning the delivery of goods:
  - Time, Place, and Manner of Delivery:
    - The time, place, and manner of delivery should be agreed upon by the parties or determined by the terms of the contract, trade customs, or applicable laws.
    - The seller must deliver the goods within the agreed-upon timeframe and at the specified location. The manner of delivery should be in accordance with industry standards and any specific instructions provided by the buyer.
  - Obligations of the Seller:
    - The seller is responsible for ensuring that the goods are delivered to the buyer in accordance with the terms of the contract.



- The seller must package the goods appropriately to prevent damage during transit and deliver them to the agreed-upon location.
- If the contract requires the seller to arrange for transportation, they must make suitable arrangements for the safe and timely delivery of the goods.

# Obligations of the Buyer:

- The buyer is obligated to accept delivery of the goods in accordance with the terms of the contract.
- Upon delivery, the buyer should inspect the goods to ensure they conform to the specifications outlined in the contract.
- If the goods are found to be defective or non-conforming, the buyer may reject them and notify the seller within a reasonable timeframe.

#### Transfer of Risk:

- The risk of loss or damage to the goods generally passes from the seller to the buyer upon delivery. However, the specific terms of the contract may alter this default rule.
- If the goods are damaged or lost during transit, the party responsible for arranging transportation may bear the risk, depending on the terms of the contract.

#### Acceptance of Goods:

- Acceptance of goods occurs when the buyer signifies their willingness to take ownership and possession of the goods. This may involve physically taking possession or providing formal acknowledgment of receipt.
- Once the goods are accepted, the buyer is typically obligated to pay the purchase price in accordance with the terms of the contract.

#### Remedies for non-delivery:

If the seller fails to deliver the goods within the agreed-upon timeframe or breaches other delivery obligations, the buyer may have remedies available under the contract or applicable laws. These may include seeking specific performance, claiming damages, or terminating the contract.

#### Documentation and Title Transfer:

Upon delivery of the goods, the seller should provide any necessary documentation, such as invoices, bills of lading, or delivery receipts, to evidence the transfer of ownership and facilitate the buyer's acceptance.



 Transfer of title to the goods typically occurs upon delivery, unless otherwise specified in the contract or required by law. Proper documentation ensures clarity regarding ownership rights.

#### Mode of Delivery:

- The mode of delivery may vary depending on the nature of the goods, the location of the buyer, and the terms of the contract. Common modes of delivery include shipping, courier services, or personal delivery by the seller.
- The seller should select a mode of delivery that ensures the goods are transported safely and in a timely manner, considering factors such as distance, fragility, and urgency.

# Inspection and Rejection of Goods:

- Upon receipt of the goods, the buyer has the right to inspect them to verify conformity with the contract specifications. This may involve visual inspection, testing, or sampling, depending on the nature of the goods.
- If the goods do not conform to the contract or are defective, the buyer may reject them and notify the seller within a reasonable timeframe. The seller then has the opportunity to remedy the nonconformity or replace the goods.

#### Delivery Terms in International Trade:

- In international trade, delivery terms are commonly specified in trade agreements, such as the International Commercial Terms (Incoterms). These terms define the respective responsibilities of the buyer and seller regarding transportation, insurance, and risk transfer.
- Common Incoterms include EXW (Ex Works), FOB (Free on Board), CIF (Cost, Insurance, and Freight), and DDP (Delivered Duty Paid), each indicating different points at which risk and responsibility transfer from seller to buyer.

#### Delivery of Instalments:

- In contracts involving the delivery of goods in instalments, the parties should specify the terms and schedule for each delivery. The seller must ensure timely delivery of each instalment, while the buyer should accept and pay for them accordingly.
- Failure to deliver an instalment may entitle the buyer to terminate the contract or claim damages for breach, depending on the severity of the non-performance.

#### Notification of Delivery:

 The seller is typically required to notify the buyer in advance of the intended delivery date and time. This allows the buyer to prepare



- for receipt of the goods and make necessary arrangements, such as scheduling personnel or equipment for unloading.
- Adequate notification helps prevent delays or complications in the delivery process and promotes efficient coordination between the parties involved.

#### Legal Compliance and Customs Clearance:

- In international trade, the seller must ensure compliance with relevant laws, regulations, and customs requirements of the importing country. This includes obtaining necessary export licenses, permits, and documentation for customs clearance.
- Failure to comply with legal and regulatory requirements may result in delays, penalties, or refusal of entry by customs authorities, impacting the timely delivery of goods and contractual obligations.

## Q. Rules Relating to Passing of Property:

• The passing of property, also known as the transfer of ownership, is a critical aspect of a contract of sale, determining when the buyer becomes the legal owner of the goods.

# • Here's an explanation of the rules relating to the passing of property:

#### Agreement of the Parties:

The primary rule governing the passing of property is the agreement of the parties as expressed in the contract of sale. The parties may specify the point at which property passes from the seller to the buyer, which could be upon the execution of the contract, upon delivery, or upon payment, among other possibilities.

#### Goods Identified in the Contract:

- Property passes when the goods are identified to the contract. This
  means that the specific goods intended to be sold must be
  sufficiently identified or specified in the contract.
- Identification can occur before or after the contract is formed, depending on the terms of the agreement and the nature of the goods.

#### Future or Unascertained Goods:

- In the case of future goods or goods that are not yet in existence or are unascertained at the time of the contract, property passes when the goods are subsequently identified and appropriated to the contract.
- Appropriation may occur by marking the goods, setting them aside, or otherwise indicating which goods are intended to fulfill the contract.

# Specific or Ascertained Goods:



 Property in specific or ascertained goods passes to the buyer when the parties intend it to pass. This may be determined by the terms of the contract or inferred from the circumstances of the transaction.

#### Goods in Deliverable State:

• For goods that are in a deliverable state and the seller is obligated to deliver them to the buyer without the need for any further action, property passes when the contract is made and it is the intention of the parties that it should pass at that time.

#### Reservation of Right of Disposal:

• If the seller reserves the right of disposal of the goods until certain conditions are met, such as full payment by the buyer, property does not pass until those conditions are fulfilled.

#### Goods in Transit:

- Property in goods sold in transit passes to the buyer when the contract is made, provided it is the intention of the parties that it should pass at that time.
- If the seller is required to deliver the goods to the buyer, property passes when the goods are delivered to the carrier for transmission to the buyer.

#### Risk and Property:

The passing of property is distinct from the transfer of risk. While property determines ownership, risk refers to the responsibility for loss or damage to the goods. The rules governing risk may differ from those governing property transfer and are often specified separately in the contract or by applicable laws.

#### Conditional Sales:

- In some cases, the passing of property may be subject to certain conditions specified in the contract. For example, property may pass to the buyer upon payment of a certain instalment or upon the occurrence of a specified event.
- The conditions must be clear and enforceable, and their fulfilment or non-fulfilment determines the timing of property transfer.

#### Resale of Goods:

- If the seller sells goods that they do not own (e.g., goods acquired under a hire purchase agreement), property may not pass to the buyer until the seller acquires ownership of the goods.
- The seller may have limited rights to transfer title until they have obtained ownership, and the buyer may be subject to the rights of the original owner until property passes.

#### Goods Sold in Market Overt:



- In certain jurisdictions, property in goods sold in market overt (open market) passes to the buyer, even if the seller does not have the authority to sell them.
- Market overt refers to a public market or fair where goods are openly sold, and buyers in good faith and without notice of any defect in the seller's title acquire good title to the goods.

# Goods Sold by Mercantile Agent:

- When goods are sold by a mercantile agent (e.g., a commission agent or factor) who has authority to sell them, property generally passes to the buyer in good faith and without notice of any defect in the agent's authority.
- However, if the agent sells the goods without authority or in breach of their authority, property may not pass to the buyer, and the true owner may reclaim the goods from the buyer.

#### Q. Unpaid Seller - Rights and Remedies:

 When a buyer fails to fulfil their obligations in a contract of sale, the seller, referred to as an "unpaid seller," has certain rights and remedies available to protect their interests.

#### • Here's an overview of these rights and remedies:

# Right of Lien:

 An unpaid seller has a right of lien over the goods for the unpaid price. This means the seller can retain possession of the goods until the buyer pays the outstanding amount.

#### Right of Stoppage in Transit:

• If the seller has parted with possession of the goods and the buyer becomes insolvent, the unpaid seller has the right of stoppage in transit. This allows the seller to stop the goods while they are in transit and reclaim possession until the buyer pays.

#### Right to Resell the Goods:

If the buyer defaults in payment or breaches the contract, the unpaid seller has the right to resell the goods. This right is subject to certain conditions, such as giving notice to the buyer of the intention to resell and selling the goods in a commercially reasonable manner.

#### Right to Sue for the Price:

The unpaid seller can sue the buyer for the price of the goods if they are not paid in accordance with the terms of the contract. This right remains even if the seller has exercised other remedies, such as resale of the goods.

# Right to Sue for Damages:



In addition to suing for the price, the unpaid seller may also sue for damages for any loss suffered as a result of the buyer's breach of contract. This could include additional expenses incurred or loss of profit.

#### Right to Sue for Specific Performance:

 In certain circumstances, the unpaid seller may seek specific performance of the contract, requiring the buyer to fulfill their obligations, such as accepting and paying for the goods.

#### Right to Revoke the Contract:

If the buyer has not paid and the seller has not yet delivered the goods, the unpaid seller may revoke the contract of sale. This releases both parties from their obligations under the contract.

#### Right to Claim Interest:

 The unpaid seller may be entitled to claim interest on the unpaid price if the contract or applicable law allows for it. This compensates the seller for the delay in receiving payment.

#### Right to Rescind the Contract:

 In cases of fundamental breach or repudiation by the buyer, the unpaid seller may have the right to rescind (cancel) the contract and claim restitution of any goods already delivered.

#### Right to Sue Third Parties:

• If the goods have been resold to a third party, the unpaid seller may have the right to sue the original buyer for any shortfall between the resale price and the original contract price, as well as any additional expenses incurred.

#### Right to Withhold Delivery:

 If the buyer has not yet paid for the goods or fulfilled other obligations, the unpaid seller may have the right to withhold delivery until payment or performance is received.

#### Right to Dispose of Perishable Goods:

• In cases where the goods are perishable or subject to rapid deterioration, the unpaid seller may have the right to dispose of the goods without waiting for the buyer's instructions. This is to prevent loss or further depreciation of the goods.

#### Right to Recover Expenses:

The unpaid seller may be entitled to recover reasonable expenses incurred in connection with the storage, preservation, or care of the goods after the buyer's default. These expenses are typically recoverable as part of the seller's damages.

# Right to Claim Delivery Charges:

 If the contract specifies that the buyer is responsible for delivery charges and the buyer fails to pay, the unpaid seller may have the



right to claim these charges as part of the outstanding amount owed.

#### Right to Examine Goods:

Before exercising certain remedies, such as resale or stoppage in transit, the unpaid seller has the right to examine the goods to determine their condition and value. This helps the seller make informed decisions regarding the appropriate course of action.

#### Right to Cancel Future Deliveries:

If the buyer defaults on payment or breaches the contract, the unpaid seller may have the right to cancel any future deliveries or suspend performance under the contract until the buyer remedies the default.

#### Right to Retain the Deposit:

 If the buyer has paid a deposit or advance payment and subsequently defaults on the contract, the unpaid seller may have the right to retain the deposit as compensation for the buyer's breach.

#### Right to Rescind the Contract Ab Initio:

• In cases of serious breach or repudiation by the buyer, the unpaid seller may have the right to rescind the contract ab initio (from the beginning). This effectively voids the contract and releases both parties from their obligations.

#### Right to Recover Legal Costs:

• If the unpaid seller takes legal action to enforce their rights under the contract and is successful, they may be entitled to recover reasonable legal costs and expenses incurred in pursuing the action.

#### Right to Assert Statutory Remedies:

 Depending on the jurisdiction and applicable laws, the unpaid seller may have additional statutory remedies available, such as statutory liens or rights conferred by consumer protection legislation, which can be asserted to protect their interests.

#### Right to Seek Injunctive Relief:

• In cases where the buyer's actions threaten irreparable harm to the seller's interests, such as disposing of the goods or dissipating assets, the unpaid seller may seek injunctive relief from the court to prevent such actions.

#### Right to Negotiate Settlement:

• In some cases, the unpaid seller may choose to negotiate a settlement with the buyer to resolve the dispute amicably, potentially involving compromises or alternative forms of compensation to avoid prolonged litigation.



#### Q. Auction Sale:

 Auction sales are a unique method of selling goods or property to the highest bidder, often governed by specific rules and procedures to ensure fairness and transparency.

#### • Here's an overview of the rules governing sales by auction:

#### Role of Auctioneer:

The auctioneer acts as the agent for the seller and conducts the auction by soliciting bids from potential buyers. They are responsible for managing the bidding process, announcing the terms of the sale, and declaring the winning bidder.

#### Bidding Process:

- Bidders indicate their willingness to purchase the goods by making bids, typically in incremental amounts over the starting bid or previous bid.
- The auctioneer may set a reserve price, below which the seller is not obligated to sell the goods. If the bidding does not reach the reserve price, the auctioneer may withdraw the goods from sale or negotiate with the highest bidder.

# Payment Terms:

- The successful bidder, often referred to as the buyer or purchaser, is usually required to pay a deposit or provide a financial guarantee upon winning the auction.
- The balance of the purchase price is typically due within a specified timeframe, often on the day of the auction or within a few days afterward.

#### Bidding Increments:

 Auctioneers may establish minimum bidding increments to regulate the pace of bidding and ensure fair competition among bidders. Increments are typically predetermined and announced by the auctioneer during the auction.

#### Reserve Price:

A reserve price is the minimum price that the seller is willing to accept for the goods. If bidding does not reach the reserve price, the auctioneer may withdraw the goods from sale or negotiate with the highest bidder.

#### Bidder Registration:

 Bidders may be required to register before participating in the auction, providing identification and contact information to the auctioneer. Registration helps the auctioneer keep track of bidders and ensures accountability in the bidding process.

#### Auction Conditions:



 Auction sales are typically conducted subject to specific conditions of sale, which may include terms regarding payment, inspection of goods, buyer's premium (a fee added to the hammer price), and any warranties or guarantees provided by the seller.

# Dispute Resolution:

If a dispute arises between the seller and the highest bidder regarding the acceptance of a bid or the validity of the sale, legal recourse may be sought through applicable laws or dispute resolution mechanisms.

#### Withdrawal of Goods:

 The seller or auctioneer may reserve the right to withdraw goods from the auction before or during the bidding process, particularly if there is insufficient interest or if the seller's circumstances change.

#### Settlement and Transfer of Title:

 Upon payment of the purchase price, the buyer typically receives a sales invoice or receipt confirming the purchase. Title to the goods transfers to the buyer upon payment, and the buyer becomes responsible for arranging transport and taking possession of the goods.

#### Bidder Paddle or Number:

 Auction houses often assign bidder paddles or numbers to registered participants. These paddles or numbers serve as identification during the bidding process and allow the auctioneer to track bids accurately.

#### Auction Catalogue or Listing:

 Prior to the auction, an auction catalogue or listing is typically provided to potential bidders. This catalogue contains detailed information about the goods or property being sold, including descriptions, photographs, estimated values, and any special terms or conditions of sale.

#### Announcement of Terms and Conditions:

Before the auction begins, the auctioneer announces the terms and conditions of the sale, including any buyer's premiums, taxes, fees, or other charges that may apply. This ensures transparency and informs bidders of their financial obligations.

#### Inspection Period:

 Bidders are often provided with an opportunity to inspect the goods or property before the auction begins. This inspection period allows bidders to assess the condition, quality, and authenticity of the items they are interested in purchasing.

#### **O Competing Bids and Auctioneer's Discretion:**



• In the event of competing bids, the auctioneer may use their discretion to determine the winning bid. The auctioneer's decision is final and binding, and they may choose to accept or reject bids as they see fit.

#### Proxy Bidding or Absentee Bids:

Some auction houses allow bidders to submit proxy bids or absentee bids in advance if they are unable to attend the auction in person. Proxy bids are executed on behalf of the bidder by the auctioneer up to a specified maximum amount.

#### Dynamic Bidding or Online Auctions:

In modern auctions, dynamic bidding or online bidding platforms may be used to facilitate remote participation. Dynamic bidding allows bids to be placed in real-time, with the auction extending if new bids are received near the closing time.

#### o Buyer's Premium:

A buyer's premium is a fee charged by the auction house on top of the winning bid amount. This fee is typically expressed as a percentage of the hammer price and contributes to the auction house's revenue.

#### Post-Auction Settlement:

 After the auction concludes, successful bidders are required to settle their accounts promptly according to the auction terms. This may involve payment of the balance, collection of purchased items, and arrangement of delivery or shipping.

#### Post-Sale Services:

Auction houses may offer post-sale services, such as packing, shipping, insurance, or storage of purchased items. Additional fees may apply for these services, and arrangements should be made with the auction house or a designated service provider.

#### Record Keeping and Documentation:

The auction house maintains records of all transactions, including details of the goods sold, buyer information, sale prices, and any additional fees or charges. Proper documentation ensures transparency and facilitates dispute resolution if needed.

#### Compliance with Legal Requirements:

 Auction houses must comply with relevant laws and regulations governing auctions, including consumer protection laws, sales tax requirements, licensing, and registration obligations. Noncompliance can lead to legal consequences and reputational damage.



# Module - 4: Special Contracts - Indian Contract Act Q. Indemnity:

• Indemnity, as defined under Sections 123 to 125 of the Indian Contract Act, refers to a contractual agreement wherein one party commits to compensate the other for any loss or damage incurred due to specified reasons.

## • Here's a detailed explanation:

- Definition: Indemnity is a legal concept that involves one party (the indemnifier) agreeing to compensate another party (the indemnitee) for losses or damages incurred as a result of specified events or actions.
- Nature of Indemnity Contracts: Indemnity contracts are legally binding agreements that create an obligation on the part of the indemnifier to make the indemnitee whole in case of specified events leading to loss or damage.
- Scope of Coverage: The scope of indemnity contracts can vary widely depending on the terms negotiated between the parties. It may cover losses arising from specific actions, events, liabilities, or risks outlined in the contract.
- Parties Involved: The parties to an indemnity contract typically include the indemnifier, who agrees to provide compensation, and the indemnitee, who is entitled to receive compensation in case of loss or damage.
- Types of Losses Covered: Indemnity contracts may cover various types of losses, such as financial losses, damages, liabilities, legal expenses, or other costs incurred by the indemnitee due to specified events or circumstances.
- Triggers for Indemnification: Indemnity contracts typically specify the events or actions that trigger the indemnification obligation. These triggers may include breaches of contract, third-party claims, legal proceedings, or other specified risks.
- Extent of Indemnification: The extent of indemnification provided under the contract is determined by the terms agreed upon by the parties. It may include full or partial reimbursement of losses, subject to any limitations or conditions set forth in the contract.
- Enforceability and Remedies: Indemnity contracts are enforceable under law, and parties can seek legal remedies for breach of contract or failure to fulfill indemnification obligations. Remedies may include monetary damages, specific performance, or injunctive relief.
- Drafting Considerations: Drafting an indemnity contract requires careful consideration of the specific risks, liabilities, and circumstances involved.
   Clear and precise language is essential to define the scope of indemnity, triggers, limitations, and other terms to avoid ambiguity or disputes.



 Legal Principles: Indemnity contracts are subject to legal principles governing contracts, including principles of offer and acceptance, consideration, capacity, legality, and enforceability.

#### • Indemnity Contracts (Sections 123-125):

- Definition (Section 123): Section 123 of the Indian Contract Act defines indemnity as a contract where one party promises to compensate the other for any loss suffered by the other due to the conduct of the promisor or any other person. It establishes that a contract by which one party promises to save the other from loss caused by the conduct of the promisor or any other person is called a contract of indemnity.
- o **Rights of Indemnity Holder (Section 124):** Section 124 outlines the rights of the indemnity holder. It states that the person who promises to indemnify (the indemnifier) is entitled to recover from the promisee (the indemnity holder) any damages which the indemnifier may be compelled to pay in any suit in respect of any matter covered by the indemnity.
- Rights of Indemnity Holder when Sued (Section 125): Section 125
  specifies the rights of the indemnity holder when sued. It stipulates that
  the indemnity holder is entitled to recover from the indemnifier all
  damages they may be compelled to pay in any suit in respect of any
  matter covered by the indemnity, without any proof of actual loss
  suffered.

#### Q. Guarantee Contracts (Sections 126-147):

 Definition and Scope: Guarantee contracts, as delineated by Sections 126 to 147 of the Indian Contract Act, constitute agreements where one party, termed the surety, undertakes the responsibility to fulfill the debt or obligation of another party, known as the principal debtor, in the event of default.

#### • Parties Involved and Roles:

- Guarantee contracts inherently involve three distinct parties.
  - Principal Debtor: This is the individual or entity who owes a debt or has an obligation to the creditor.
  - > **Creditor:** The recipient of the debt or the party entitled to the performance of the obligation.
  - ➤ **Surety:** The surety is the party who provides the guarantee, promising to step in and fulfill the obligation or debt on behalf of the principal debtor should they default.
- Nature of Surety's Liability: The surety's liability is contingent upon the
  default of the principal debtor. They commit to discharging the debt or



fulfilling the obligation only if the principal debtor fails to do so within the stipulated terms.

- Forms and Types of Guarantees:
  - Guarantee contracts manifest in various forms, tailored to suit different circumstances.
    - ➤ **Personal Guarantee:** The surety's creditworthiness serves as the basis for their liability.
    - ➤ **Performance Guarantee:** Here, the surety ensures the performance of a contractual obligation.
    - Financial Guarantee: The surety pledges to cover the repayment of a financial obligation, such as a loan or debt.
- **Enforceability Requirements:** Guarantee contracts, like any other contract, must fulfil the essential requisites for enforceability, including offer, acceptance, consideration, legal capacity, and lawful object, as prescribed by the Indian Contract Act.
- **Rights and Liabilities of Parties:** The rights and liabilities of the principal debtor, creditor, and surety are delineated within the guarantee contract itself, though they are also governed by the provisions of the Indian Contract Act.
- **Termination and Discharge:** Guarantee contracts can terminate through mutual agreement, discharge of the underlying obligation, or operation of law. Once discharged, the surety's liability ceases to exist.

#### Q. Bailment:

• **Definition:** Bailment is a legal relationship in which one party (the bailor) temporarily transfers possession of personal property to another party (the bailee) for a specific purpose or duration, while retaining ownership of the property. The bailee holds the property under certain terms and conditions and is obligated to return it to the bailor in the same condition after the purpose of the bailment is fulfilled or the agreed-upon period expires. This arrangement establishes fiduciary duties between the bailor and bailee, with the bailee typically owing a duty of care to safeguard the property and use it only for the agreed-upon purpose.

# • Features of Bailment:

- Transfer of Possession: Bailment involves the transfer of possession of personal property from one party (the bailor) to another (the bailee) for a specific purpose or duration.
- Ownership Retained: Despite transferring possession, the ownership
  of the property remains with the bailor throughout the bailment period.
- Temporary Nature: Bailment is typically temporary, with the bailee holding the property only for the duration necessary to fulfill the agreed-upon purpose.



- Purposeful Transfer: The transfer of possession is usually for a specific purpose, such as safekeeping, repair, transportation, or use, as agreed upon by the bailor and bailee.
- Implied or Express Agreement: Bailments may be established through either implied or express agreements between the bailor and bailee, outlining the terms and conditions of the arrangement.
- Delivery of Property: Bailment requires the delivery of physical possession of the property from the bailor to the bailee. The bailee must have actual control and possession over the property.
- Legal Relationship: Bailment creates a legal relationship between the bailor and bailee, with each party owing certain duties and responsibilities to the other.

#### • Nature of Bailment:

- Fiduciary Relationship: Bailment involves a fiduciary relationship where the bailee is entrusted with the care and safekeeping of the property for the benefit of the bailor.
- Limited Right of Possession: The bailee's possession of the property is limited to the scope and purpose defined in the bailment agreement. They cannot use the property for any purpose other than what is agreed upon.
- Duty of Care: The bailee owes a duty of care to the bailor to take reasonable steps to safeguard the property from loss, damage, or misuse during the bailment period.
- No Title Transfer: Bailment does not involve the transfer of ownership or title to the property. The bailee holds the property as a custodian or caretaker, not as an owner.

# • Scope of Bailment:

- Types of Bailments: Bailments can be categorized into various types based on the purpose of the transfer, including for safekeeping, for hire, for mutual benefit, and gratuitous bailments.
- Commercial and Personal Applications: Bailment finds applications in both commercial and personal contexts, such as storage services, transportation services, leasing arrangements, and borrowing of goods.
- Legal Framework: The rights, duties, and liabilities of the bailor and bailee are governed by common law principles and statutory regulations, which may vary depending on the jurisdiction and specific circumstances of the bailment.

#### **Q. Agency Contracts:**

• **Definition:** Sections 182 to 238 of the Indian Contract Act govern agency contracts. An agency relationship arises when one person (the principal)



grants authority to another person (the agent) to act on their behalf in legal or business matters, typically in dealings with third parties.

• **Creation of Agency Relationship:** The agency relationship is established through mutual consent and agreement between the principal and the agent. It can be created through express agreement, implication from the conduct of the parties, or by operation of law.

#### • Roles and Responsibilities:

- Principal: The principal is the individual or entity who authorizes the agent to act on their behalf. They delegate certain powers or authority to the agent and are bound by the actions of the agent within the scope of their authority.
- Agent: The agent is the person authorized by the principal to act on their behalf. The agent undertakes to perform tasks or transactions on behalf of the principal and owes fiduciary duties to act in the best interests of the principal.

#### • Types of Agents:

- Agents can be classified into various types based on their authority and relationship with the principal, including:
  - ➤ **General Agent:** Authorized to perform a broad range of tasks or transactions on behalf of the principal.
  - > **Special Agent:** Authorized to perform specific tasks or transactions on behalf of the principal.
  - > **Sub-Agent:** Appointed by the agent to assist in performing the duties delegated by the principal.
  - Co-Agent: Shares authority with another agent appointed by the principal.

# • Authority of the Agent:

- The authority of the agent may be actual or apparent:
  - Actual Authority: Granted explicitly or implicitly by the principal to the agent to act on their behalf.
  - ➤ **Apparent Authority:** Arises when the principal's actions or representations lead third parties to reasonably believe that the agent has authority to act on behalf of the principal.
- **Agent's Power to Bind Principal:** An agent has the power to bind the principal in contracts with third parties within the scope of their authority. The principal is bound by the agent's actions as to performed actions themselves.
- **Termination of Agency:** The agency relationship can be terminated by mutual agreement, completion of the agency's purpose, expiration of the agreed-upon term, revocation by the principal, renunciation by the agent, or death or incapacity of either party.