# Answers

#### ACCA Certified Accounting Technician Examination – Paper T7 Planning, Control and Performance Management

## 1 (a) Budgeted Profit Statement

Budgeted Profit Statement for year ending 31/12/2007 assuming Green is manufactured and sold.

Sales revenue (w1)	Quarter 1	<b>Quarter 2</b>	Quarter 3	Quarter 4	<b>Total</b>
	£000	<b>£000</b>	£000	£000	£000
	1,400	1,260	1,134	1,021	4,815
Variable costs (w2)	(840)	(756)	(680)	(613)	(2,889)
Contribution (w3)	560	504	454	408 (200)	1,926
Fixed costs	(200)	(200)	(200)		(800)
Profit	360	304	254	208	1,126

Workings W1 Quarter 1 sales =  $100,000 \times \pounds 14 = \pounds 1,400,000$ Quarter 2 sales =  $\pounds 1,400 \times 90\% = \pounds 1,260,000$ 

Etc W2

If contribution is 40% of sales revenue, then variable costs will be 60% of sales revenue. Quarter 1 variable cost =  $\pounds$ 1,400,000 × 60% =  $\pounds$ 840,000 Quarter 2 variable cost =  $\pounds$ 1,260,000 × 60% =  $\pounds$ 756,000 W3

Quarter 1 contribution £000 = £1,400,000  $\times$  40% = £560,000 Etc

Budgeted Profit Statement for year ending 31/12/2007 assuming Brace is manufactured and sold.

Sales units (W4)	<b>Quarter 1</b>	<b>Quarter 2</b>	<b>Quarter 3</b>	<b>Quarter 4</b>	<b>Total</b>
	86,000	92,000	98,000	104,000	380,000
Sales revenue (W5) Variable costs (W6)	£000 1,376 (860)	<b>£000</b> 1,472 (920)	<b>£000</b> 1,568 (980)	<b>£000</b> 1,664 (1,040)	<b>£000</b> 6,080 (3,800)
Contribution (W6)	516	552	588	624	2,280
Fixed costs	(240)	(240)	(240)	(240)	(960)
Profit	276	312	348	384	1,320

Workings

W4 Y = 80,000 + 6,000 T Quarter 1 sales units = 80,000 + (6,000 × 1) = 86,000 Quarter 2 sales units = 80,000 + (6,000 × 2) = 92,000 Quarter 3 sales units = 80,000 + (6,000 × 3) = 98,000 Quarter 4 sales units = 80,000 + (6,000 × 4) = 104,000 W5 Quarter 1 Sales revenue =  $86,000 \times \pounds 16 = \pounds 1,376,000$ Etc W6 Variable cost per unit = Selling price - Contribution per unit =  $\pounds 16 - \pounds 6 = \pounds 10$  per unit Quarter 1 Variable cost =  $86,000 \times \pounds 10 = \pounds 860,000$ Quarter 1 contribution =  $86,000 \times \pounds 6 = \pounds 516,000$ Etc

#### (b) Relevant Costs and revenues

	Replace at 1 January 2007	Replace at 1 July 2007	Incremental revenues and (costs) of eplacing 1/1/2007
	£	£	£
Extra profits in the year (w7)	194,000	270,000	(76,000)
Sale of machinery	140,000	30,000	110,000
Redundancy costs	(40,000)	(50,000)	10,000
Wage savings (w8)	100,000	50,000	50,000
Incremental Profits	394,000	300,000	94,000

#### Conclusion

On a relevant cost basis it is best to introduce the new product on 1 January 2007.

#### Explanation of figures

Profits. Replacing the Green with the Brace will result in extra profits in 2007 as revealed in the budgeted figures (part (a)). Replacing the Green later avoids low sales figures in the first quarter.

Sale of Machinery. The net realiseable value of the machinery is relevant here as this is what the machinery could be sold for. Written down value relates to unexpired historic cost, not future value.

**Redundancy and wage savings.** Early changeover leads to lower redundancy payments and higher wage savings.

#### Workings

W7 Using total profit figures for the year from (b):  $\pounds 1,320,000 - \pounds 1,126,000 = \pounds 194,000$ 

Using second half year profit figures from (b):  $\pounds$ 348,000 +  $\pounds$ 384,000 -  $\pounds$ 254,00 -  $\pounds$ 208,000

$$=$$
 £270,000

W8 5 workers  $\times$  £20,000 = £100,000 for the full year, and half of this for the half year.

#### (c) What is meant by the product life cycle.

The product life cycle refers to the empirically observed pattern in the sales of many products over time. No product will last forever and eventually its sales will fall. The duration of the life cycle varies between products with some lasting for decades whilst others last only for a matter of months.

The general shape of a product life cycle is shown in the following diagram, but it is important to note that the length of each stage varies between products.



#### Four stages of the product life cycle.

Introduction. This refers to the bringing in and the bringing on of a new product. This is usually the culmination of a period of market research and product research and development; the point at which the product or service first comes to market. Sales are usually low and costs are high due to launch expenses and design changes.

Growth. This is where the product takes off and its true potential begins to become apparent. Sales rise quickly for successful products, unit costs start to decline as the firm gains experience of the product.

Maturity. The product is now a familiar part of the market. Unit costs are low and profits are generally high. Competition is now strong. The market generally reaches saturation during this phase and sales growth stops. The product may be modified or improved as a means of sustaining demand.

**Decline**. Eventually sales begin to decline and there is over-capacity amongst suppliers. Falling sales volume and reduced prices will eventually lead to losses and withdrawal of the product.

#### Tutorial Notes:

- 1. Decline can sometimes be avoided by regeneration of the product. This normally involves adding new features to the product to stimulate its sales, for example adding video cameras to mobile telephones.
- 2. Some textbooks refer to a development stage of the product life cycle. In this stage there are no sales and high development costs are incurred prior to product launch. Credit will be given for discussion of this stage.

#### Importance in sales forecasting

When forecasting sales it is important to consider the product life cycle. Rates of sales growth will vary between the different stages of a product's life. It is particularly important to note that growth rates enjoyed at the growth stage will not continue forever. All products should eventually arrive at the maturity stage.

The difficulty of applying the product life cycle in sales forecasting is to know when the end of one stage and the beginning of the next will occur. Some products will never get past the introductory phase (failed products), whilst others, particularly staple food products like bread and rice appear never to reach the decline stage.

#### 2 (a) Variances

)	Direct material			
	Actual usage at actual cost 2,700 kg $\times$ £4.23	=	£11,421	
				£621 Adv
	Actual usage at standard cost 2,700 kg $\times$ £4.00	=	£10,800	0400 5
	Standard usage at standard cost 1,400 units $\times$ 2kgs $\times$ £4.00	=	Usage > £11,200	£400 Fav
	Direct labour Actual hours at actual rate 4000 hrs $\times \text{\pounds7.50}$	=	£30,000	
	Actual hours at standard rate 4,000 hrs $\times \pounds 7.00$	=	£28,000	£2,000 Adv
	Standard hours at standard rate 1,400 units $\times$ 3hrs $\times$ £7.00	=	Efficiency > £29,400	£1,400 Fav
	Fixed overhead Actual overhead	=	£205,000	
	Budgeted overhead	=	Expenditure > £200,000	£5,000 Adv
	Reconciliation Standard cost for the period Variable cost (1,400 units × £29.00 per unit) Fixed cost Total standard cost Direct material price variance Direct material usage variance Direct labour rate variance Direct labour efficiency variance Fixed overhead expenditure variance	£ 40,600 200,000	£ 240,600 621 400 2,000 1,400 5,000	Fav Adv Fav
	Total actual cost for the period		246,421	
	Calculation of total actual cost Variable cost ((2,700 kg $\times$ £4·23) + £30,000) Fixed cost		41,421 205,000	
			246,421	

## (b) Memorandum

## To: Production Manager, Hickman Ltd. From: A Technician Subject: Direct material price variance Date: Today

The direct material price variance measures the effect of paying a different price than standard for actual materials purchased or used. Differences between actual and standard price can be caused by events outside the control of our business (e.g. world shortages of material or exchange rate changes leading to increased prices), or events within our control (e.g. failure to shop around for a good price, or failure to obtain bulk buy discounts). The analysis proposed by the management accountant attempts to split the overall price variance into controllable and non-controllable elements. This is a sensible idea as it supports the concept of responsibility accounting, under which managers are only held accountable for items that they can control.

The controllable price variance is calculated by comparing actual price with a revised standard price. The revised standard price is the original standard price adjusted for inflation in the market price of material Z. After allowing for the effects of inflation we can see that we have paid quite a low price for material Z, leading to a favourable variance, or cost saving, of  $\pounds 2,322$ . This will be considered to be to the credit of the manager who made the purchase.

(Tutorial note: The use of a price index to arrive at a revised standard does, of course, assume that the original budgeted figure was correct.)

The non-controllable price variance is calculated by comparing the revised standard price with the original standard price. It is the part of the total price variance caused by inflation, and is therefore considered non-controllable. In this case inflation in material Z prices resulted in extra costs of  $\pounds$ 2,943.

I hope this clarifies the analysis. If you have any further queries do not hesitate to contact me.

## 3 (a) Ratios

Return on capital of			
Operating profit Capital employed	$\times 100 = \frac{20}{2,210} \times 100$	=	0.9%
Return on sales (n Operating profit Sales	et margin) × 100 = $\frac{20}{1,200}$ × 100	=	1.7%
Asset turnover Sales Capital employed	$=\frac{1,200}{2,210}$	=	0·54 times
Average cost per p = operating cost passenger miles	1,180,000	=	27·3 p

Tutorial note: the term profit is used throughout this answer; in the public sector it would normally be referred to as surplus.

#### (b) Meaning of each ratio

**Return on capital employed**. This ratio measures the profits earned on the long-term finance invested in the business. The Lewisville bus service is only generating an annual profit of 0.9p for every £1 invested. The equivalent figure for private bus companies is 10p.

**Return on sales**. This ratio measures the profitability of sales. For the Lewisville bus service 1.7p of every £1 of sales is profit. The equivalent figure for private bus companies is 30p.

Asset turnover. This ratio measures a firm's ability to generate sales from its capital employed. The Lewisville bus service generates sales of 54p for every £1 of capital employed. The equivalent figure for private bus companies is only 33p.

Average cost per passenger mile. This measures the cost of transporting passengers per mile travelled. The Lewisville bus service incurs a cost of 27.3p per passenger mile as compared to 37.4 p for private bus companies.

#### Performance of the bus service

On first sight the Lewisville bus service appears to have performed poorly as compared to private sector bus companies. It has a low return on capital employed, largely due to a poor return on sales. This could be explained by the low fares charged. (See tutorial note) On the positive side its ability to generate sales is good and its buses appear to be more intensively used than private sector equivalents.

However, if we take into account the objectives of the council and the mission statement of the bus service it is possible to draw a different conclusion. Private sector companies usually seek to maximise investor wealth. The council appears to be trying to encourage usage of public transport in an attempt to reduce traffic congestion. To do this it charges low fares, resulting in a poor return on sales and a low return on capital employed. However, the low fares, and willingness to operate uneconomic routes has led to a high asset turnover, implying above industry average usage of the bus service. In turn this greater usage of the service leads to a lower cost per passenger mile as fixed costs are spread more thinly over a larger number of passenger miles.

Before drawing any firm conclusions it would be sensible to compare the performance of the Lewisville bus service with that of bus operators pursuing similar objectives.

(Tutorial note: If we compare average fare per passenger mile we can see that the Lewisville bus service charges lower fares than the private sector.

Lewisville fare per passenger mile	=	passenger fares ÷ passenger miles
	=	$\pounds$ 1,200,000 ÷ 4,320,000 = 27.8p
		Average cost $\div$ (1 – net margin) 37·4p $\div$ (1 – 0·3) = 53·4p.

Lewisville charges lower fares per passenger mile, which may explain its higher load factor and therefore its lower cost per passenger mile)

#### (c) Economy, Effectiveness and Efficiency.

When measuring the performance of public sector organisations it is sometimes suggested that they should be assessed on the basis of the 'three Es'; economy, effectiveness and efficiency.

**Economy** is an input measure and is normally based around the expenditure of the organisation. In the case of the Lewisville bus service it could be measured by total expenditure as compared to budget.

**Effectiveness** is an output measure and looks at what the organisation achieves in terms of its objectives. In the case of the Lewisville bus service it could be measured by the number of passengers carried, or the number of passenger miles travelled.

Efficiency is a combination of the above two measures. It considers output in relation to input. In the case of the Lewisville bus service it could be measured by cost per passenger mile travelled.

## 4 (a) Budgets

Production budget 2007		Units	
	January	February	March
Sales	5,000	5,500	7,000
Desired closing stock (w1)	550	700	700
	5,550	6,200	7,700
Less opening stock (w2)	(500)	(550)	(700)
Due due tiere ausite			7.000
Production units	5,050	5,650	7,000
Labour budget 2007			
Labour budget 2007	lenuem.	<b>February</b>	Mayala
Due du etiene uneite	January	February	March
Production units	5,050	5,650	7,000
Hours per unit	4	4	4
<b>T</b>	00.000	Hours	~~~~~
Total hours	20,200	22,600	28,000
Basic hours available (w3)	22,080	22,080	22,080
Overtime hours needed	0	520	5,920
	£	£	£
Basic rate payment (w4)	176,640	~ 176,640	
Overtime payment (w5)	0	6,240	71,040
overtime payment (wo)			, 1,040
Total labour cost	176,640	182,880	247,680

## Workings

Working 1 January closing stock = February sales  $\times 10\% = 5,500$  units  $\times 10\% = 550$  units etc Working 2 January opening stock = January sales  $\times 10\% = 5,000$  units  $\times 10\% = 500$  units etc. Working 3 138 workers  $\times 160$  hours per month = 22,080 hours Working 4 138 workers  $\times \pounds1,280 = \pounds176,640$ Working 5

Basic rate = £1,280 ÷ 160 hours = £8.00 per hour Overtime rate = £8.00 × 150% = £12.00 Overtime payment February = 520 hours × £12.00 = £6,240 etc.

## (b) Revised Budgets Labour budget 2007

	January	February Hours	March
Basic hours available (w3)	22,080	22,080 £	22,080
Basic rate payment (£)(w4)	176,640	176,640	176,640
Production budget 2007		Units	
	January	February	March
Opening stock	500	1,020	1,040
Production	5,520	5,520	5,520
Sales	(5,000)	(5,500)	(6,560) (w6)
Closing stock	1,020	1,040	0

Working 6

Rathbone can only sell available finished goods stock, 1,040 units + 5,520 units = 6,560 units

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1	(a)	Green budget Sales Revenue Contribution Profit	Marks 2 2 2 2 .
		Brace budget Sales units forecast Sales revenue Contribution Profit	6 2 2 2 2 8 14
	(b)	Relevant cost analysisExtra profitsExtra profit explainedSale of machineSale of machine explainedRedundancy costWage savingsWage savings and redundancy explainedAdvice	2 1 2 2 2 2 2 1 14
	(c)	Meaning of product life cycle Pattern in sales over time Sales eventually fall	1 1 2
		Stages Introduction Low sales/high costs Growth Sales rise quickly Maturity Saturation/growth stops Decline Falling sales/losses	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 8
		Importance Rates of growth vary over the cycle Difficulty in predicting stages	1 1 2 12 40

0	(-)	No de la constante de la const	Marks
2	(a)	Variances 2 marks per variance , max Reconciliation	10
		Format Total standard cost	1 1
		Total actual cost	1
			13
	(b)	Memo Memo Format	1
		Controllable explained* Non-controllable explained*	3
			3 3 7
		* for full marks reference must be made to the price index adjustment.	20
3	(a)	Ratios One mark per ratio	4
	(b)	Performance evaluation	·
		One mark per ratio explained Simplistic interpretation of performance, max	4 6
		Performance related to objectives, max	6 3
		Maximum	10
	(c)	3 Es One mark per E explained One mark per measure	3
			3 3 6
			20
4	(a)	Production budget	2
		Closing stocks Production units	3 3
			6
		Labour budget Basic hours	1
		Overtime hours Basic payment	2 1
		Overtime payment	2
		Labour budget	6
		Hours Payment	1 1
		Production budget	
		Production	<b>2</b> 2 3 1
		Closing stocks March sales	3 1
			6
			20