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Welcome to your ExPress not. The Nature, Source and Pure. Cost Accounting Technique. Budgeting. Standard Costing. Performance Measurement. See www.thee thousand.	pose of Management of States	Page 3 4 8 16 25 32	
See www.theexporous			

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Steve Crossman CEO The ExP Group

We were born with o with one desire. T should be used: articular financial education, it regardless of their income,

ial expertise, organisations to improve performance through enhanced human to benefit as a result.

had the privilege of working with and learning from inspirational individuals and organisations Islands in the west.

we're doing better than we expected. The best

Thank you for being part of our story.



The Nature, Source and Purpose of Management

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...nely
Easy to use

KEY KNOWLEDGE - Management A

The process of identification resourcem
nd reporting of information sed b
raluate investment classes ar
nduct of the business.

2 rences in the contraction of the contractio

- Aimed internal users (as opposed to financial accounting, which is aimed at external stake ders)
- Dcused on present and future performance (as opposed to financial accounting, which reports past performance)
- Not required by law and not regulated by accounting frameworks (as opposed to financial accounting, which is a legal requirement and is regulated by accounting frameworks)

- Focused on specific areas or activities (as opposed to financial accounting, which provides a holistic view of company's performance)
- Employs non-financial indicators as well financial, while financial accounting uses only financial measures.

Managerial Processes

- Decision-making: Making choices, not only with regard to the selection of strategies, but also a by the way as implementation proceeds;
 Control: Monitoring of performance during the course of business
- Control: Monitoring of performance during the course of business and taking remedian etion steps as necessary

 Planning

 Planning occurs at different levels of the organisation:

 Strategic De "big picture" long term issues

'big picture", long term issues and the whole company.

See www.ikeexpe cal - medium term and focuses on use of

Operational - short term "day to day" issues.

Responsibility centres

Related to the above is the notion of responsibility that attaches to each level of an organisation:

"Responsibility" centres

Cost Centres Revenue Centres

Profit Centres

Investment Cent

Cost centres: Responsible for current expenses only

Responsible for revenues, but not current exp Revenue centres:

Responsible for revenues and current expe Profit centres:

Investment centres: Responsible for revenues, current expenses and capital expenditure

Sources of data

The sources of data are almost infinite, and they must be selected and evaluated carefully based on reliability and relevance.

oduction vs. Non-Production costs

Costs can be broken down into:

Production costs: These are costs (both direct and indirect, also variable and fixed) which relate to the production of goods; this is also referred to as manufacturing or factory cost. It is these costs, accumulated, which provide the value at which goods are placed in inventory (prior to sale) and form the "cost of goods" value when sold.

Non-production costs: These are expenses that are incurred independent of production and include administrative, selling, distribution and finance costs. These costs can have the character of "period" costs, as they relate to the period of time in which they occur.

KEY KNOWLEDGE - Direct vs. Indirect costs

Direct costs: are costs that can be directly attributable to a product.

Indirect costs: these are costs that cannot be directly attributable to a product.

KEY KNOWLEDGE - Fixed vs. Variable costs



Cost Accounting Techniques

minimize the costs associated with holding inventory.

6sts, the following data is required:

D — uantity of product demanded annually

= purchase cost for one unit

C = fixed cost per order (not incl. the purchase price)

H = cost of holding one unit for one year

The total cost function is as follows:

Total cost = Purchase cost + Ordering cost + Holding cost

which can be expressed algebraically as follows:

$$TC = P \times D + C \times D/Q + H \times Q/2$$

. Gering costs rise the more frequently one places (during the year); and

• Holding costs rise the fewer times one places orders (due to larger quantities being observed each time),

It follows that there is a trade-off between the Ordering and the Holding costs.

The optimal order quantity (Q*) is found where the Ordering and Holding. $C \times D/Q = H \times Q/2$ earranging the above. The optimal order quantity (Q*) is found where the Ordering and Holding costs equal each other, i.e. $C \times D/Q = H \times Q/2$ Rearranging the above and solving for Q results to EOQ = $\sqrt{2CD/H}$

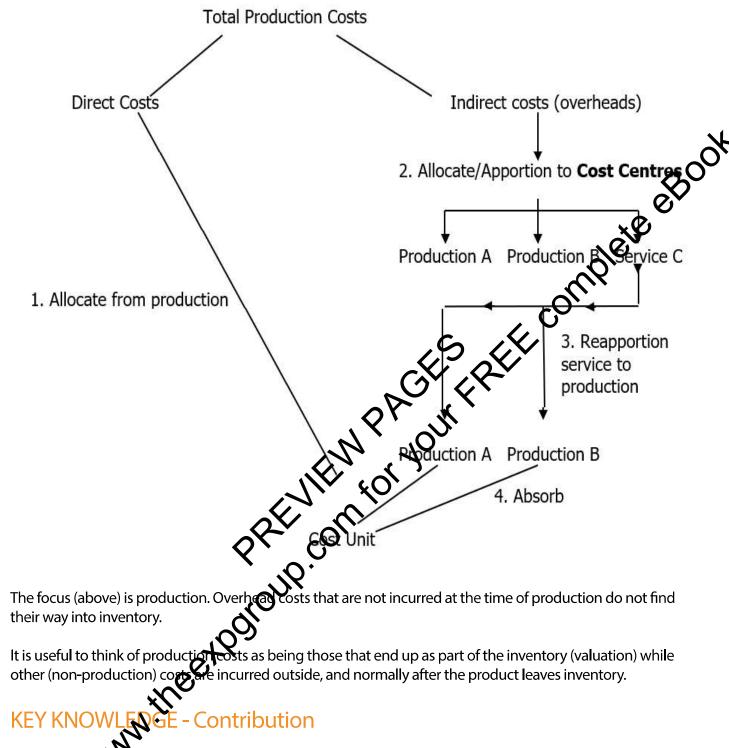
$$C \times D/O = H \times O/2$$

Direct labour refers to work which is directly involved in the manufacture of a product.

Indirect labour (e.g. the superviso or that of a security guard) forms part of overhead costs.

rption Costing

th seeks to make the link between overheads and (product) cost units.



costs that are not incurred at the time of production do not find

ts as being those that end up as part of the inventory (valuation) while e incurred outside, and normally after the product leaves inventory.

Contribution defined as the difference between Sales revenue and the marginal cost of sales, or

= Sales – Variable costs (both production and non-production)

KEY KNOWLEDGE - Marginal Costing

A marginal approach to costing focuses on the variable (marginal) costs generated in a business and considers fixed costs as period costs. This allows the company to be able to quantify the amount by which its costs rise, if it produces/sells an additional unit of output.

Examp	ole
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Below is data on a manufacturing com	pany.	S _{OO} ,
Selling price (per unit):	120	\$ CYC
Cost card (per unit):		aple
Direct materials Direct labour Variable production O/Hs Total variable costs	18 - 7	45 (ear 1
There is a variable selling cost of \$2 per	runit	
	Ye (uı	Year 1 units (units)
Budget (normal) production		1,100
Actual Production	2 1,	1,100
Actual Sales	109	* 950 1,150
Actual fixed production O/Hs	\$16,5	500 \$16,500
Actual SGA costs	\$7,00	\$7,000
Based on the above data Profit and I	oss statem	ment for the Years 1 and 2 is shown on the next page.
Assume that the beginning inventory i	is zero.	

Profit/Loss (Marginal costing)

		Year 1 \$		Year 2 \$		
Sales (950/1,150 units)		114,000		138,000		
Less: Variable cost of sales						X
Opening inventory	0		3,600		\$,00
Production costs:					*6 *0	
Variable (1,000 x \$72) (1,100 X \$72)	72,000		79,200	(COM	16r	
Less: closing inventory (50 x \$72)	(3,600)	(68,400)		(82,800)		
Less: Variable selling costs		SPO.	, (< X			
(950 x \$2) (1,150 x \$2)	2	R900)) '	(2,300)		
Contribution	11/2	15(O)	52,900			
(1,150 x \$2) Contribution Less: Fixed production O/Hs Less: SGA costs Profit Inventory is valued at variable production co		(16,500) 0) _((1 <u>(7,000)</u>	16,500)		
Profit	5.	20,200	29,	400		
Inventory is valued at variable production co	sts.					

KEY KNOWLEDGE Absorption Costing

This method argue that focusing on marginal costs is potentially misleading in the longer run because fixed production costs have also to be covered. Accounting conventions require that fixed production costs be reflected the each unit produced.

ole is shown below.

Revised cost card (Absorption costing)

Cost card (\$ per unit):

Direct materials	45
Direct labour	18
Variable production O/Hs	9
Fixed production O/Hs	<u>15</u>
Total production costs	87

Profit/Loss (Absorption costing)

18 9 <u>15</u> 87	Year 2 \$ 138,000	2004
Year 1 \$	Year 2 \$	io or
114,000	138,000	
,0	2350/ CO	
CK.	4RY	
IEN PROU	•	
JIE YOU YE	79,200	

Sales	(950/1,150 units)	114,000	138,000

Less: Variable cost of sales

Opening inventory	0	4 ,350
		CX CX
Production costs:		~ (C) (V)

Variable

(1,000 X \$72)	72,000	1/1/4		
(1,100 X \$72)			~()	79,200

Fixed

(1,000 X \$ 15)	13.000	
(1,100 X \$15)	OK CO	16,500

Less: closing inventory

(1 000 - 673)

(50 x \$87)	4 350)	0
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Over/(under) absorption 1,500		0	
Q.T.	<u>(84,150</u>)		<u>(100,050)</u>

Gross Profit	*100	29,850	37,950

(950 x \$2) (1,150 x \$2)	1,900	
(1,150 x \$2)		2,300

Less SA costs	<u>7,000</u>	<u>(8,900</u>)	<u>7,000</u>	(<u>9,300)</u>

Profit	20,950	28,650
PIOIIL	20.930	20,030

Inventory is valued at the full production costs.



Summary of Absorption costing and Marginal costing formats

Absorption Costing Marginal Costing

Revenue

Less: Cost of Sales

EE complete eBook Variable/Fixed Variable production/ production costs non-production costs

Contribution Gross profit

Less: Expenses

Variable/Fixed Fixed production/ non-production costs non-production costs

Net Profit

KEY KNOWLEDGE - Job Costing / Batch Co

This refers to the calculation of costs associated with a specific omer order. This is appropriate in situations where each product or service is distinct, and nince, in its delivery.

Batch costing is similar to job costing; the distinct ntification of costs with specific batches, which are numbered (separately identified)

KEY KNOWLEDGE

mass production of a large number of identical products, Process costing is a technique that applies he accumulated costs of production can be averaged over moving through a series of processing sta the number of items produced.

The average cost is determined following formula:

> Average cost per <u>Total cost of inputs – Scrap value of rejected units</u>

No. of units of input – Normal loss

uts refers to labour, materials and overhead costs of production. If losses occur along sitate the scrapping of defective units, then to the extent that these items fetch a scrap value, then that (scrap) value will reduce the total costs.

an accounting is made of the number of units introduced into a process with the expectation that a normal loss will be incurred. The number of good units emerging from a process will therefore be the number of units entering it, minus the expected number lost in processing.

Abnormal gains and losses are accounted for as an adjustment to the accounts using the same value as the "good" output (deducted in the case of loss and added in the case of gains).