UNIT : 1

MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS AND TYPES OF A COMPANY

1. INTRODUCTION

Industrial has revolution led to the emergence of large scale business organizations. These organization require big investments and the risk involved is very high. Limited resources and unlimited liability of partners are two important limitations of partnerships of partnerships in undertaking big business. Joint Stock Company form of business organization has become extremely popular as it provides a solution to overcome the limitations of partnership business. The Multinational companies like Coca-Cola and, General Motors have their investors and customers spread throughout the world. The giant Indian Companies may include the names like Reliance, Talco Bajaj Auto, Infosys Technologies, Hindustan Lever Ltd., RanbaxyLaboratories Ltd., and Larsen and Tubro etc.

MEANING OF COMPANY

Section 3 (1) (i) of the Companies Act, 1956 defines a company as "a company formed and registered under this Act or an existing company". Section 3(1) (ii) Of the act states that "an existing company means a company formed and registered under any of the previous companies laws". This definition does not reveal the distinctive characteristics of a company . According to Chief Justice Marshall of USA, "A company is a person, artificial, invisible, intangible, and existing only in the contemplation of the law. Being a mere creature of law, it possesses only those properties which the character of its creation of its creation confers upon it either expressly or as incidental to its very existence".

Another comprehensive and clear definition of a company is given by Lord Justice Lindley, "A company is meant an association of many persons who contribute

money or money‟s worth to a common stock and employ it in some trade or business, and who share the profit and loss (as the case may be) arising there from. The common stock contributed is denoted in money and is the capital of the company. Thepersons who contribute it, or to whom it belongs, are members. The proportion of capital to which each member is entitled is his share. Shares are always transferable although the right to transfer them is often more or less restricted".

According to Haney, "Joint Stock Company is a voluntary association of individuals for profit, having a capital divided into transferable shares. The ownership of which is the condition of membership".

From the above definitions, it can be concluded that a company is registered association which is an artificial legal person, having an independent legal, entity with a perpetual succession, a common seal for its signatures, a common capital comprised of transferable shares and carrying limited liability.

1.0 CHARACTERISTICS OF A COMPANY

The main characteristics of a company are :

1. Incorporated association. A company is created when it is registered under the Companies Act. It comes into being from the date mentioned in the certificate of incorporation. It may be noted in this connection that Section 11 provides that an association of more than ten persons carrying on business in banking or an association or more than twenty persons carrying on any other type of business must be registered under the Companies Act and is deemed to be an illegal association, if it is not so registered.

For forming a public company at least seven persons and for a private

company at least two persons are persons are required. These persons will subscribe their names to the Memorandum of association and also comply with other legal requirements of the Act in respect of registration to form and incorporate a company, with or without limited liability [Sec 12 (1)]

2. Artificial legal person. A company is an artificial person. Negatively speaking, it is not a natural person. It exists in the eyes of the law and cannot act on its own. It has to act through a board of directors elected by shareholders. Itwas rightly pointed out in Bates V Standard Land Co. that : "The board of directors are the brains and the only brains of the company, which is the body and the company can and does act only through them".

But for many purposes, a company is a legal person like a natural person. It has the right to acquire and dispose of the property, to enter into contract with third parties in its own name, and can sue and be sued in its own name.

However, it is not a citizen as it cannot enjoy the rights under the Constitution of India or Citizenship Act. In State Trading Corporation of India v C.T.O (1963 SCJ 705), it was held that neither the provisions of the Constitution nor the Citizenship Act apply to it. It should be noted that though a company does not possess fundamental rights, yet it is person in the eyes of law. It can enter into contracts with its Directors, its members, and outsiders.

Justice Hidayatullah once remarked that if all the members are citizens of India, the company does not become a citizen of India.

3. Separate Legal Entity : A company has a legal distinct entity and is independent of its members. The creditors of the company can recover their money only from the company and the property of the company. They cannot sue individual members. Similarly,

the company is not in any way liable for the individual debts of its members. The property of the company is to be used for the benefit of the company and nor for the personal benefit of the shareholders. On the same grounds, a member cannot claim any ownership rights in the assets of the company either individually or jointly during the existence of the company or in its winding up. At the same time the members of the company can enter into contracts with the company in the same manner as any other individual can. Separate legal entity of the company is also recognized by the Income Tax Act. Where a company is required to pay Income-tax on its profits and when these profits are distributed to shareholders in the form of dividend, the shareholders have to pay income-tax on their dividend of income. This proves that a company that a company and its shareholders are two separate entities.

The principal of separate of legal entity was explained and emphasized in the famous case of Salomon v Salomon & Co. Ltd.

The facts of the case are as follows :

Mr. Saloman, the owner of a very prosperous shoe business, sold his business for the sum of $ 39,000 to Saloman and Co. Ltd. which consisted of Saloman himself, his wife, his daughter and his four sons. The purchase consideration was paid by the company by allotment of & 20,000 shares and $ 10,000 debentures and the balance in cash to Mr. Saloman. The debentures carrieda floating charge on the assets of the company. One share of $ 1 each wassubscribed by the remaining six members of his family. Saloman and his two sons became the directors of this company. Saloman was the managing Director.

After a short duration, the company went into liquidation. At that time the statement of affairs‟ was like this: Assets :$ 6000, liabilities; Saloman as debenture

holder $ 10,000 and unsecured creditors $ 7,000. Thus its assets were running short of its liabilities b $11,000

The unsecured creditors claimed a priority over the debenture holder on the ground that company and Saloman were one and the same person. But the House of Lords held that the existence of a company is quite independent and distinct from its members and that the assets of the company must be utilized in paymentof the debentures first in priority to unsecured creditors.

Saloman‟s case established beyond doubt that in law a registered company is an entity distinct from its members, even if the person hold all the shares in the company. There is no difference in principle between a company consisting of only two shareholders and a company consisting of two hundred members. In eachcase the company is a separate legal entity.

The principle established in Saloman‟s case also been applied in the following: Lee V. Lee‟s Airforming Ltd. (1961) A.C. 12 Of the 3000 shares in Lee‟s Air Forming Ltd., Lee held 2999 shares. He voted himself the managing Director and also became Chief Pilot of the company on a salary. He died in an aircrash while working for the company. His wife was granted compensation for the husband in the course of employment. Court held that Lee was a separate person from the company he formed, and compensation was due to the widow. Thus, the rule of corporate personality enabled Lee to be the master and servant at the same time. The principle of separate legal entity of a company has been, in fact recognized much earlier than in Saloman‟s case. In Re Kondoi Tea Co Ltd. (1886 ILR 13 Cal 43),

it was held by Calcutta High Court that a company was a separate person, a separate body altogether from its Shareholders. In Re. Sheffield etc. Society - 22 OBD 470), it has been held that a corporation is a legal person, just as much in individual but with no physical existence.

The characteristic of separate corporate personality of a company was also emphasized by Chief Justice Marshall of USA when he defined a company "as a person, artificial, invisible, intangible and existing only in the eyes of the law. Being a mere creation of law, it possesses only those properties which the charter of its creation confers upon it either expressly or as accident to its very existence". [Trustees of Darmouth College v woodward (1819) 17 US 518)

4. Perpetual Existence. A company is a stable form of business organization. Its life does not depend upon the death, insolvency or retirement of any or all shareholder (s) or director (s). Law creates it and law alone can dissolve it. Members may come and go but the company can go on for ever. "During the war all the member of one private company , while in general meeting, were killed by a bomb. But thecompany survived; not even a hydrogen bomb could have destroyed i". Thecompany may be compared with a flowing river where the water keeps on changing continuously, still the identity of the river remains the same. Thus, a company has a perpetual existence, irrespective of changes in its membership.

5. Common Seal. As was pointed out earlier, a company being an artificial person has no body similar to natural person and as such it cannot sign documents for itself. It acts through natural person who are called its directors. But having a legal personality,

it can be bound by only those documents which bear its signature. Therefore, the law has provided for the use of common seal, with the name of the company engraved on it, as a substitute for its signature. Any document bearing the common seal of the company will be legally binding on the company. A company may have its own regulations in its Articles of Association for the manner of affixing the common seal to a document. If the Articles are silent, the provisions of Table-A (the model set of articles appended to the Companies Act) will apply. As per regulation 84 of Table-A the seal of the company shall not be affixed to any instrument except by the authority of a resolution of the Board or a Committee of the Board authorized by it in that behalf, and except in the presence of at least two directors and of the secretary or suchother person as the Board may appoint for the purpose, and those two directors and the secretary or other person aforesaid shall sign every instrument to which the seal ofthe company is so affixed in their presence.

6. Limited Liability : A company may be company limited by shares or a company limited by guarantee. In company limited by shares, the liability of members is limited to the unpaid value of the shares. For example, if the face value of a share in a company is Rs. 10 and a member has already paid Rs. 7 per share, he can be called upon to pay not more than Rs. 3 per share during the lifetime of the company. In a company limited by guarantee the liability of members is limited to such amount as the member may undertake to contribute to the assets of the company in the event of its being wound up.

7. Transferable Shares. In a public company, the shares are freely transferable. The right to transfer shares is a statutory right and it cannot be taken away by a provision

in the articles. However, the articles shall prescribe the manner in which such transfer of shares will be made and it may also contain bona fide and reasonable restrictions on the right of members to transfer their shares. But absolute restrictions on the rights of members to transfer their shares shall be ultra vires. However, in the case of a private company, the articles shall restrict the right of member to transfer their shares in companies with its statutory definition.

In order to make the right to transfer shares more effective, the shareholder can apply to the Central Government in case of refusal by the company to register a transfer of shares.

8. Separate Property : As a company is a legal person distinct from its members, it is capable of owning, enjoying and disposing of property in its own name. Although its capital and assets are contributed by its shareholders, they are not the private and joint owners of its property. The company is the real person in which all its property is vested and by which it is controlled, managed and disposed of.

9. Delegated Management : A joint stock company is an autonomous, self-governing and self-controlling organization. Since it has a large number of members, all of them cannot take part in the management of the affairs of the company. Actual control and management is, therefore, delegated by the shareholders to their elected representatives, know as directors. They look after the day-to-day working of the company. Moreover, since shareholders, by majority of votes, decide the general policyof the company, the management of the company is carried on democratic lines. Majority decision and centralized management compulsorily bring about unity of action.

1.1 DISTINCTION BETWEEN COMPANY AND PARTNERSHIP

The difference between a company and partnership is as follows:

	Company	**Partnership**
1. Mode of creation	By Registration by Statute.	By Agreement
2. Legal Statute	Legal entity distinct from members, perpetual succession.	Firm and partners are not separate; no separate entity; uncertain life
3. Liability	Limited liability of members	Unlimited joint and several liability of partners
4. Authority	Divorce between ownership and management Representative Management	Right to share mana gement, common and ownership and Management. Mutual agency - Implied authority.
5. Transfer of shares	Public Co.-freely transferable; transferee gets all the rights of the transferor	Ordinarily no right of transfer of share by a partner-limited rights of transferee

6.	Number of members	Private Co-Minimum 2 and Maximum 50 public Co. Minimum7 and Maximum unlimited.	Minimum 2 Maximum 20.
7.	Resources	Large and unlimited resources	Personal resources of partners are limited.
8.	General powers	Memorandum defines and confines the scope of the company. alteration difficult.	Easy to change the agreement and so also the powers of the partners.
9.	Legal formalities	Statutory books, Audit, Publication Registration, filing, etc. lots of legal formalities	No legal formalities Registration not compulsory. No audit, no publication of accounts etc.
10.	Dissolution	Only according to the provisions of law- usually by an order of the court. Death of a share-holder does not affect the existence of a company.	Dissolution by agreement by notice, by court. Death of a partner may mean dissolution of partnership

1.2 TYPES OF COMPANY

Joint stock company can be of various types. The following are the important types of company:

1. Classification of Companies by Mode of Incorporation

Depending on the mode of incorporation, there are three classes of joint stock companies.

A. Chartered companies. These are incorporated under a special charter by a monarch. The East India Company and The Bank of England are examples of chartered incorporated in England. The powers and nature of business of a chartered company are defined by the charter which incorporates it. A chartered company has wide powers. It can deal with its property and bind itself to any contracts that any ordinary person can. In case the company deviates from its business as prescribed by the charted, the Sovereign can annul the latter and close the company. Such companies do not exist in India.

B. Statutory Companies. These companies are incorporated by a Special Act passed by the Central or State legislature. Reserve Bank of India, State Bank of India, Industrial Finance Corporation, Unit Trust of India, State Trading corporation and Life Insurance Corporation are some of the examples of statutory companies. Such companies do not have any memorandum or articles of association. They derive their powers from the Acts constituting them and enjoy certain powers that companies incorporated under the Companies Act have. Alternations in the powers of such companies can be brought about by legislative amendments.

The provisions of the Companies Act shall apply to these companies also except in so far as provisions of the Act are inconsistent with those of such SpecialActs [Sec 616 (d)]

These companies are generally formed to meet social needs and not for the purpose of earning profits.

C. Registered or incorporated companies. These are formed under the Companies Act, 1956 or under the Companies Act passed earlier to this. Such companies come into existence only when they are registered under the Act and a certificate of incorporation has been issued by the Registrar of Companies. This is the most popular mode of incorporating a company. Registered companies may further be divided into three categories of the following.

i) Companies limited by Shares : These types of companies have a share capital and the liability of each member or the company is limited by the Memorandum to the extent of face value of share subscribed by him. In other words, during the existence of the company or in the event of winding up, a member can be called upon to pay the amount remaining unpaid on the shares subscribed by him. Such a company is called company limited by shares. A company limited by shares may be a public company or a private company. These are the most popular types of companies.

ii) Companies Limited by Guarantee : These types of companies may or may not have a share capital. Each member promises to pay a fixed sum of money specified in the Memorandum in the event of liquidation of the company for payment of the debts and liabilities of the company [Sec 13(3)] This amount promised by him is called

„Guarantee". The Articles of Association of the company state the number of member with which the company is to be registered [Sec 27 (2)]. Such a company is called a company limited by guarantee. Such companies depend for their existence on entrance and subscription fees. They may or may not have a share capital. The liability of the member is limited to the extent of the guarantee and the face value of the shares subscribed by them, if the company has a share capital. If it has a share capital, it may be a public company or a private company.

The amount of guarantee of each member is in the nature of reserve capital. This amount cannot be called upon except in the event of winding up of a company. Non-trading or non-profit companies formed to promote culture, art, science, religion, commerce, charity, sports etc. are generally formed as companies limited by guarantee.

iii) Unlimited Companies : Section 12 gives choice to the promoters to form a company with or without limited liability. A company not having any limit on the liability of its members is called an „unlimited company" [Sec 12(c)]. An unlimited company may or may not have a share capital. If it has a share capital it may be a public company or a private company. If the company has a share capital, the article shall state the amount of share capital with which the company is to be registered [Sec 27 (1)]

The articles of an unlimited company shall state the number of member with which the company is to be registered.

II. On the Basis of Number of Members

On the basis of number of members, a company may be :

(1) Private Company, and (2) Public Company.

A. Private Company

According to Sec. 3(1) (iii) of the Indian Companies Act, 1956, a private company is that company which by its articles of association :

i) limits the number of its members to fifty, excluding employees who are members or ex-employees who were and continue to be members;

ii) restricts the right of transfer of shares, if any;

iii) prohibits any invitation to the public to subscribe for any shares or debentures of the company.

Where two or more persons hold share jointly, they are treated as a single member.

According to Sec 12 of the Companies Act, the minimum number of members to form a private company is two. A private company must use the word "Pvt" after its name.

Characteristics or Features of a Private Company. The main features of a private of a private company are as follows :

i) A private company restricts the right of transfer of its shares. The shares of a private company are not as freely transferable as those of public companies. The articles generally state that whenever a shareholder of a Private Company wants to transfer his shares, he must first offer them to the existing members of the existing members of the company. The price of the shares is determined by the directors. It is done so as to preserve the family nature of the company"s shareholders.

ii) It limits the number of its members to fifty excluding members who are employees or ex-employees who were and continue to be the member. Where two or more persons hold share jointly they are treated as a single member. The minimum number of members to form a private company is two.

iii) A private company cannot invite the public to subscribe for its capital or shares of debentures. It has to make its own private arrangement.

B. Public company

According to Section 3 (1) (iv) of Indian Companies Act. 1956 "A public company which is not a Private Company",

If we explain the definition of Indian Companies Act. 1956 in regard to the public company, we note the following :

i) The articles do not restrict the transfer of shares of the company

ii) It imposes no restriction no restriction on the maximum number of the members on the company.

iii) It invites the general public to purchase the shares and debentures of the companies

(Differences between a Public Company and a Private company)

1. **Minimum number :** The minimum number of persons required to form a public company is 7. It is 2 in case of a private company.
2. **Maximum number :** There is no restriction on maximum number of members in a public company, whereas the maximum number cannot exceed 50 in a private company.

3. **Number of directors.** A public company must have at least 3 directors whereas a private company must have at least 2 directors (Sec. 252)
4. **Restriction on appointment of directors.** In the case of a public company, the directors must file with the Register a consent to act as directors or sign an undertaking for their qualification shares. The directors or a private company need not do so (Sec 266)
5. **Restriction on invitation to subscribe for shares.** A public company invites the general public to subscribe for shares. A public company invites the general public to subscribe for the shares or the debentures of the company. A private company by its Articles prohibits invitation to public to subscribe for its shares.
6. **Name of the Company :** In a private company, the words "Private Limited" shall be added at the end of its name.
7. **Public subscription :** A private company cannot invite the public to purchase its shares or debentures. A public company may do so.
8. **Issue of prospectus :** Unlike a public company a private company is not expected to issue a prospectus or file a statement in lieu of prospectus with the Registrar before allotting shares.
9. **Transferability of Shares.** In a public company, the shares are freely transferable (Sec. 82). In a private company the right to transfer shares is restricted by Articles.
10. **Special Privileges.** A private company enjoys some special privileges. A public company enjoys no such privileges.
11. **Quorum.** If the Articles of a company do not provide for a larger quorum. 5 members personally present in the case of a public company are quorum for a meeting of the company. It is 2 in the case of a private company (Sec.

12. **Managerial remuneration.** Total managerial remuneration in a public company cannot exceed 11 per cent of the net profits (Sec. 198). No such restriction applies to a private company.

13. **Commencement of business.** A private company may commence its business immediately after obtaining a certificate of incorporation. A public company cannot commence its business until it is granted a "Certificate of Commencement of business".

Special privileges of a Private Company

Unlike a private a public company is subject to a number of regulations and restrictions as per the requirements of Companies Act, 1956. It is done to safeguard the interests of investors/shareholders of the public company. These privileges can be studied as follows :

a) Special privileges of all companies. The following privileges are available to every private company, including a private company which is subsidiary of a public company or deemed to be a public company :

1. A private company may be formed with only two persons as member. [Sec.12(1)]
2. It may commence allotment of shares even before the minimum subscription is subscribed for or paid (Sec. 69).
3. It is not required to either issue a prospectus to the public of file statement in lieu of a prospectus. (Sec 70 (3)]
4. Restrictions imposed on public companies regarding further issue of capital do not apply on private companies. [Sec 81 (3)]

5. Provisions of Sections 114 and 115 relating to share warrants shall not apply to it. (Sec. 14)
6. It need not keep an index of members. (Sec. 115)
7. It can commence its business after obtaining a certificate of incorporation. A certificate of commencement of business is not required. [Sec. 149 (7)]
8. It need not hold statutory meeting or file a statutory report [Sec. 165 (10)]
9. Unless the articles provide for a larger number, only two persons personally present shall form the quorum in case of a private company, while at least five member personally present form the quorum in case of a public company (Sec. 174).
10. A director is not required to file consent to act as such with the Registrar. Similarly, the provisions of the Act regarding undertaking to take up qualification shares and pay for them are not applicable to directors of a private companies [Sec. 266 (5) (b)]
11. Provisions in Section 284 regarding removal of directors by the company in general meeting shall not apply to a life director appointed by a private company on or before 1st April 1952 [Sec. 284 (1)]
12. In case of a private company, poll can be demanded by one member if not more than seven members are present, and by two member if not more than seven member are present. In case of a public company, poll can be demanded by persons having not less than one-tenth of the total voting power in respect of the resolution or holding shares on which an aggregate sum of not less than fifty thousand rupees has been paid-up (Sec. 179).

13. It need not have more than two directors, while a public company must have at least three directors (Sec. 252)

b) Privileges available to an independent private company (i.e. one which is not a subsidiary of a public company)

An independent private company is one which is not a subsidiary of a public company. The following special privileges and exemptions are available to an independent private company.

1. It may give financial assistance for purchase of or subscription for shares in the company itself.
2. It need not, like a public company, offer rights shares to the equity shareholders of the company.
3. The provisions of Sec. 85 to 90 as to kinds of share capital, new issues of share capital, voting, issue of shares with disproportionate rights, and termination of disproportionately excessive rights, do not apply to an independent private company.
4. A transfer or transferee of shares in an independent private company has no right of appeal to the Central Government against refusal by the company to register a transfer of its shares.
5. Sections 171 to 186 relating to general meeting are not applicable to an independent private company if it makes its own provisions by the Articles. Some provisions of these Sections are, however made expressly applicable.
6. Many provisions relating to directors of a public company are not applicable to an independent private company, e.g.

a) it need not have more than 2 directors.

b) The provisions relating to the appointment, retirement, reappointment, etc. of directors who are to retire by rotation and the procedure relating, there to are not applicable to it.

c) The provisions requiring the giving of 14 days‟ notice by new candidates seeking election as directors, as also provisions requiring the Central Government‟s sanction for increasing the number of directors by amending the Articles or otherwise beyond the maximum fixed in the Articles, are not applicable to it.

d) The provisions relating to the manner of filing up casual vacancies among directors and the duration of the period of office of directors and the requirements that the appointment of directors should be voted on individually and that the consent of each candidate for directorship should be filed with the Registrar, do not apply to it.

e) The provisions requiring the holding of a share qualification by directors and fixing the time within which such qualification is to be acquired and filing with the Registrar of a declaration of share qualification by each director are also not applicable to it.

f) It may, by its Articles, Provide special disqualifications for appointment of directors.

g) It may provide special grounds for vacation of office of a director.

h) Sec. 295 prohibiting loans to directors does not apply to it.

i) An interested director may participate or vote in Board‟s proceedings relating to his concern of interest in any contract of arrangement.

7. The restrictions as to the number of companies of which a person may be appointed managing director and the prohibition of such appointment for more than 5 years at a time, do not apply to it

8. The provisions prohibiting the subscribing for, or purchasing of, shares or debentures of other companies in the same group do not apply to it.

9. The provisions of Section 409 conferring power on the Central Government to present change in the Board of directors of a company where in the opinion of the Central Government such change will be prejudicial to the interest of the company, do not apply to it.

When a Private company becomes a Public company

A private company shall become a public company in following cases :

i) By default : When it fails to comply with the essential requirements of a private company provided under Section 3 (1) (iii) Default in complying with the said three provisions shall disentitle a private company to enjoy certain privileges (Sec. 43).

ii) A private company which is a subsidiary of another public company shall be deemed to be a public company.

iii) By provisions of law - Section 43-A.

Section 43-A

a) Where not less than 25% of the paid-up share capital of a private company is held by one or more bodies” corporate such a private company shall

become a public company from the data in which such 25% is held by body corporate [Sec. 43-A (1)]

b) Where the average annual turnover of a private company is not less than Rs. 10 crores during the relevant period, such a private company shall become a public company after the expiry of the period of three months from the last day of the relevant period when the accounts show the said average annual turnover [Sec. 43 A (1 A)].

c) When a private company holds not less than 25% of the paid up share capital of a public company the private company shall becomea public company from the date on which the private company holds such 25% [Sec. 43A (IB)].

d) Where a private company accepts, after an invitation is made by an advertisement of receiving deposits from the public other than its members, directors or their relatives, such private company shall become a public company [Sec. 43A (IC)].

iv) **By Conversion :** When the private company converts itself into a public company by altering its Articles in such a manner that they no longer include essential requirements of a private company under Section 3 (1) (iii). On the data of such alternations, it shall cease to be private company. It shall comply with the procedure of converting itself into a public company [Sec. 44].

The Articles of Association of such a public company may continue to have the three restrictions and may continue to have two directors and less than seven members.

Within 3 months of such a conversion. Registrar of Companies shall be intimated. The Registrar shall delete the word „Private" before the words „Limited" in the name of the company and shall also make necessary alternations in the certificate of incorporation.

III. On the basis of Control

On the basis of control, a company may be classified into :

1. Holding companies, and
2. Subsidiary Company

1. Holding Company [Sec. 4(4)]. A company is known as the holding company of another company if it has control over the other company. According to Sec 4(4) a company is deemed to be the holding company of another if, but only if thatother is its subsidiary.

A company may become a holding company of another company in either of the following three ways :-

a) by holding more than fifty per cent of the normal value of issued equity capital of the company; or

b) By holding more than fifty per cent of its voting rights; or

c) by securing to itself the right to appoint, the majority of the directors of the other company , directly or indirectly.

The other company in such a case is known as a "Subsidiary company". Though the two companies remain separate legal entities, yet the affairs of both the companies are managed and controlled by the holding company. A holding company may have any number of subsidiaries. The annual accounts of the holding company are required to disclose full information about the subsidiaries.

2. Subsidiary Company. [Sec. 4 (I)]. A company is know as a subsidiary of another company when its control is exercised by the latter (called holding company) over the

former called a subsidiary company. Where a company (company S) is subsidiary of another company (say Company H), the former (Company S) becomes the subsidiary of the controlling company (company H).

IV. On the basis of Ownership of companies

a) **Government Companies.** A Company of which not less than 51% of the paid up capital is held by the Central Government of by State Government or Government singly or jointly is known as a Government Company. It includes a company subsidiary to a government company. The share capital of a government company may be wholly or partly owned by the government, but it would not make it the agent of the government . The auditors of the government company are appointed by the government on the advice of the Comptroller and Auditor General of India. The Annual Report along with the auditor‟s report areplaced before both the House of the parliament. Some of the examples of government companies are - Mahanagar Telephone Corporation Ltd., National Thermal Power Corporation Ltd., State Trading Corporation Ltd. Hydroelectric Power Corporation Ltd. Bharat Heavy Electricals Ltd. Hindustan Machine Tools Ltd. etc.

b) **Non-Government Companies.** All other companies, except the Government Companies, are called non-government companies. They do not satisfy the characteristics of a government company as given above.

V. On the basis of Nationality of the Company

a) **Indian Companies :** These companies are registered in India under the Companies Act. 1956 and have their registered office in India. Nationality of the members in their case is immaterial.

b) **Foreign Companies :** It means any company incorporated outside India which has an established place of business in India [Sec. 591 (I)]. A company has an

established place of business in India if it has a specified place at which it carries on business such as an office, store house or other premises with some visible indication premises. Section 592 to 602 of Companies Act, 1956 contain provisions applicable to foreign companies functioning in India.

INCORPORATION OF COMPANIES

Company is an artificial person created by following a legal procedure. Beforea company is formed, a lot of preliminary work is to be performed. The lengthy process of formation of a company can be divided into four distinct stages : (I) Promotion; (ii) Incorporation or Registration; (iii) Capital subscription; and (iv) Commencement of business. However, a private company can start business as soon as it obtains the certificate of incorporation. It needs to go through first two stages only. The reason is that a private company cannot invite public to subscribe to its share capital. But a public company having a share capital, has to pass through all the four stages mentioned above before it can commence business or exercise any borrowing powers (Section 149). These four stages are discussed here:

1 Promotion

The term „promotion‟ is a term of business and not of law. It is frequently used in business. Haney defines promotion as " the process of organizing and planning the finances of a business enterprise under the corporate form". Gerstenberg has defined promotion as "the discovery of business opportunities and the subsequent organization of funds, property and managerial ability into a business concern for the purpose of making profits therefrom." First of all the idea of carrying on a business is conceived by promoters. Promoters are persons engaged in, one or the other way; in the formation of a company. Next, the promoters make detailed study to assess the feasibility of the business idea and the amount of financial and other resources

required. When the promoters are satisfied about practicability of the business idea , they take necessary steps for assembling the business elements and making provision of the funds required to launch the business enterprise. Law does not require any qualification for the promoters. The promoters stand in a fiduciary position towards the company about to be formed. From the fiduciary position of promoters, the following important results follow:

1. A promoter cannot be allowed to make any secret profits. If any secret profit is made in violation of this rule, the company may, on discovering it, compel the promoter to account for and surrender such profit.
2. The promoter is not allowed to derive a profit from the sale of his own property to the company unless all material facts are disclosed. If he contracts to sell his own property to the company without making a full disclosure, the companmy may either rescind the sale or affirm the contract and recover the profit made out of it by the promoter.
3. The promoter must not make an unfair or unreasonable use of his position and must take care to avoid anything which has the appearance of undue influence or fraud.

Promoter's Remuneration

A promoter has no right to get compensation from the company for his services in promoting it unless the company, after its incorporation, enters into a contract with him for this purpose. If allowed, remuneration may be paid in cashor partly in cash partly in shares and debentures of the company.

Promoter's Liability

If a promoter does not disclose any profit made out of a transaction to which the company is a party, then the company may sue the promoter and recover the undisclosed profit with interest Otherwise, the company may set aside the transaction

i.e., it may restore the property to promoter and recover its money.

Besides, Section 62 (1) holds the promoter liable to pay compensation to every person who subscribes for any share or debentures on the faith of the prospectus for any loss or damage sustained by reason of any untrue statement included in it. Section 62 also provides certain grounds on which a promoter can avoid his liability. Similarly Section 63 provides for criminal liability for misstatement in the prospectus and a promoter may also become liable under this section.

Promoter's Contracts

Preliminary contracts are contracts made on behalf of a company yet to be incorporated. Following are some of the effects of such contracts;

1. The company, when it comes into existence, is not bound by any contract madeon its behalf before its incorporation. A company has no status prior to its incorporation.
2. The company cannot ratify a pre-incorporation contract and hold the other party liable. Like the company, the other party to the contract is also not bound by such a contract.
3. The agents of a proposed company may sometimes incur personal liability under a contract made on behalf of the company yet to be formed.

Kelner v Bexter (1886) L.R. 2 C.P.174. A hotel company was about to be formed and promoters signed an agreement for the purchase of stock on behalf of the proposed company. The company came into existence but, before paying the price, went into liquidation. The promoters were held personally liable to the plaintiff.

Further, an agent himself may not be able to enforce the contract against the other party. So far as ratification of a pre-incorporation contract is concerned, a company cannot ratify a contract entered into by the promoters on its behalf before its incorporation. The reason is simple, ratification can be done only if an agent contracts for a principal who is in existence and who is competent to contract at the time of the contract by the agent.

2 Incorporation

This is the second stage of the company formation. It is the registration that brings a company into existence. A company is legally constituted on being duly registered under the Act and after the issue of Certificate of Incorporation by the Registrar of Companies. For the incorporation of a company the promoters take the following preparatory steps:

i) To find out form the Registrar of companies whether the name by which the new company is to be stareted is available or not. To take approval of the name, an application has to be made in the prescribed form along with requisite fee;

ii) To get a letter of Intent under Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, if the company‟s business comes within the purview of the Act.

iii) To get necessary documents i.e. Memorandum and Articles of Association prepared and printed.

iv) to prepare preliminary contracts and a prospectus or statement in lieu of a prospectus.

Registration of a company is obtained by filing an application with the Registrar of Companies of the State in which the registered office of the comapany is to be situated. The application should be accompanied by the following documents:

1. Memorandum of association properly stamped, duly signed by the signatories of the memorandum and witnessed.
2. Ariticles of Association, if necessary.
3. A copy of the agreement, if any, which the company proposes to enter into with any individual for his appointment as managing or whole-time directoror manager.
4. A written consent of the directors to act in that capacity, if necessary.
5. A statutory declaration stating that all the legal requirements of the Act prior to

incorporation have been complied with.

The Registrar will scrutinize these documents. If the Registrar finds the document to be satisfactory, he registers them and enters the name of the companyin the Register of Companies and issues a certificate called the certificate of incorporation (Section 34).

The certificate of incorporation is the birth certificate of a company. The company comes into existence from the date mentioned in the certificate of incorporation and the date appearing in it is conclusive, even if wrong. Further, the certificate is conclusive evidence that all the requirements of this Act in respect of registration and matters precedent and related thereto have been fulfilled and that the association is a company authorized to be registered and duly registered under this Act.

Once the company is created it cannot be got rid off except by resorting to provisions of the Act which provide for the winding up of company. The certificate of incorporation, even if it contains irregularities, cannot be cancelled.

3 Capital Subscription

A private company can start business immediately after the grant of certificate of incorporation but public limited company has to further go through „capital subscription stage" and „commencement of business stage". In the capital subscription stage, the company makes necessary arrangements for raising the capital of the company. With a view to ensure protection on investors, Securities and Exchange Boar of India (SEBI) has issued „guidelines for the disclosure and investor protection". The company making a public issue of share capital must comply with these guidelines before making a public offer for sale of shares and debentures.

If the capital has to be said through a public offer of shares, the directors of the public company will first file a copy of the prospectus with the Registrar of Companies. On the scheduled date the prospectus will be issued to the public.

Investors are required to forward their applications for shares along with application money to the company's bankers mentioned in the prospectus. The bankers will then forward all applications to the company and the directors will consider the allotment of shares. If the subscribed capital is at least equal to 90 percent of the capital issue, and other requirements of a valid allotment are fulfilled the directors pass a formal resolution of allotment. However, if the company does not receive applications which can cover the minimum subscription within 120 days of the issue of prospectus, no allotment can be made and all money received will be refunded.

If a public company having share capital decides to make private placementof shares, then, instead of a prospectus it has to file with the Registrar of Companies a statement in lieu of prospectus" at least three days before the directors proceed to pass the first share allotment resolution. The contents of a prospectus and a statement in lieu of a prospectus are almost alike.

4 Commencement of Business

A private company can commence business immediately after the grant of certificate of incorporation, but a public limited company will have to undergo somemore formalities before it can start business. The certificate for commencement ofbusiness is issued by Registrar of Companies, subject to the following conditions.

1. Shares payable in cash must have been allotted upto the amount of minimum subscription
2. Every director of the company had paid the company in cash application and allotment money on his shares in the same proportion as others.
3. No money should have become refundable for failure to obtain permission for shares or debentures to be dealt in any recognized stock exchange.
4. A declaration duly verified by one of directors or the secretary that the above requirements have been complied with which is filed with the Registrar.

The certificate to commence business granted by the Registrar is a conclusive evidence of the fact that the company has complied with all legal formalities and it is legally entitled to commence business. It may also be noted that the court has the power to wind up a company, if it fails to commence business within a year of its incorporation [Sec. 433 (3)]