

Sale of Goods Act, 1930

Chapter 3

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The Law of Sale of Goods: Introduction

Sale of goods is one of the specific forms of contracts recognized and regulated by law in India. Sale is a typical bargain between the buyer and the seller. The Sale of Goods Act, 1930 allows the parties to modify the provisions of the law by express stipulations. However, in some cases, this freedom is severely restricted.



Sale of Goods Act, 1930 is an Act to define and amend the law relating to the sale of goods. It extends to the whole of India. It came into force on 1st July, 1930.

Unit 1 : Formation of Contract of Sale



- + Scope & Applicability of the Act
- + Important Definitions
- + Sale vs. Agreement to Sale
- + Sale vs. Hire Purchase
- + Sale vs. Bailment
- + Contract of Sale How Made
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1. Scope & Applicability of the Act

The provisions of the Act are applicable to the contracts related to the sale of goods which means movable properties. The Act is not applicable for the sale of immovable properties like land, shop or house etc.

The general provisions of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 apply to a Contract of Sale of Goods in so far as they are not inconsistent with the express provisions of the Sale of Goods Act. The expressions used but not defined in the Sales of Goods Act, 1930 and defined in the Indian Contract Act, 1872 have the meanings assigned to them in that Act.

The customs and usages will bind both the parties if these are reasonable and are known to the parties at the time of entering the contract.

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2. Important Definitions

1. Buyer and Seller:

'Buyer' means a person who buys or agrees to buy goods [Section 2(1)].

'Seller' means a person who sells or agrees to sell goods [Section 2(13)].

The two terms, 'buyer' and 'seller' are complementary and represent the two parties to a contract of sale of goods.

Both the terms are, however, used in a

sense wider than their common meaning. Not only the person who buys but also the one who agrees to buy is a buyer. Similarly, a 'seller' means not only a person who sells but also a person who agrees to sell.



2. Goods: "Goods" means every kind of movable property other than actionable claims and money; and includes stock and shares, growing crops, grass, and things attached to or forming part of the land, which are agreed to be severed before sale or under the contract of sale. [Section 2(7)]

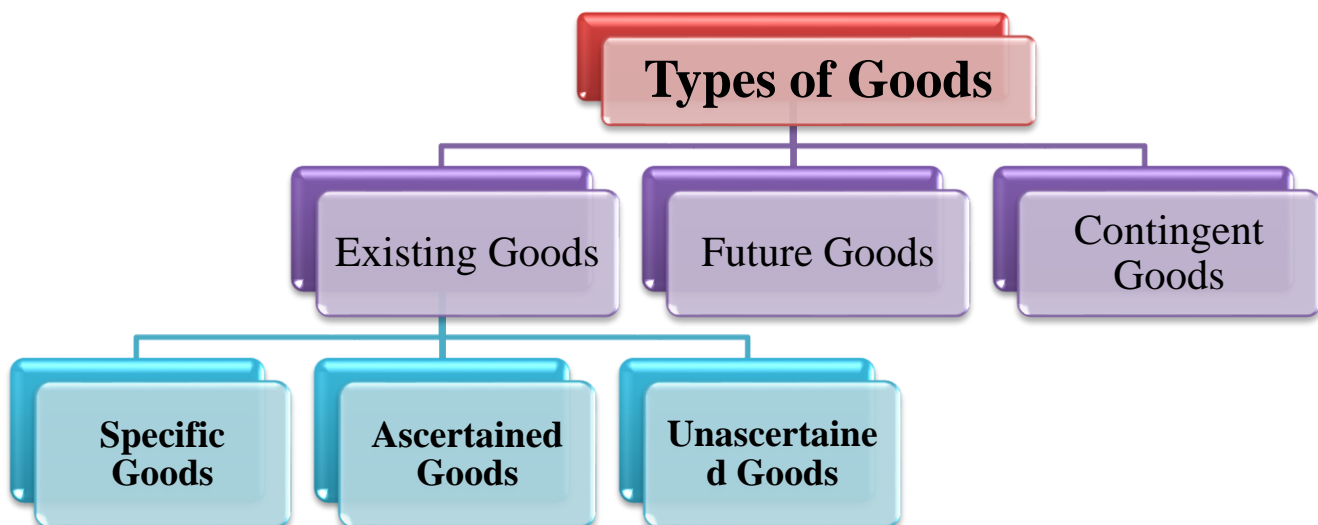
'Actionable claims' are claims, which can be enforced only by an action or suit, e.g., debt. A debt is not a movable property or goods. Even the Fixed Deposit Receipts (FDR) are considered as goods under Section 176 of the Indian Contract Act read with Section 2(7) of the Sales of Goods Act.

"Goods" include both tangible goods and intangible goods like goodwill, copyrights, patents, trademarks etc. Stock and shares, gas, steam, water, electricity and decree of the court are also considered to be goods.



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Classification of Goods:



A. Existing goods: Existing goods are such goods as are in existence at the time of the contract of sale, i.e., those owned or possessed by the seller at the time of contract of sale (Section 6).

The existing goods may be of following kinds:

i) **Specific Goods:** Specific goods means goods identified and agreed upon at the time a contract of sale is made [Section 2(14)].

Example: Any specified and finally decided goods like a Samsung Galaxy S7 Edge, Whirlpool washing machine of 7 kg etc.

Example: 'A' had five cars of different models. He agreed to sell his 'flat' car to 'B' and 'B' agreed to purchase the same car. In this case, the sale is for specific goods as the car has been identified and agreed at the time of the contract of sale.

ii) **Ascertained Goods:** Ascertained Goods are those goods which are identified in accordance with the agreement after the contract of sale is made. This term is not defined in the Act but has been judicially interpreted. In actual practice the term 'ascertained goods' is used in the same sense as 'specific goods.' When from a lot or out of large quantity of unascertained goods, the number or quantity contracted for is identified, such identified goods are called ascertained goods.

Example: A wholesaler of cotton has 100 bales in his godown. He agrees to sell 50 bales and these bales were selected and set aside. On selection the goods becomes ascertained. In this case, the contract is for the sale of ascertained goods, as the cotton bales to be sold are identified and agreed after the formation of the contract. It may be noted that before the ascertainment of the goods, the contract was for the sale of unascertained goods.

iii) **Unascertained goods:** Unascertained goods are the goods which are not specifically identified or ascertained at the time of making of the contract. They are indicated or defined only by description or sample.

Example: If A agrees to sell to B one packet of salt out of the lot of one hundred packets lying in his shop, it is a sale of unascertained goods because it is not known which packet is to be delivered. As soon as a particular packet is separated from the lot, it becomes ascertained or specific goods.

B. Future goods: Future goods means goods to be manufactured or produced or acquired by the seller after making the contract of sale [Section 2 (6)]. A contract for the sale of future goods is always an agreement to sell. It is never actual sale because a man cannot transfer what is not in existence.

Example: 1,000 quintals of potatoes to be grown on A's field, is not illegal, though the actual sale of future goods is not possible. This is an example of agreement to sell.

Example: P agrees to sell to Q all the milk that his cow may yield during the coming year. This is a contract for the sale of future goods.

Example: T agrees to sell to S all the oranges which will be produced in his garden this year. It is contract of sale of future goods, amounting to 'an agreement to sell.'

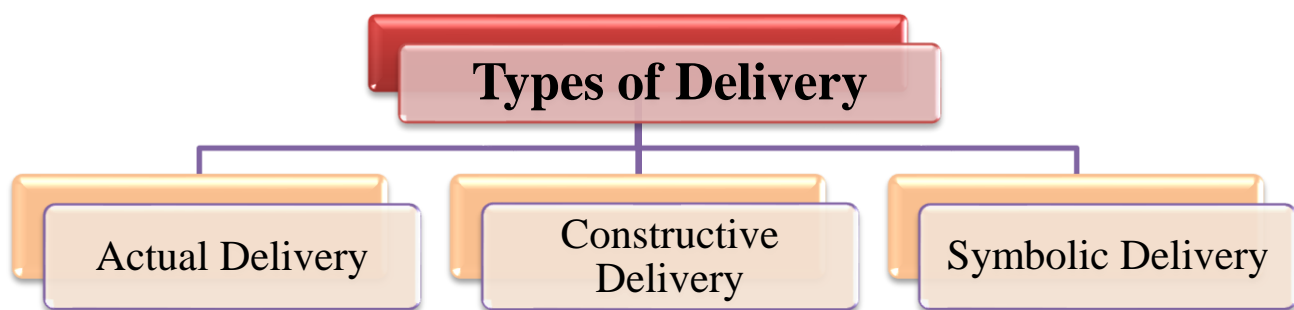
C. Contingent goods: The acquisition of which by the seller depends upon an uncertain contingency (uncertain event) are called 'contingent goods' [Section 6(2)]. Contingent goods also operate as 'an agreement to sell' and not a 'sale' so far as the question of

passing of property to the buyer is concerned. In other words, like the future goods, in the case of contingent goods also, the property does not pass to the buyer at the time of making the contract.

Example: A agrees to sell to B a Picasso painting provided he is able to purchase it from its present owner. This is a contract for the sale of contingent goods.

3. Delivery: Delivery means voluntary transfer of possession from one person to another [Section 2(2)]. As a general rule, delivery of goods may be made by doing anything, which has the effect of putting the goods in the possession of the buyer, or any person authorized to hold them on his behalf.

Forms of delivery:



A. Actual delivery: When the goods are physically delivered to the buyer. Actual delivery takes place when the seller transfers the physical possession of the goods to the buyer or to a third person authorised to hold goods on behalf of the buyer. This is the most common method of delivery.

B. Constructive delivery: When it is effected without any change in the custody or actual possession of the thing as in the case of delivery by acknowledgement.

Example: Where a warehouseman holding the goods of A agrees to hold them on behalf of B, at A's request.

C. Symbolic delivery: When there is a delivery of a thing in token of a transfer of something else, i.e., delivery of goods in the course of transit may be made by handing over documents of title to goods, like bill of lading or railway receipt or delivery orders or the key of a warehouse containing the goods is handed over to buyer.

4. Document of title to goods [Section 2(4)]: Any document used in the ordinary course of business as proof of the possession or control of goods or authorizing or purporting to authorize, either by endorsement or by delivery, the possessor of the document to transfer or receive goods thereby represented. A document amounts to a document of title only where it shows an unconditional undertaking to deliver the goods to the holder of the document.

Examples: Bill of lading, dock warrant, warehouse keeper's certificate, wharfinger's certificate, railway receipt, warrant, an order of delivery of goods. The list is only illustrative and not exhaustive.

However, there is a difference between a 'document showing title' and 'document of title'.

A share certificate is a 'document' showing title but not a document of title. It merely shows that the person named in the share certificate is entitled to the share represented by it, but it does not allow that person to transfer the share mentioned therein by mere endorsement on the back of the certificate and the delivery of the certificate.

5. Mercantile Agent [Section 2(9)]: It means an agent having in the customary course of business as such agent authority either to sell goods or to consign goods for the purpose of sale or to buy goods or to raise money on the security of the goods.

Examples of such kind of agents are auctioneers, factors, brokers, etc.

6. Property [Section 2(11)]: 'Property' here means 'ownership' or general property.

In every contract of sale, the ownership of goods must be transferred by the seller to the buyer, or there should be an agreement by the seller to transfer the ownership to the buyer. It means the general property (right of owner-ship-in-goods) and not merely a special property.

Example: If A who owns certain goods pledges them to B, A has general property in the goods, whereas B has special property or interest in the goods to the extent of the amount of advance he has made.

7. Insolvent [Section 2(8)]: A person is said to be insolvent when he ceases to pay his debts in the ordinary course of business, or cannot pay his debts as they become due, whether he has committed an act of insolvency or not.

8. Price [Section 2(10)]: Price means the money consideration for a sale of goods.

9. Quality of goods [Section 2(12)]: Quality of goods includes their state or condition.

3. Sale and Agreement to Sell (Section 4)

Sale - Section 4(1): Where under a contract of sale the property in the goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer, the contract is called a sale. In Sale, the property in goods is transferred from seller to the buyer immediately.

Agreement to Sell - Section 4(3): Where the transfer of the property in the goods is to take place at a future time or subject to some condition thereafter to be fulfilled, the contract is called an agreement to sell. In an agreement to sell, the ownership of the goods is not transferred immediately. It is intending to transfer at a future date upon the completion of certain conditions thereon.

Example: X agrees with Y on 10th October, 2020 that he will sell his car to Y on 10th November, 2020 for a sum of Rs. 3 lakhs. It is an agreement to sell.

When agreement to sell becomes sale - Section 4(4): An agreement to sell becomes a sale when the time elapses or the conditions are fulfilled subject to which the property in the goods is to be transferred.

4. Essentials of valid Contract of Sale

1. There must be at least two parties, the seller and the buyer and the two must be different persons. A person cannot be both the seller and the buyer and sell his goods to himself.
2. The subject matter of the contract must necessarily be goods covering only movable property. It may be either existing goods, owned or possessed by the seller or future goods.
3. A price in money (not in kind) should be paid or promised. But there is nothing to prevent the consideration from being partly in money and partly in kind.
4. A transfer of property in goods from seller to the buyer must take place. The contract of sale is made by an offer to buy or sell goods for a price by one party and the acceptance of such offer by other.
5. A contract of sale may be absolute or conditional.
6. All other essential elements of a valid contract must be present in the contract of sale, e.g. free consent of parties, competency of parties, legality of object and consideration etc.

5. Distinction Between Sale and Agreement to Sell

Basis of Difference	Sale	Agreement To Sell
Transfer of Property	The property in the goods passes to the buyer immediately.	Property in the goods passes to the buyer on future date or on fulfillment of some condition.
Nature of Contract	It is an executed contract. i.e. contract for which consideration has been paid.	It is an executory contract. i.e. contract for which consideration is to be paid at a future date.
Remedies for Breach	The seller can sue the buyer for the price of the goods because of the passing of the property therein to the buyer.	The aggrieved party can sue for damages only and not for the price, unless the price was payable at a stated date.
Liability of Parties	A subsequent loss or destruction of the goods is the liability of the buyer.	Such loss or destruction is the liability of the seller.
Burden of Risk	Risk of loss is that of buyer since risk follows ownership.	Risk of loss is that of seller.
Nature of Rights	Creates Jus in rem	Creates Jus in personam

Right of Resale	The seller cannot resell the goods.	The seller may sell the goods since ownership is with the seller.
In case of insolvency of seller	The official assignee will not be able to take over the goods but will recover the price from the buyer.	The official assignee will acquire control over the goods but the price will not be recoverable.
In case of insolvency of buyer	The official assignee will have control over the goods.	The official assignee will not have any control over the goods.

6. Distinction Between Sale and Hire Purchase

Basis of Difference	Sale	Hire Purchase
Time of passing property	Property in the goods is transferred to the buyer immediately at the time of contract.	The property in goods passes to the hirer upon payment of the last installment.
Position of the party	The position of the buyer is that of the owner of the goods.	The position of the hirer is that of a bailee till he pays the last installment.
Termination of contract	The buyer cannot terminate the contract and is bound to pay the price of the goods.	The hirer may, if he so likes, terminate the contract by returning the goods to its owner without any liability to pay the remaining installments.
Burden of Risk of insolvency of the buyer	The seller takes the risk of any loss resulting from the insolvency of the buyer.	The owner takes no such risk, for if the hirer fails to pay an installment, the owner has right to take back the goods.
Transfer of title	The buyer can pass a good title to a bona fide purchaser from him.	The hirer cannot pass any title even to a bona fide purchaser.
Resale	The buyer in sale can resell the goods	The hire purchaser cannot resell unless he has paid all the installments.

7. Distinction Between Sale and Bailment

Basis of Difference	Sale	Bailment
Transfer of property	The property in goods is transferred from the seller to the buyer. So, it is transfer of general property.	There is only transfer of possession of goods from the bailor to the bailee for any of the reasons like safe custody, carriage etc. So, it is transfer of special property.
Return of goods	The return of goods in contract of sale is not possible.	The bailee must return the goods to the bailor on the accomplishment of the purpose for which the bailment was made.
Consideration	The consideration is the price in terms of money.	The consideration may be gratuitous or non-gratuitous.

8. Contract of Sale How Made (Section 5)

According to Section 5(1), a contract of sale is made by an offer to buy or sell goods for a price and the acceptance of such offer. The contract may provide for the immediate delivery of the goods or immediate payment of the price or both, or for the delivery or payment by instalments, or that the delivery or payment or both shall be postponed.

Further, as per sub-section (2) of section 5, subject to the provisions of any law for the time being in force, a contract of sale may be made in writing or by word of mouth, or partly in writing and partly by word of mouth or may be implied from the conduct of the parties.



Example: R agrees to deliver his old motorcycle valued at Rs. 25000 to S in exchange for a new motorcycle and agrees to pay the difference in cash, it is a Contract of Sale.

Analysis:

A contract of sale may be made in any of the following modes:

1. Contract of sale is made by an offer to buy or sell goods for a price and acceptance of such offer.
2. There may be immediate delivery of the goods; or
3. There may be immediate payment of price, but it may be agreed that the delivery is to be made at some future date; or
4. There may be immediate delivery of the goods and an immediate payment of price; or

5. It may be agreed that the delivery or payment or both are to be made in instalments; or
6. It may be agreed that the delivery or payment or both are to be made at some future date.

9. Subject Matter of Contract of Sale

Existing or future goods (section 6): The goods which form the subject matter of a contract of sale may be either existing goods that are acquired, owned or possessed by the seller, or future goods. Also there may be a contract for the sale of goods the acquisition of which by the seller depends upon a contingency which may or may not happen.

Example: A contract for sale of certain cloth to be manufactured by a certain mill is a valid contract. Such contracts are called contingent contracts.

Note: Whereby a contract of sale the seller purports to effect a present sale of future goods, the contract operates as an agreement to sell the goods.

Goods perishing before making of contract (Section 7): Where there is a contract for the sale of specific goods, the contract is void if the goods without the knowledge of the seller have, at the time when the contract was made, perished or become so damaged as no longer to answer to their description contract.

Example: A agrees to sell B 50 bags of wheat stored in the A's godown. Due to water logging, all the goods stored in the godown were destroyed. At the time of agreement, neither parties were aware of the fact. The agreement is void.

Goods perishing before sale but after agreement to sell (Section 8): Where there is an agreement to sell specific goods, and subsequently the goods without any fault on the part of the seller or buyer perish or become so damaged as no longer to answer to their description in the agreement before the risk passes to the buyer, the agreement is thereby avoided or becomes void.

Perishing of future goods: If the future goods are specific, the destruction of such goods will amount to supervening impossibility and the contract shall become void.

10. Ascertainment of Price (Section 9 & 10)

Ascertainment of price (Section 9): The price in a contract of sale may be fixed by the contract or may be left to be fixed in manner thereby agreed or may be determined by the course of dealing between the parties.

Where the price is not determined in accordance with the foregoing provisions, the buyer shall pay the seller a reasonable price. What is a reasonable price is a question of fact dependent on the circumstances of each particular case

Analysis:

By virtue of Section 9, the price in the contract of sale may be-

- i) fixed by the contract, or
- ii) agreed to be fixed in a manner provided by the contract, e.g., by a valuer, or
- iii) determined by the course of dealings between the parties.



Agreement to sell at valuation (Section 10):

Where there is an agreement to sell goods on the terms that the price is to be fixed by the valuation of third party and such third party cannot or does not make such valuation, the agreement is thereby avoided:

Provided that, if the goods or any part thereof have been delivered to, and appropriated by, the buyer, he shall pay a reasonable price therefore.

Where such third party is prevented from making the valuation by the fault of the seller or buyer, the party not in fault may maintain a suit for damages against the party in default.

Example: P is having two bikes. He agrees to sell both of the bikes to S at a price to be fixed by the Q. He gives delivery of one bike immediately. Q refuses to fix the price. As such P ask S to return the bike already delivered while S claims for the delivery of the second bike too. In the given instance, buyer S shall pay reasonable price to P for the bike already taken. As regards the Second bike, the contract can be avoided.

Important Notes:

Unit 2 : Conditions & Warranties



- ✚ **Stipulation as to Time**
- ✚ **Conditions and Warranties in a Contract of Sale**
 - **Implied Conditions**
 - **Implied Warranties.**
- ✚ **Doctrine of 'Caveat Emptor'**
 - **Exception to the Doctrine of Caveat Emptor**

1. Stipulation as to Time (Section 11)

Unless a different intention appears from the terms of the contract, stipulation as to time of payment are not deemed to be of the essence of a contract of sale. Whether any other stipulation as to time is of the essence of the contract or not depends on the terms of the contract.

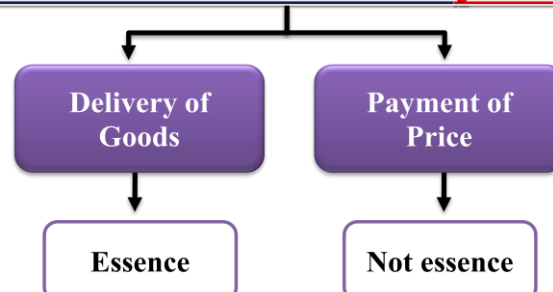


Analysis:

As regard to time for the payment of price, unless a different intention appears from the terms of contract, stipulation as regard this, is not deemed to be of the essence of a contract of sale. But delivery of goods must be made without delay. Whether or not such a stipulation is of the essence of a contract depends on the terms agreed upon.

Price for goods may be fixed by the contract or may be agreed to be fixed later on in a specific manner. Stipulation as to time of delivery are usually the essence of the contract.

STIPULATION AS TO TIME [SECTION 11]



2. Conditions & Warranties

A representation which forms a part of the contract of sale and affects the contract, is called a stipulation. However, every stipulation is not of equal importance. Some of these may be very vital while others may be of somewhat lesser significance. The more significant stipulations contained in a contract of sale of goods have been called as “Conditions”, while the less significant stipulation have been given the name “Warranties”.

Condition and warranty (Section 12): A stipulation in a contract of sale with reference to goods which are the subject thereof may be a condition or a warranty. [Sub-section (1)]

Condition: “A condition is a stipulation essential to the main purpose of the contract, the breach of which gives rise to a right to treat the contract as repudiated”. [Sub-section (2)]

Example: Ram consults Shyam, a motor-car dealer for a car suitable for touring purposes to promote the sale of his product. Shyam suggests ‘Maruti’ and Ram accordingly buys it from Shyam. The car turns out to be unfit for touring purposes. Here, the term that the ‘car should be suitable for touring purposes’ is a condition of the contract. It is so vital that its non-fulfilment defeats the very purpose for which Ram purchases the car. Ram is therefore entitled to reject the car and have refund of the price.

Warranty: “A warranty is a stipulation collateral to the main purpose of the contract, the breach of which gives rise to a claim for damages but not to a right to reject the goods and treat the contract as repudiated”. [Sub-section (3)]

Example: Let us assume, Ram buys a new Maruti car from the show room and the car is guaranteed against any manufacturing defect under normal usage for a period of one year from the date of original purchase and in the event of any manufacturing defect there is a warranty for replacement of defective part if it cannot be properly repaired. After six months, Ram finds that the horn of the car is not working, here in this case he cannot terminate the contract. The manufacturer can either get it repaired or replaced it with a new horn. Ram gets a right to claim for damages, if any, suffered by him but not the right of repudiation.

Note: Whether a stipulation in a contract of sale is a condition or a warranty depends in each case on the construction of the contract. A stipulation may be a condition, though called a warranty in the contract. [Sub-section (4)]

3. Difference between conditions and warranties:

Basis of Difference	Condition	Warranty
Meaning	A condition is a stipulation essential to the main purpose of the contract.	A warranty is a stipulation collateral to the main purpose of the contract.

Right in case of breach	The aggrieved party can repudiate the contract or claim damages or both in the case of breach of condition.	The aggrieved party can claim only damages in case of breach of warranty.
Conversion of stipulations	A breach of condition may be treated as a breach of warranty.	A breach of warranty cannot be treated as a breach of condition.

4. When Condition to be treated as Warranty (Section 13)

Section 13 specifies cases where a breach of condition be treated as a breach of warranty. As a result of which the buyer loses his right to rescind the contract and can claim damages only.

In the following cases, a contract is not avoided even on account of a breach of a condition:

- i) Where the buyer altogether waives the performance of the condition. A party may for his own benefit, waive a stipulation. It should be a voluntary waiver by buyer.
- ii) Where the buyer elects to treat the breach of the conditions, as one of a warranty. That is to say, he may claim only damages instead of repudiating the contract. Here, the buyer has not waived the condition but decided to treat it as a warranty.
- iii) Where the contract is non-severable and the buyer has accepted either the whole goods or any part thereof. Acceptance means acceptance as envisaged in Section 72 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872.
- iv) Where the fulfilment of any condition or warranty is excused by law by reason of impossibility or otherwise.

5. Express and Implied Conditions and Warranties (Section 14-17)

'Conditions' and 'Warranties' may be either express or implied. They are "express" when the terms of the contract expressly state them. They are implied when, not being expressly provided for. Implied conditions are incorporated by law in the contract of sale.

Express conditions: Express conditions are those, which are agreed upon between the parties at the time of contract and are expressly provided in the contract.

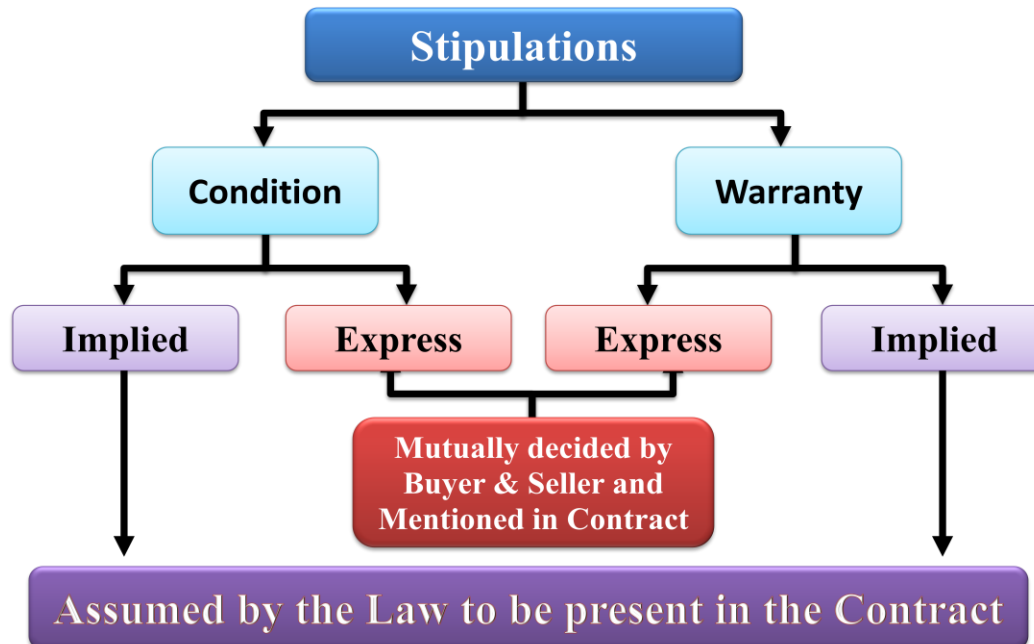
Implied conditions: Implied conditions on the other hand, are those, which are presumed by law to be present in the contract. It should be noted that an implied condition may be negated or waived by an express agreement.

Express Warranties: Express warranties are those, which are agreed upon between the parties at the time of contract and are expressly provided in the contract.

Implied Warranties: It is a warranty which the law implies into the contract of sale. In other words, it is the stipulation which has not been included in the contract of sale in

express words. But the law presumes that the parties have incorporated it into their contract. It will be interesting to know that implied warranties are read into every contract of sale unless they are expressly excluded by the express agreement of the parties.

Note: These may also be excluded by the course of dealings between the parties or by usage of trade (Section 62).



Implied Conditions:

1. Condition as to title [Section 14(a)]: In every contract of sale, unless there is an agreement to the contrary, the first implied condition on the part of the seller is that

- i) in case of a sale, he has a right to sell the goods, and
- ii) in the case of an agreement to sell, he will have right to sell the goods at the time when the property is to pass.

In simple words, the condition implied is that the seller has the right to sell the goods at the time when the property is to pass. If the seller's title turns out to be defective, the buyer must return the goods to the true owner and recover the price from the seller.

Example: A purchased a tractor from B who had no title to it. After 2 months, the true owner spotted the tractor and demanded it from A. Held that A was bound to hand over the tractor to its true owner and that A could sue B, the seller without title, for the recovery of the purchase price.

2. Sale by description [Section 15]: Where there is a contract of sale of goods by description, there is an implied condition that the goods shall correspond with the description. This rule is based on the principle that "if you contract to sell peas, you cannot compel the buyer to take beans." The buyer is not bound to accept and pay for the goods which are not in accordance with the description of goods.

Thus, it has to be determined whether the buyer has undertaken to purchase the goods by their description, i.e., whether the description was essential for identifying the

goods where the buyer had agreed to purchase. If that is required and the goods tendered do not correspond with the description, it would be breach of condition entitling the buyer to reject the goods.

It is a condition which goes to the root of the contract and the breach of it entitles the buyer to reject the goods whether the buyer is able to inspect them or not.

Example: A at Kolkata sells to B twelve bags of "waste silk" on its way from Murshidabad to Kolkata. There is an implied condition that the silk shall be such as is known in the market as "Waste Silk". If it not, B is entitled to reject the goods.

Example: A ship was contracted to be sold as "copper-fastened vessel" but actually it was only partly copper-fastened. Held that goods did not correspond to description and hence could be returned or if buyer took the goods, he could claim damages for breach.

The Act, however, does not define 'description'.

- i) where the class or kind to which the goods belong has been specified, e.g., 'Egyptian cotton', "java sugar", etc., and
- ii) where the goods have been described by certain characteristics essential to their identification, e.g., jute bales of specified shipment, steel of specific dimension, etc.

3. Sale by sample [Section 17]: In a contract of sale by sample, there is an implied condition that,

- i) the bulk shall correspond with the sample in quality;
- ii) the buyer shall have a reasonable opportunity of comparing the bulk with the sample,

Example: In a case of sale by sample of two parcels of wheat, the seller allowed the buyer an inspection of the smaller parcel but not of the larger parcel. In this case, it was held that the buyer was entitled to refuse to take the parcels of wheat.

The goods shall be free from any defect rendering them un-merchantable, which would not be apparent on reasonable examination of the sample. This condition is applicable only with regard to defects, which could not be discovered by an ordinary examination of the goods. If the defects are latent, then the buyer can avoid the contract. This simply means that the goods shall be free from any latent defect i.e. a hidden defect.

Example: A company sold certain shoes made of special sole by sample for the French Army. The shoes were found to contain paper not discoverable by ordinary inspection. Held, the buyer was entitled to the refund of the price plus damages.

4. Sale by sample as well as by description [Section 15]: Where the goods are sold by sample as well as by description the implied condition is that the bulk of the goods supplied shall correspond both with the sample and the description. In case the goods correspond with the sample but not with description or vice versa or both, the buyer can repudiate the contract.

Example: A agreed with B to sell certain oil described as refined sunflower oil, warranted only equal to sample. The goods tendered were equal to sample but contained a mixture of hemp oil. B can reject the goods.

5. Condition as to quality or fitness [Section 16(1)]: Ordinarily, there is no implied condition as to the quality or fitness of the goods sold for any particular purpose.

However, the condition as to the reasonable fitness of goods for a particular purpose may be implied if the buyer had made known to the seller the purpose of his purchase and relied upon the skill and judgment of the seller to select the best goods and the seller has ordinarily been dealing in those goods. This implied condition will not apply if the goods have been sold under a trademark or a patent name.

There is implied condition of the part of the seller that the goods supplied shall be reasonably fit for the purpose for which the buyer wants them, provided the following conditions are fulfilled:

- i) The buyer should have made known to the seller the particular purpose for which goods are required.
- ii) The buyer should rely on the skill and judgement of the seller.
- iii) The goods must be of a description dealt in by the seller, whether he be a manufacturer or not.

In some cases, the purpose may be ascertained from the conduct of the parties or from the nature of the goods sold. Where the goods can be used for only one purpose, the buyer need not tell the seller the purpose for which he requires the goods.

Example: 'A' bought a set of false teeth from 'B', a dentist. But the set was not fit for 'A's mouth. 'A' rejected the set of teeth and claimed the refund of price. It was held that 'A' was entitled to do so as the only purpose for which he wanted the set of teeth was not fulfilled.

As a general rule, it is the duty of the buyer to examine the goods thoroughly before he buys them in order to satisfy himself that the goods will be suitable for his purpose for which he is buying them. This is known as rule of caveat emptor which means "Let the buyer beware".

Example: 'A' went to 'B's shop and asked for a 'Merit' sewing machine. 'B' gave 'A' the same and 'A' paid the price. 'A' relied on the trade name of the machine rather than on the skill and judgement of the seller 'B'. In this case, there is no implied condition as to fitness of the machine for buyer's particular purpose.

6. Condition as to Merchantability [Section 16(2)]: Where goods are bought by description from a seller who deals in goods of that description (whether he is the manufacturer or producer or not), there is an implied condition that the goods shall be of merchantable quality.

There are two requirements for this condition to apply:

- i) Goods should be bought by description.
- ii) The seller should be a dealer in goods of that description.

Provided that, if the buyer has examined the goods, there shall be no implied condition as regards defects which such examination ought to have revealed.

The expression "merchantable quality", though not defined, nevertheless connotes goods of such a quality and in such a condition a man of ordinary prudence would accept them as goods of that description. It does not imply any legal right or legal title to sell.

Example: If a person orders motor horns from a manufacturer of horns, and the horns supplied are scratched and damaged owing to bad packing, he is entitled to reject them as unmerchantable.

Example: A bought a black velvet cloth from C and found it to be damaged by white ants. Held, the condition as to merchantability was broken.

7. Condition as to wholesomeness: In the case of eatables and provisions, in addition to the implied condition as to merchantability, there is another implied condition that the goods shall be wholesome.

Example: A supplied F with milk. The milk contained typhoid germs. F's wife consumed the milk and was infected and died. Held, there was a breach of condition as to fitness and A was liable to pay damages.

Implied Warranties:

1. Warranty as to undisturbed possession [Section 14(b)]: An implied warranty that the buyer shall have and enjoy quiet possession of the goods. That is to say, if the buyer having got possession of the goods, is later on disturbed in his possession, he is entitled to sue the seller for the breach of the warranty.

Example: X buys a laptop from Y. After the purchase, X spends some money on its repair and uses it for some time. Unknown to the parties, it turns out that the laptop was stolen and was taken from X and delivered to its rightful owner. Y shall be held responsible for a breach and X is entitled to damages of not only the price but also the cost of repairs.

2. Warranty as to non-existence of encumbrances [Section 14(c)]: An implied warranty that the goods shall be free from any charge or encumbrance in favour of any third party not declared or known to the buyer before or at the time the contract is entered into.

Example: A pledges his car with C for a loan of Rs. 15,000 and promises him to give its possession the next day. A, then sells the car immediately to B, who purchased it on good faith, without knowing the fact. B, may either ask A to clear the loan or himself may pay the money and then, file a suit against A for recovery of the money with interest.

3. Warranty as to quality or fitness by usage of trade [Section 16(3)]: An implied warranty as to quality or fitness for a particular purpose may be annexed or attached by the usage of trade. Regarding implied condition or warranty as to the quality or fitness for any particular purpose of goods supplied, the rule is 'let the buyer beware' i.e., the seller is under no duty to reveal unflattering truths about the goods sold, but this rule has certain exceptions.

Example: A drug was sold through an auction and according to the usage of trade. It was to disclose in advance any sea-damage, otherwise, it will be taken as a breach of warranty if no such disclosure has been made and the goods found to be defective.

4. Disclosure of dangerous nature of goods: Where the goods are dangerous in nature and the buyer is ignorant of the danger, the seller must warn the buyer of the probable danger. If there is a breach of warranty, the seller may be liable in damages.

Example: a person X purchases a bottle of disinfectant from a person Y. Y knows that the cap of the bottle is defective or cheap and if opened by a novice without care, it may spill and result in partial burning or other damages of the person. When X opens the bottle, he is injured. In this case, X is liable in damages to Y as Y should have been duly warned of the probable danger.

6. Caveat Emptor

The doctrine 'Caveat Emptor' means 'let the buyer beware'. When sellers display their goods in the open market, it is for the buyers to make a proper selection or choice of the goods. If the goods turn out to be defective, he cannot hold the seller liable. The seller is in no way responsible for the bad selection of the buyer. The seller is not bound to disclose the defects in the goods which he is selling.

It is the duty of the buyer to satisfy himself before buying the goods that the goods will serve the purpose for which they are being bought. If the goods turn out to be defective or do not serve his purpose or if he depends on his own skill or judgment, the buyer cannot hold the seller responsible.

The rule of Caveat Emptor is laid down in the Section 16, which states that, "subject to the provisions of this Act or of any other law for the time being in force, there is no implied warranty or condition as to the quality or fitness for any particular purpose of goods supplied under a contract of sale".

Following are the conditions to be satisfied:

1. if the buyer had made known to the seller the purpose of his purchase, and
2. the buyer relied on the seller's skill and judgement, and
3. seller's business to supply goods of that description (Section 16).

Example: A sold pigs to B. These pigs being infected, caused typhoid to other healthy pigs of the buyer. It was held that the seller was not bound to disclose that the pigs were unhealthy. The rule of the law being "Caveat Emptor".

Example: A purchases a horse from B. A needed the horse for riding but he did not mention this fact to B. The horse is not suitable for riding but is suitable only for being driven in the carriage. Caveat emptor rule applies here and so A can neither reject the horse nor can claim compensation from B.

Exceptions to the Rule of Caveat Emptor

1. Fitness as to quality or use: Where the buyer makes known to the seller the particular purpose for which the goods are required, so as to show that he relies on the seller's skill or judgment and the goods are of a description which is in the course of seller's business to supply, it is the duty of the seller to supply such goods as are reasonably fit for that purpose.

Example: An order was placed for some trucks to be used for heavy traffic in a hilly country. The trucks supplied by the seller were unfit for this purpose and broke down. There is a breach of condition as to fitness.

In Priest vs. Last, P, a draper, purchased a hot water bottle from a retail chemist, P asked the chemist if it would stand boiling water. The Chemist told him that the bottle was meant to hold hot water. The bottle burst when hot water was poured into it and

injured his wife. It was held that the chemist shall be liable to pay damages to P, as he knew that the bottle was purchased for the purpose of being used as a hot water bottle.

Where the article can be used for only one particular purpose, the buyer need not tell the seller the purpose for which he required the goods. But where the article can be used for a number of purposes, the buyer should tell the seller the purpose for which he requires the goods, if he wants to make the seller responsible.

In **Bombay Burma Trading Corporation Ltd. vs. Aga Muhammad**, timber was purchased for the express purpose of using it as railways sleepers and when it was found to be unfit for the purpose, the Court held that the contract could be avoided.

2. Goods purchased under patent or brand name: In case where the goods are purchased under its patent name or brand name, there is no implied condition that the goods shall be fit for any particular purpose [Section 16(1)].

3. Goods sold by description: Where the goods are sold by description there is an implied condition that the goods shall correspond with the description [Section 15]. If it is not so, then seller is responsible.

4. Goods of Merchantable Quality: Where the goods are bought by description from a seller who deals in goods of that description there is an implied condition that the goods shall be of merchantable quality. The rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable. But where the buyer has examined the goods, this rule shall apply if the defects were such which ought to have not been revealed by ordinary examination [Section 16(2)].

5. Sale by sample: Where the goods are bought by sample, this rule of Caveat Emptor does not apply if the bulk does not correspond with the sample [Section 17].

6. Goods by sample as well as description: Where the goods are bought by sample as well as description, the rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable in case the goods do not correspond with both the sample and description or either of the condition [Section 15].

7. Trade Usage: An implied warranty or condition as to quality or fitness for a particular purpose may be annexed by the usage of trade and if the seller deviates from that, this rule of Caveat Emptor is not applicable [Section 16(3)].

Example: In readymade garment business, there is an implied condition by usage of trade that the garments shall be reasonably fit on the buyer.

8. Seller actively conceals a defect or is guilty of fraud: Where the seller sells the goods by making some misrepresentation or fraud and the buyer relies on it or when the seller actively conceals some defect in the goods so that the same could not be discovered by the buyer on a reasonable examination, then the rule of Caveat Emptor will not apply. In such a case the buyer has a right to avoid the contract and claim damages.

Important Notes:**Unit 3 : Transfer of Ownership and Delivery of Goods****Unit
Overview**

- + **Passing of Property**
- + **Risk Prima Facie Passes with Property**
- + **Transfer of Title by Non Owner**
- + **Rules Regarding Performance of the Contract of Sale**

1. Passing of Property (Sections 18 – 26)

Passing or transfer of property constitutes the most important element and factor to decide legal rights and liabilities of sellers and buyers. Passing of property implies passing of ownership. If the property has passed to the buyer, the risk in the goods sold is that of buyer and not of seller, though the goods may still be in the seller's possession.

The rules regarding transfer of property in goods from the seller to the buyer depend on two basic factors:

A. Identification of Goods: Section 18 provides that where there is a contract of sale for unascertained goods, the property in goods cannot pass to the buyer unless and until the goods are ascertained. The buyer can get the ownership right on the goods only when the goods are specific and ascertained.

B. Intentions of parties: The property in goods is transferred to the buyer at such time as the parties to the contract intend it to be transferred. [section 19(1)]

Section 19(2) further provides that for the purpose of ascertaining the intention of the parties regard shall be:



- i) To the terms of the contract
- ii) To the conduct of the parties and
- iii) To the circumstances of the case

There are four primary rules that govern the passing of property: –

1. Specific or Ascertained Goods
2. Passing of Unascertained Goods
3. Goods sent on approval or “on sale or return”
4. Transfer of property in case of reservation of the right to disposal

1. Property (Specific or ascertained goods) passes when intended to pass (Section 19):

(1) Where there is a contract for the sale of specific or ascertained goods, the property is transferred to the buyer at such time as the parties intend it to be transferred.

(2) For the purpose of ascertaining the intention of the parties, regard shall be had to the terms of the contract, the conduct of the parties and the circumstances of the case.

(3) Unless a different intention appears, the rules contained in Sections 20 to 24 are rules for ascertaining the intention of the parties as to the time at which the property in the goods is to pass to the buyer.

A) Specific goods in a deliverable state (Section 20): Where there is an unconditional contract for the sale of specific goods in a deliverable state, the property in the goods passes to the buyer when the contract is made, and it is immaterial whether the time of payment of the price or the time of delivery of the goods, or both, is postponed.

Example: X goes into a shop and buys a television and asks the shopkeeper for its home delivery. The shopkeeper agrees to do it. The television immediately becomes the property of X.

B) Specific goods to be put into a deliverable state (Section 21): Where there is a contract for the sale of specific goods and the seller is bound to do something to the goods for the purpose of putting them into a deliverable state, the property does not pass until such thing is done and the buyer has notice thereof.

Example: Peter buys a laptop from an electronics store and asks for a home delivery. The shopkeeper agrees to it. However, the laptop does not have a Windows operating system installed. The shopkeeper promises to install it and call Peter before making the delivery. In this case, the property transfers to Peter only after the shopkeeper has installed the OS making the laptop ready for delivery and intimated the buyer about it.

C) Specific goods in a deliverable state, when the seller has to do anything thereto in order to ascertain price (Section 22): Where there is a contract for the sale of specific goods in a deliverable state, but the seller is bound to weigh, measure, test or do some other act or thing with reference to the goods for the purpose of ascertaining the price, the property does not pass until such act or thing is done and the buyer has notice thereof.

Example: A sold carpets to the Company which were required to be laid. The carpet was delivered to the company's premises but was stolen before it could be laid. It was held that the carpet was not in deliverable state as it was not laid, which was part of the contract and hence, the property had not passed to the buyer company.

2. Goods must be ascertained (Section 18):

Where there is a contract for the sale of unascertained goods, no property in the goods is transferred to the buyer unless and until the goods are ascertained.

The rules in respect of passing of property of unascertained goods are as follows:

A) Sale of unascertained goods by description [Section 23(1)]: Where there is a contract for the sale of unascertained or future goods by description and goods of that description and in a deliverable state are unconditionally appropriated to the contract, either by the seller with the assent of the buyer or by the buyer with the assent of the seller, the property in the goods thereupon passes to the buyer. Such assent may be express or implied and may be given either before or after the appropriation is made.

B) Delivery to the carrier [Section 23(2)]: Where, in pursuance of the contract, the seller delivers the goods to the buyer or to a carrier or other bailee (whether named by the buyer or not) for the purpose of transmission to the buyer, and does not reserve the right of disposal, he is deemed to have unconditionally appropriated the goods to the contract.

Example: A bill of lading of railway parcel is made out in the name of the buyer and is sent to him, the ownership in the goods passes from the seller to the buyer. In case the goods are subjected to accidental loss or by theft, the seller will not be liable.

Example: M places an order for book with a book seller in Mumbai. He asks him to send the book by courier. Payment of the book was to be made by cheque. The seller sends the book by courier. The book is lost in the way. The buyer to bear the loss.

Analysis of section 23:

Sale of unascertained goods and Appropriation: Appropriation of goods involves selection of goods with the intention of using them in performance of the contract and with the mutual consent of the seller and the buyer.

The essentials are:

- (1) There is a contract for the sale of unascertained or future goods.
- (2) The goods should conform to the description and quality stated in the contract.
- (3) The goods must be in a deliverable state.
- (4) The goods must be unconditionally (as distinguished from an intention to appropriate) appropriated to the contract either by delivery to the buyer or his agent or the carrier.
- (5) The appropriation must be made by:
 - (a) the seller with the assent of the buyer; or

(b) the buyer with the assent of the seller.

(6) The assent may be express or implied.

(7) The assent may be given either before or after appropriation.

3. Goods sent on approval or "on sale or return" (Section 24)

When goods are delivered to the buyer on approval or "on sale or return" or other similar terms, the property therein passes to the buyer-

A) when he signifies his approval or acceptance to the seller or does any other act adopting the transaction;

B) if he does not signify his approval or acceptance to the seller but retains the goods without giving notice of rejection, then, if a time has been fixed for the return of the goods, on the expiration of such time, and, if no time has been fixed, on the expiration of a reasonable time; or

C) he does something to the good which is equivalent to accepting the goods e.g. he pledges or sells the goods.

Example: P brought a musical instrument from a musical shop on a condition that he will purchase it, if he likes that instrument. After a week he has informed the shop owner that he has agreed to purchase the musical instrument. The ownership is transferred when he has decided to purchase the instrument as his own.

A buyer under a contract on the basis of 'sale or return' is deemed to have exercised his option when he does any act exercising domination over the goods showing an unequivocal intention to buy, example, if he pledges the goods with a third party. Failure or inability to return the goods to the seller does not necessarily imply selection to buy.

Example: 'A' delivered some jewellery to 'B' on sale or return basis. 'B' pledged the jewellery with 'C'. It was held that the ownership of the jewellery had been transferred to 'B' as he had adopted the transaction by pledging the jewellery with 'C'. In this case, 'A' has no right against 'C'. He can only recover the price of the jewellery from 'B'.

Example: A sends to B a water motor on approval or return in March, 2020. B to return it after trial in August, 2020. The water motor has not been returned within a reasonable time, and therefore, A is not bound to accept it and B must pay the price.

4. Sale for cash only or Return:

It may be noted that where the goods have been delivered by a person on "sale or return" on the terms that the goods were to remain the property of the seller till they are paid for, the property therein does not pass to the buyer until the terms are complied with, i.e., cash is paid for.

Example: 'A' delivered his jewellery to 'B' on sale for cash only or return basis. It was expressly provided in the contract that the jewellery shall remain 'A's property until the price is paid. Before the payment of the price, 'B' pledged the jewellery with 'C'. It was held that at the time of pledge, the ownership was not transferred to 'B'. Thus, the pledge was not valid and 'A' could recover the jewellery from 'C'.

5. Reservation of right of disposal (Section 25)

(1) Where there is a contract for the sale of specific goods or where goods are subsequently appropriated to the contract, the seller may, by the terms of the contract

or appropriation, reserve the right of disposal of the goods until certain conditions are fulfilled. In such a case, notwithstanding the delivery of the goods to a buyer, or to a carrier or other bailee for the purpose of transmission to the buyer, the property in the goods does not pass to the buyer until the conditions imposed by the seller are fulfilled.

(2) Where goods are shipped or delivered to a railway administration for carriage by railway and by the bill of lading or railway receipts, as the case may be, the goods are deliverable to the order of the seller or his agent, the seller is prima facie deemed to reserve the right of disposal.

(3) Where the seller of goods draws on the buyer for the price and transmits to the buyer the bill of exchange together with the bill of lading or, as the case may be, the railway receipt, to secure acceptance or payment of the bill of exchange, the buyer is bound to return the bill of lading or the railway receipt if he does not honour the bill of exchange; and, if he wrongfully retains the bill of lading or the railway receipt, the property in the goods does not pass to him.

Analysis:

This section preserves the right of disposal of goods to secure that the price is paid before the property in goods passes to the buyer.

Where there is contract of sale of specific goods or where the goods have been subsequently appropriated to the contract, the seller may, by the terms of the contract or appropriation, as the case may be, reserve the right to dispose of the goods, until certain conditions have been fulfilled. In such a case in spite of the fact that the goods have already been delivered to the buyer or to a carrier or other bailee for the purpose of transmitting the same to the buyer, the property therein will not pass to the buyer till the condition imposed, if any, by the seller has been fulfilled.

Example: X sends furniture to a company by a truck and instructs the driver not to deliver the furniture to the company until the payment is made by company to him. The property passes only when the payment is made.

Circumstances under which the right to disposal may be reserved:

In the following circumstances, seller is presumed to have reserved the right of disposal:

- i) If the goods are shipped or delivered to a railway administration for carriage and by the bill of lading or railway receipt, as the case may be, the goods are deliverable to the order of the seller or his agent, then the seller will be prima facie deemed to have reserved to the right of disposal.
- ii) Where the seller draws a bill on the buyer for the price and sends to him the bill of exchange together with the bill of lading or (as the case may be) the railway receipt to secure acceptance or payment thereof, the buyer must return the bill of lading, if he does not accept or pay the bill.

And if he wrongfully retains the bill of lading or the railway receipt, the property in the goods does not pass to him.

It should be noted that Section 25 deals with "conditional appropriation" as distinguished from 'unconditional appropriation' dealt with under Section 23 (2).

2. Risk Prima Facie Passes with Property (Section 26)

The owner of goods must bear the loss or damage of goods unless otherwise is agreed to. Under Section 26 of the Sale of Goods Act, unless otherwise agreed, the goods remain at the seller's risk until property therein has passed to the buyer. After that event they are at the buyer's risk, whether delivery has been made or not.

The passing of RISK



The aforesaid rule is, however, subject to two qualifications:

- i) If delivery has been delayed by the fault of the seller or the buyer, the goods shall be at the risk of the party in default, as regards loss which might not have arisen but for the default.
- ii) The duties and liabilities of the seller or the buyer as bailee of goods for the other party remain unaffected even when the risk has passed generally.

Example: A bids for an antique painting at a sale by auction. After the bid, when the auctioneer struck his hammer to signify acceptance of the bid, he hit the antique which gets damaged. The loss will have to be borne by the seller, because the ownership of goods has not yet passed from the seller to the buyer.

Example: A contracted to sell 100 bales of cotton to B to be delivered in February. B took the delivery of the part of the cotton but made a default in accepting the remaining bales. Consequently, the cotton becomes unfit for use. The loss will have to be borne by the buyer. It should, however, be remembered that the general rule shall not affect the duties or liabilities of either seller or buyer as a bailee of goods for the other, even when the risk has passed.

As noted above, the risk (i.e., the liability to bear the loss in case property is destroyed, damaged or deteriorated) passes with ownership. The parties may, however, agree to the contrary. For instance, the parties may agree that risk will pass sometime after or before the property has passed from the seller to the buyer.

3. Transfer of Title by Non Owners (Sections 27 – 30)

Sale by person not the owner (Section 27): Subject to the provisions of this Act and of any other law for the time being in force, where goods are sold by a person who is not the owner thereof and who does not sell them under the authority or with the consent of the owner, the buyer acquires no better title to the goods than the seller had, unless the owner of the goods is by his conduct precluded from denying the seller's authority to sell.

Provided that, where a mercantile agent is, with the consent of the owner, in possession of the goods or of a document of title to the goods, any sale made by him, when acting in the ordinary course of business of a mercantile agent, shall be as valid as if he were expressly authorised by the owner of the goods to make the same;

provided that the buyer acts in good faith and has not at the time of the contract of sale notice that the seller has no authority to sell.

Analysis:

In general, the seller can sell only such goods of which he is the absolute owner. But sometimes a person may sell goods of which he is not the owner, then the question arises as to what is the position of the buyer who has bought the goods by paying price. The general rule regarding the transfer of title is that the seller cannot transfer to the buyer of goods a better title than he himself has. If the seller is not the owner of goods, then the buyer also will not become the owner i.e. the title of the buyer shall be the same as that of the seller.

This rule is expressed in the Latin maxim "Nemo dat quod non habet" which means that no one can give what he has not got.

Example: If A sells some stolen goods to B, who buys them in good faith, B will get no title to that and the true owner has a right to get back his goods from B.

Example: P, the hirer of vehicle under a hire purchase agreement, sells them to Q. Q, though a bona fide purchaser, does not acquire the ownership in the vehicle. At the most he acquires the same right as that of the hirer.

If this rule is enforced rigidly then the innocent buyers may be put to loss in many cases. Therefore, to protect the interests of innocent buyers, a number of exceptions have been provided to this rule.

Exceptions: In the following cases, a non-owner can convey better title to the bona fide purchaser of goods for value.

1. Sale by a Mercantile Agent: A sale made by a mercantile agent of the goods for document of title to goods would pass a good title to the buyer in the following circumstances; namely;

- i) If he was in possession of the goods or documents with the consent of the owner;
- ii) If the sale was made by him when acting in the ordinary course of business as a mercantile agent; and
- iii) If the buyer had acted in good faith and has at the time of the contract of sale, no notice of the fact that the seller had no authority to sell (Proviso to Section 27).
- iv) Mercantile Agent means an agent having in the customary course of business as such agent authority either to sell goods, or to consign goods for the purposes of sale, or to buy goods, or to raise money on the security of goods [Section 2(9)].

2. Sale by one of the joint owners (Section 28): If one of several joint owners of goods has the sole possession of them by permission of the co-owners, the property in the goods is transferred to any person who buys them from such joint owner in good faith and has not at the time of the contract of sale notice that the seller has no authority to sell.

Example: A, B, & C are three brothers and joint owners of a T.V and VCR and with the consent of B and C, the VCR was kept in possession of A. A sells the T.V and VCR to P who buys it in good faith and without notice that A had no authority to sell. P gets a good title to VCR and TV.

3. Sale by a person in possession under voidable contract: A buyer would acquire a good title to the goods sold to him by a seller who had obtained possession of the goods under a contract voidable on the ground of coercion, fraud, misrepresentation or undue influence provided that the contract had not been rescinded until the time of the sale (Section 29).

Example: X fraudulently obtains a diamond ring from Y. This contract is voidable at the option of Y. But before the contract could be terminated, X sells the ring to Z, an innocent purchaser. Z gets the good title and Y cannot recover the ring from Z even if the contract is subsequently set aside.

4. Sale by one who has already sold the goods but continues in possession thereof: If a person has sold goods but continues to be in possession of them or of the documents of title to them, he may sell them to a third person, and if such person obtains the delivery thereof in good faith and without notice of the previous sale, he would have good title to them, although the property in the goods had passed to the first buyer earlier. A pledge or other disposition of the goods or documents of title by the seller in possession are equally valid [Section 30(1)].

Example: During IPL matches, P buys a TV set from R. R agrees to deliver the same to P after some days. In meanwhile R sells the same to S, at a higher price, who buys in good faith and without knowledge about the previous sale. S gets a good title.

5. Sale by buyer obtaining possession before the property in the goods has vested in him: Where a buyer with the consent of the seller obtains possession of the goods before the property in them has passed to him, he may sell, pledge or otherwise dispose of the goods to a third person, and if such person obtains delivery of the goods in good faith and without notice of the lien or other right of the original seller in respect of the goods, he would get a good title to them [Section 30(2)].

However, a person in possession of goods under a 'hire-purchase' agreement which gives him only an option to buy is not covered within the section unless it amounts to a sale.

Example: A took a car from B on this condition that A would pay a monthly instalment of Rs. 5,000 as hire charges with an option to purchase it by payment of Rs. 1,00,000 in 24 instalments. After the payment of few instalments, A sold the car to C. B can recover the car from C since A had neither bought the car, nor had agreed to buy the car. He had only an option to buy the car.

6. Effect of Estoppel: Where the owner is estopped by the conduct from denying the seller's authority to sell, the transferee will get a good title as against the true owner. But before a good title by estoppel can be made, it must be shown that the true owner had actively suffered or held out the other person in question as the true owner or as a person authorized to sell the goods.

Example: 'A' said to 'B', a buyer, in the presence of 'C' that he (A) is the owner of the horse. But 'C' remained silent though the horse belonged to him. 'B' bought the horse from 'A'. Here the buyer (B) will get a valid title to the horse even though the seller (A) had no title to the horse.

7. Sale by an unpaid seller: Where an unpaid seller who had exercised his right of lien or stoppage in transit resells the goods, the buyer acquires a good title to the goods as against the original buyer [Section 54 (3)].

8. Sale under the provisions of other Acts:

- i) Sale by an Official Receiver or Liquidator of the Company.
- ii) Purchase of goods from a finder of goods will get a valid title under circumstances.
- iii) A sale by pawnee can convey a good title to the buyer.

4. Performance of the Contract of Sale (Sections 31 – 44)

The performance of a contract of sale implies delivery of goods by the seller and acceptance of the delivery of goods and payment of price for them by the buyer in accordance of the terms of the contract.

Definition of Delivery [Section 2(2)]: Delivery means voluntary transfer of possession from one person to another. For delivery, physical possession is not important. The buyer should be placed in a position so that he can exercise his right over the goods.

Thus, if the possession is taken through unfair means, there is no delivery of the goods. Delivery of goods sold may be made by doing anything which the parties agree, shall be treated as delivery or putting the goods in the possession of the buyer or of any person authorised to hold them on his behalf.

Delivery of goods is of three types:

- i) Actual Delivery
- ii) Symbolic delivery
- iii) Constructive Delivery

Duties of seller and buyer (Section 31): It is the duty of the seller to deliver the goods and of the buyer to accept and pay for them, in accordance with the terms of the contract of sale.

Payment and delivery are concurrent conditions (Section 32): Unless otherwise agreed, delivery of the goods and payment of the price are concurrent conditions, that is to say, the seller shall be ready and willing to give possession of the goods to the buyer in exchange for the price, and the buyer shall be ready and willing to pay the price in exchange for possession of the goods.

Rules Regarding Delivery of goods (Section 33-41)

1. Delivery (Section 33): Delivery of goods sold may be made by doing anything which the parties agree shall be treated as delivery or which has the effect of putting the goods in the possession of the buyer or of any person authorised to hold them on his behalf.

2. Effect of part delivery (Section 34): A delivery of part of goods, in progress of the delivery of the whole has the same effect, for the purpose of passing the property in such goods, as a delivery of the whole; but a delivery of part of the goods, with an intention of severing it from the whole, does not operate as a delivery of the remainder.

Example: Certain goods lying at wharf were sold in a lot. The seller instructed the wharfinger to deliver them to the buyer who had paid for them and the buyer, thereafter, accepted them and took away part. Held, there was delivery of the whole.

3. Buyer to apply for delivery [Section 35]: Apart from any express contract, the seller of goods is not bound to deliver them until the buyer applies for delivery.

4. Place of delivery [Section 36(1)]: Whether it is for the buyer to take possession of the goods or for the seller to send them to the buyer is a question depending in each case on the contract, express or implied, between the parties. Apart from any such contract, goods sold are to be delivered at the place at which they are at the time of the sale, and goods agreed to be sold are to be delivered at the place at which they are at the time of the agreement to sell or if not then in existence, at the place at which they are manufactured or produced.

5. Time of delivery [Section 36(2)]: Where under the contract of sale, the seller is bound to send the goods to the buyer, but no time for sending them is fixed, the seller is bound to send them within a reasonable time.

6. Goods in possession of a third party [Section 36(3)]: Where the goods at the time of sale are in possession of a third person, there is no delivery unless and until such third person acknowledges to the buyer that he holds the goods on his behalf. Provided that nothing in this section shall affect the operation of the issue or transfer of any document of title to goods.

7. Time for tender of delivery [Section 36(4)]: Demand or tender of delivery may be treated as ineffectual unless made at a reasonable hour. What is reasonable hour is a question of fact.

8. Expenses for delivery [Section 36(5)]: The expenses of and incidental to putting the goods into a deliverable state must be borne by the seller in the absence of a contract to the contrary.

9. Delivery of wrong quantity [Section 37]:

- i) Where the seller delivers to the buyer a quantity of goods less than he contracted to sell, the buyer may reject them, but if the buyer accepts the goods so delivered he shall pay for them at the contract rate.
- ii) Where the seller delivers to the buyer a quantity of goods larger than he contracted to sell, the buyer may accept the goods included in the contract and reject the rest, or he may reject the whole. If the buyer accepts the whole of the goods so delivered, he shall pay for them at the contract rate.
- iii) Where the seller delivers to the buyer the goods he contracted to sell mixed with goods of a different description not included in the contract, the buyer may accept the goods which are in accordance with the contract and reject, or may reject the whole.
- iv) The provisions of this section are subject to any usage of trade, special agreement or course of dealing between the parties.

Example: A agrees to sell 100 quintals of wheat to B at Rs. 1,000 per quintal. A delivers 1,100 quintals. B may reject the whole lot or accept only 1,000 quintals and reject the rest or accept the whole lot and pay for them at the contract of sale.

10. Instalment deliveries (Section 38): Unless otherwise agreed, the buyer is not bound to accept delivery in instalments. The rights and liabilities in cases of delivery by instalments and payments thereon may be determined by the parties of contract.

11. Delivery to carrier [Section 39(1)]: Subject to the terms of contract, the delivery of the goods to the carrier for transmission to the buyer, is prima facie deemed to be delivery to the buyer.

12. Deterioration during transit (Section 40): Where goods are delivered at a distant place, the liability for deterioration necessarily incidental to the course of transit will fall on the buyer, though the seller agrees to deliver at his own risk.

Example: P sold to Q a certain quantity of iron rods which were to be sent by proper vessel. It was rusted before it reached the buyer. The rust of the rod was so minimal and was not effecting the merchantable quality and the deterioration was not necessarily incidental to its transmission. It was held that Q was bound to accept the goods.

13. Buyer's right to examine the goods (Section 41): Where goods are delivered to the buyer, who has not previously examined them, he is entitled to a reasonable opportunity of examining them in order to ascertain whether they are in conformity with the contract. Unless otherwise agreed, the seller is bound, on request, to afford the buyer a reasonable opportunity of examining the goods.

5. Rule related to Acceptance of Delivery of Goods (Section 42):

The buyer is deemed to have accepted the goods when he intimates to the seller that he has accepted them, or when the goods have been delivered to him and he does any act in relation to them which is inconsistent with the ownership of the seller, or when, after the lapse of a reasonable time, he retains the goods without intimating to the seller that he has rejected them.

Analysis:

Acceptance is deemed to take place when the buyer-

- i) intimates to the seller that he had accepted the goods; or
- ii) does any act to the goods, which is inconsistent with the ownership of the seller; or
- iii) retains the goods after the lapse of a reasonable time, without intimating to the seller that he has rejected them.

Buyer not bound to return rejected goods (Section 43): Unless otherwise agreed, where goods are delivered to the buyer and he refuses to accept them, having the right so to do, he is not bound to return them to the seller, but it is sufficient if he intimates to the seller that he refuses to accept them.

Liability of buyer for neglecting or refusing delivery of goods (Section 44): When the seller is ready and willing to deliver the goods and requests the buyer to take delivery, and the buyer does not within a reasonable time after such request take delivery of the goods, he is liable to the seller for any loss occasioned by his neglect or refusal to take delivery and also for a reasonable charge for the care and custody of the goods.

Provided further that nothing in this section shall affect the rights of the seller where the neglect or refusal of the buyer to take delivery amounts to a repudiation of the contract.

Important Notes:

Unit 4 : Unpaid Seller



- + Unpaid Seller
- + Rights of Unpaid Seller
 - Rights Against Goods
 - Rights Against Buyer
- + Remedies of Buyer Against the Seller
- + Rights of Buyer
- + Auction Sale

1. Unpaid Seller

A contract comprises of reciprocal promises. In a contract of sale, if seller is under an obligation to deliver goods, buyer has to pay for it. In case buyer fails or refuses to pay, the seller, as an unpaid seller, and shall have certain rights against Goods as well as Buyer.

According to Section 45(1) of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930, the seller of goods is deemed to be an 'Unpaid Seller' when-

- i) The whole of the price has not been paid or tendered and the seller had an immediate right of action for the price.

- ii) When a bill of exchange or other negotiable instrument has been received as conditional payment, and the condition on which it was received has not been fulfilled by reason of the dishonour of the instrument or otherwise.

The term 'seller' here includes any person who is in the position of a seller, as, for instance, an agent of the seller to whom the bill of lading has been endorsed, or a consignor or agent who has himself paid, or is directly responsible for, the price [Section 45(2)].

Example: X sold certain goods to Y for Rs. 50,000. Y paid Rs. 40,000 but fails to pay the balance. X is an unpaid seller.

Example: P sold some goods to R for Rs. 60,000 and received a cheque for a full price. On presentment, the cheque was dishonored by the bank. P is an unpaid seller.

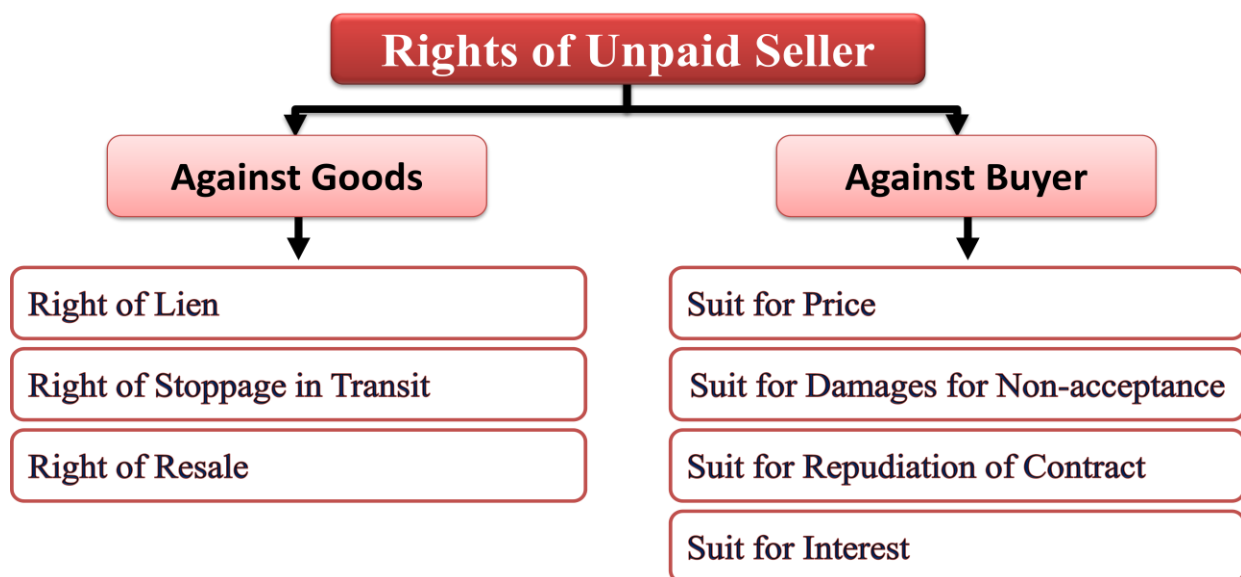
2. Rights of an Unpaid Seller (Section 46)

Subject to the provisions of this Act and of any law for the time being in force, notwithstanding that the property in the goods may have passed to the buyer, the unpaid seller of goods, as such, has by implication of law-

- i) a lien on the goods for the price while he is in possession of them;
- ii) in case of the insolvency of the buyer a right of stopping the goods in transit after he has parted with the possession of them;
- iii) a right of re-sale as limited by this Act. [Sub-section (1)]

Where the property in goods has not passed to the buyer, the unpaid seller has, in addition to his other remedies, a right of withholding delivery similar to and co-extensive with his rights of lien and stoppage in transit where the property has passed to the buyer. [Sub-section (2)]

An unpaid seller has been expressly given the rights against the goods as well as the buyer personally which are as under:



3. Right of Unpaid Seller against the Goods

1. Rights of lien (section 47 to 49): An unpaid seller has a right of lien on the goods for the price while he is in possession, until the payment or tender of the price of such goods. It is the right to retain the possession of the goods and refusal to deliver them to the buyer until the price due in respect of them is paid or tendered.

The unpaid seller's lien is a possessory lien i.e. the lien can be exercised as long as the seller remains in possession of the goods.

This right can be exercised by him in the following cases only:

- i) where goods have been sold without any stipulation of credit; (i.e., on cash sale)
- ii) where goods have been sold on credit but the term of credit has expired; or
- iii) where the buyer becomes insolvent.

Example: A sold certain goods to B for a price Rs. 50,000 and allowed him to pay the price within one month. B becomes insolvent during this period of credit. A, the unpaid seller, can exercise his right of lien.

Seller may exercise his right of lien even where he is in possession of the goods as agent or bailee for the buyer.

Termination of lien: However, the unpaid seller loses his right of lien under the following circumstances:

- i) When he delivers the goods to a carrier or other bailee for the purpose of transmission to the buyer without reserving the right of disposal of the goods.
- ii) Where the buyer or his agent lawfully obtains possession of the goods.
- iii) Where seller has waived the right of lien.
- iv) By Estoppel i.e., where the seller so conducts himself that he leads third parties to believe that the lien does not exist.

Exception: The unpaid seller of the goods, having a lien thereon, does not lose his lien by reason only that he has obtained a decree for the price of the goods.

Example: A, sold a car to B for Rs. 1,00,000 and delivered the same to the railways for the purpose of transmission to the buyer. The railway receipt was taken in the name of B and sent to B. Now A cannot exercise the right of lien.

2. Right of stoppage in transit (Section 50 to 52): The right of stoppage in transit means the right of stopping the goods while they are in transit, to regain the possession and to retain them till the full price is paid.

When the unpaid seller has parted with the goods to a carrier and the buyer has become insolvent, he can exercise this right of asking the carrier to return the goods back, or not to deliver the goods to the buyer.

This right is the extension of the right of lien because it entitles the seller to regain possession even when the seller has parted with the possession of the goods.

However, the right of stoppage in transit is exercised only when the following conditions are fulfilled:

- i) The seller must be unpaid.
- ii) He must have parted with the possession of goods.
- iii) The goods are in transit.

- iv) The buyer has become insolvent.
- v) The right is subject to provisions of the Act. [Section 50]

Example: B at Delhi, orders goods of A, at Mumbai. A consigns and forwards the goods to B. On arrival at Delhi, they are taken to B's warehouse and left there. B refuses to take these goods and stop payment. The goods are in transit and the unpaid seller can take them back.

Duration of transit: The goods are deemed to be in course of transit from the time when they are delivered to a carrier or other bailee for the purpose of transmission to the buyer, until the buyer or his agent in that behalf takes delivery of them from such carrier or other bailee.

When does the transit come to an end?

- i) The right of stoppage in transit is lost when transit comes to an end. Transit comes to an end in the following cases:
 - ii) When the buyer or other bailee obtains delivery.
 - iii) Buyer obtains delivery before the arrival of goods at destination. It is also called interception by the buyer which can be with or without the consent of the carrier.
 - iv) Where the carrier or other bailee acknowledges to the buyer or his agent that he holds the goods as soon as the goods are loaded on the ship, unless the seller has reserved the right of disposal of the goods.
 - v) If the carrier wrongfully refuses to deliver the goods to the buyer.
 - vi) Where goods are delivered to the carrier hired by the buyer, the transit comes to an end.
 - vii) Where the part delivery of the goods has been made to the buyer, the transit will come to an end for the remaining goods which are yet in the course of transmission.
 - viii) Where the goods are delivered to a ship chartered by the buyer, the transit comes to an end. [section 51]

How stoppage in transit is effected: There are two modes of stoppage in transit-

- i) By taking actual possession of goods.
- ii) By giving notice to the carrier not to deliver the goods.

Where the notice of stoppage in transit is given by the seller to the carrier or other bailee in possession of the goods, he shall re-deliver the goods to, or according to the directions of, the seller. The expenses of such re-delivery shall be borne by the seller.

Distinction between Right of Lien and Right of Stoppage in Transit

- i) The essence of a right of lien is to retain possession whereas the right of stoppage in transit is right to regain possession.
- ii) Seller should be in possession of goods under lien while in stoppage in transit (i) seller should have parted with the possession (ii) possession should be with a carrier & (iii) buyer has not acquired the possession.
- iii) Right of lien can be exercised even when the buyer is not insolvent but it is not the case with right of stoppage in transit.

- iv) Right of stoppage in transit begins when the right of lien ends. Thus, the end of the right of lien is the starting point of the right of stoppage in transit.
- v) Right of lien comes to an end as soon as the goods go out of the possession of the seller but the right of stopping in transit comes to an end as soon as the goods are delivered to the buyer.

Sometimes it is said that right of stopping the goods in transit is nothing but an extension of right of lien.

Effects of sub-sale or pledge by buyer (Section 53): The right of lien or stoppage in transit is not affected by the buyer selling or pledging the goods unless the seller has assented to it. This is based on the principle that a second buyer cannot stand in a better position than his seller. (The first buyer).

The right of stoppage is defeated if the buyer has transferred the document of title or pledges the goods to a sub- buyer in good faith and for consideration.

Example: A sold certain goods to B of Mumbai and the goods are handed over to railways for transmission to B. In the mean time, B sold these goods to C for consideration. B becomes insolvent. A can still exercise his right of stoppage in transit.

Exceptions where unpaid seller's right of lien and stoppage in transit are defeated:

- i) When the seller has assented to the sale, mortgage or other disposition of the goods made by the buyer.

Example: A entered into a contract to sell cartons in possession of a wharfinger to B and agreed with B that the price will be paid to A from the sale proceeds recovered from his customers. Now B sold goods to C and C duly paid to B. But anyhow B failed to make the payment to A. A wanted to exercise his right of lien and ordered the wharfinger not to make delivery to C. Held that the seller had assented to the resale of the goods by the buyer to the sub-buyers. As a result, A's right to lien is defeated (Mount D. F. Ltd. vs Jay & Jay (Provisions) Co. Ltd).

- ii) When a document of title to goods has been transferred to the buyer and the buyer transfers the documents to a person who has bought goods in good faith and for value i.e. for price, then, the proviso of sub-section (1) stipulates as follows:

- (a) If the last-mentioned transfer is by way of sale, right of lien or stoppage in transit is defeated, or
- (b) If the last mentioned transfer is by way of pledge, unpaid seller's right of lien or stoppage only be exercised, subject to the rights of the pledgee.

However, the pledgee may be required by the unpaid seller to use in the first instance, other goods or securities of the pledger available to him to satisfy his claims. [Sub-section (2)].

Effect of stoppage: The contract of sale is not rescinded when the seller exercises his right of stoppage in transit. The contract still remains in force and the buyer can ask for delivery of goods on payment of price.

3. Right of re-sale [Section 54]: The right of resale is a very valuable right given to an unpaid seller. In the absence of this right, the unpaid seller's other rights against the goods that is lien and the stoppage in transit would not have been of much use because these rights only entitled the unpaid seller to retain the goods until paid by the buyer.

The unpaid seller can exercise the right to re-sell the goods under the following conditions:

- i) Where the goods are of a perishable nature: In such a case, the buyer need not be informed of the intention of resale.
- ii) Where he gives notice to the buyer of his intention to re-sell the goods: If after the receipt of such notice the buyer fails within a reasonable time to pay or tender the price, the seller may resell the goods.

In such cases, on the resale of the goods, the seller is also entitled to:

(a) Recover the difference between the contract price and resale price, from the original buyer, as damages.

(b) Retain the profit if the resale price is higher than the contract price.

It may also be noted that the seller can recover damages and retain the profits only when the goods are resold after giving the notice of resale to the buyer. Thus, if the goods are resold by the seller without giving any notice to the buyer, the seller cannot recover the loss suffered on resale. Moreover, if there is any profit on resale, he must return it to the original buyer, i.e. he cannot keep such surplus with him [Section 54(2)].

- iii) **Where an unpaid seller who has exercised his right of lien or stoppage in transit resells the goods:** The subsequent buyer acquires the good title thereof as against the original buyer, despite the fact that the notice of re-sale has not been given by the seller to the original buyer.

- iv) **A re-sale by the seller where a right of re-sale is expressly reserved in a contract of sale:** Sometimes, it is expressly agreed between the seller and the buyer that in case the buyer makes default in payment of the price, the seller will resell the goods to some other person. In such cases, the seller is said to have reserved his right of resale, and he may resell the goods on buyer's default.

It may be noted that in such cases, the seller is not required to give notice of resale. He is entitled to recover damages from the original buyer even if no notice of resale is given.

- v) **Where the property in goods has not passed to the buyer:** The unpaid seller has in addition to his remedies a right of withholding delivery of the goods. This right is similar to lien and is called "quasi- lien".

4. Right of Unpaid Seller against the Buyer (Section 55 to 61)

Rights of unpaid seller against the buyer personally: An unpaid seller can enforce certain rights against the goods as well as against the buyer personally. Rights of unpaid seller against the buyer are otherwise known as seller's remedies for breach of contract of sale. The rights of the seller against the buyer personally are called rights in personam and are in addition to his rights against the goods.

1. Suit for price (Section 55):

Where under a contract of sale, the property in the goods has passed to the buyer and the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to pay for the goods according to the terms of the contract, the seller may sue him for the price of the goods. [Section 55(1)]

Where under a contract of sale, the price is payable on a certain day irrespective of delivery and the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to pay such price, the seller may sue him for the price although the property in the goods has not passed and the goods have not been appropriated to the contract. [Section 55(2)].

2. Suit for damages for non-acceptance (Section 56): Where the buyer wrongfully neglects or refuses to accept and pay for the goods, the seller may sue him for damages for non-acceptance. As regards measure of damages, Section 73 of the Indian Contract Act, 1872 applies in this case.

3. Repudiation of contract before due date (Section 60): Where the buyer repudiates the contract before the date of delivery, the seller may treat the contract as rescinded and sue damages for the breach. This is known as the 'rule of anticipatory breach of contract'.

4. Suit for interest [Section 61]: Where there is specific agreement between the seller and the buyer as to interest on the price of the goods from the date on which payment becomes due, the seller may recover interest from the buyer. If, however, there is no specific agreement to this effect, the seller may charge interest on the price when it becomes due from such day as he may notify to the buyer.

In the absence of a contract to the contrary, the Court may award interest to the seller in a suit by him at such rate as it thinks fit on the amount of the price from the date of the tender of the goods or from the date on which the price was payable.

5. Right of Buyer

1. Damages for non-delivery [Section 57]: Where the seller wrongfully neglects or refuses to deliver the goods to the buyer, the buyer may sue the seller for damages for non-delivery.

Example: 'A' a shoe manufacturer, agreed to sell 100 pairs of shoes to 'B' at the rate of ` 1050 per pair. 'A' knew that 'B' wanted the shoes for the purpose of further reselling them to 'C' at the rate of ` 1100/- per pair. On the due date of delivery, 'A' failed to deliver the shoes to 'B'. In consequence, 'B' could not perform his contract with 'C' for the supply of 100 pairs of shoes. In this case, 'B' can recover damages from 'A' at the rate of ` 50/- per pair (the difference between the contract price and resale price).

2. Suit for specific performance (Section 58): Where the seller commits of breach of the contract of sale, the buyer can appeal to the court for specific performance. The court can order for specific performance only when the goods are ascertained or specific.

This remedy is allowed by the court subject to these conditions

- i) The contract must be for the sale of specific and ascertained goods.
- ii) The power of the court to order specific performance is subject to provisions of Specific Relief Act of 1963.
- iii) It empowers the court to order specific performance where damages would not be an adequate remedy.

iv) It will be granted as remedy if goods are of special nature or are unique.

Example: 'A' agreed to sell a rare painting of Mughal period to 'B'. But on the due date of delivery, 'A' refused to sell the same. In this case, 'B' may file a suit against 'A' for obtaining an order from the Court to compel 'A' to perform the contract (i.e. to deliver the painting to 'B' at the agreed price).

3. Suit for breach of warranty (Section 59): Where there is breach of warranty on the part of the seller, or where the buyer elects to treat breach of condition as breach of warranty, the buyer is not entitled to reject the goods only on the basis of such breach of warranty. But he may –

- i) set up against the seller the breach of warranty in diminution or extinction of the price; or
- ii) sue the seller for damages for breach of warranty.

4. Repudiation of contract before due date (Section 60): Where either party to a contract of sale repudiates the contract before the date of delivery, the other may either treat the contract as subsisting and wait till the date of delivery, or he may treat the contract as rescinded and sue for damages for the breach.

5. Suit for interest: Nothing in this Act shall affect the right of the seller or the buyer to recover interest or special damages, in any case where by law interest or special damages may be recoverable, or to recover the money paid where the consideration for the payment of it has failed.

In the absence of a contract to the contrary, the court may award interest at such rate as it thinks fit on the amount of the price to the buyer in a suit by him for the refund of the price in a case of a breach of the contract on the part of the seller from the date on which the payment was made.

6. Auction Sale (Section 64)

An 'Auction Sale' is a mode of selling property by inviting bids publicly and the property is sold to the highest bidder. An auctioneer is an agent governed by the Law of Agency. When he sells, he is only the agent of the seller. He may, however, sell his own property as the principal and need not disclose the fact that he is so selling.

Legal Rules of Auction sale: Section 64 of the Sale of Goods Act, 1930 provides following rules to regulate the sale by auction:

- i) **Where goods are sold in lots:** Where goods are put up for sale in lots, each lot is prima facie deemed to be subject of a separate contract of sale.
- ii) **Completion of the contract of sale:** The sale is complete when the auctioneer announces its completion by the fall of hammer or in any other customary manner and until such announcement is made, any bidder may retract from his bid.
- iii) **Right to bid may be reserved:** Right to bid may be reserved expressly by or on behalf of the seller and where such a right is expressly reserved, but not otherwise, the seller or any one person on his behalf may bid at the auction.
- iv) **Where the sale is not notified by the seller:** Where the sale is not notified to be subject to a right to bid on behalf of the seller, it shall not be lawful for the seller

to bid himself or to employ any person to bid at such sale, or for the auctioneer knowingly to take any bid from the seller or any such person; and any sale contravening this rule may be treated as fraudulent by the buyer.

v) **Reserved price:** The sale may be notified to be subject to a reserve or upset price; and

vi) **Pretended bidding:** If the seller makes use of pretended bidding to raise the price, the sale is voidable at the option of the buyer.

Example: P sold a car by auction. It was knocked down to Q who was only allowed to take it away on giving a cheque for the price and signing an agreement that ownership should not pass until the cheque was cleared. In the meanwhile till the cheque was cleared, Q sold the car to R. It was held that the property was passed on the fall of the hammer and therefore R had a good title to the car. Both sale and sub sale are valid in favour of Q and R respectively.

6. Inclusion of Increase or Decrease of Taxes in Contract of Sale (Section 64A)

Where after a contract has been made but before it has been performed, tax revision takes place. Where tax is being imposed, increased, decreased or remitted in respect of any goods without any stipulations to the payment of tax, the parties would become entitled to read just the price of the goods accordingly. Following taxes are applied on the sale or purchase of goods:

- i) Any duty of customs or excise on goods,
- ii) Any tax on the sale or purchase of goods

The buyer would have to pay the increased price where the tax increases and may derive the benefit of reduction if taxes are curtailed. Thus, seller may add the increased taxes in the price. The effect of provision can, however, be excluded by an agreement to the contrary. It is open to the parties to stipulate anything regard to taxation.

Important Notes:
