

# Profit-Sharing Arrangements: Benefits for Stakeholders

**Devi Prabha A**

Assistant Professor, Department of Law, Presidency University, Bangalore, India,  
Email Id-deviprabha@presidencyuniversity.in

## ABSTRACT

Profit-sharing agreements are contracts between employers and workers or business partners that specify how earnings will be distributed in accordance with preset terms and circumstances. This abstract examines the idea of profit-sharing agreements with an emphasis on their goals, varieties, advantages, and legal implications. It looks at the crucial aspects to take into account while putting in place profit-sharing agreements, including eligibility requirements, mechanisms for allocating profits, and the effect on employee morale and output. The conclusion emphasises the potential benefits of profit-sharing in creating employee engagement, encouraging cooperation, and rewarding corporate excellence. The abstract also covers the keywords related to profit-sharing agreements.

## KEYWORDS

Arrangements, Business Partners, Distribution, Employees, Motivation, Profits, Productivity.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Profit-sharing agreements in certain nations may be founded on mezzanine instruments, which are neither common loans nor shares. Silent participations are one kind of such tool used in Germany. A quiet participation stille is described as such in the German Commercial Code HGB contract between the parties is known as participation. Limited-liability businesses have registration procedures for silent participations. An investor who participates in silence contributes money to the business. The gift may take the form of cash, assets, rights, or services. The ventures aim, the businesss goals, and the profit-sharing arrangement are spelt out in the informal articles of incorporation that the investor and the firm have agreed upon. an interest rate minimum. A silent shareholder has voting privileges and a rudimentary right to see the books of the corporation. A partnership arrangement is not a silent participation. Therefore, a quiet stakeholder has no obligations to creditors. The quiet shareholder and the corporation, on the other hand, could agree on subordination and/or how the silent shareholder shares in the companys losses [1]–[3].

The silent shareholder may assert a claim for its capital contribution, less his share of losses, in the case of bankruptcy. The second-largest bank in Germany, Commerzbank, accepted a capital infusion from the government rescue fund in an effort to stabilise its capital base after losses piled up in 2008. The €8.2 billion quiet contribution from SoFFin was used to boost Commerzbanks Tier 1 capital core capital. The Federal Republic received no official management authority or board memberships since the involvement was quiet, and it also prevented it from becoming a shareholder. Existing stockholders continued to possess shares of the bank, while the board of directors remained in place. Of course, de facto powers could not be disregarded. In accordance with the terms of the agreement with SoFFin, Commerzbank was not permitted to distribute any dividends in 2009 or 2010. The wages of management board members were capped, and bonuses for 2008 and 2009 would not be given.

## Chain Structures and Control

Pyramid structures and other control-enhancing devices may provide you the power to manage legal organizations with less money up front. A third-party research that the Commission commissioned looked into the ownership and control of businesses that are listed in the EU, as well as the variety and prevalence of legally permissible control-

enhancing mechanisms CEMs in such businesses. The research classified CEMs into 13 categories, ranging from cross-holdings and multiple voting rights to pyramid arrangements and shareholder's agreements.<sup>3</sup> Pyramid structures are the most significant and accessible kind of CEM in the EU, according to the research.

Pyramid structures link together many businesses. If each legal entity in the chain has received money from outside no controlling investors, the investor may control the final entity in the chain with a lesser capital investment. This is possible when one legal entity controls a second business, and the second entity controls a third one. External investors may provide money in the form of loans, mezzanine finance, or shareholders capital. Multiple iterations of the procedure are possible. The amount of money required by the investor to control the final business decreases the more times the procedure is performed [3], [4].

### **Risks Relating to Ownership Structure and Control**

The share ownership or control structure of the company may change as a result of one or more investors pulling out. The character of the company will alter, for instance, if one shareholder gains control by purchasing the shares of other shareholders. The company may also be impacted if its primary bank sells the firms loans to one or more other financial institutions. There are numerous common approaches to reduce these hazards. The issue of control is brought up by the usage of shares. The company should make sure that it has the necessary control structure both before and after a shareholder exits. Restrictions on share transfers. There may be limitations on the transfer of shares, for instance.

By staying private, the company may restrict the transferability of shares. It is more challenging for a shareholder to sell shares and more challenging for a prospective buyer to launch a hostile offer for them if there is no operating market. In addition, the articles of association of a privately held firm may, depending on the applicable legislation, impose further restrictions on the acquisition of shares. Alternatively, securities that are allowed to trade on a market that is tightly controlled must be readily transferrable. The primary shareholders of both publicly traded corporations and privately held businesses may choose not to sell the shares they own or to impose similar exit restrictions. Blimits on the transfer of debt claims. The company and a debt investor may, in theory, agree that the investor is not allowed to freely transfer his or her rights to a third party. However, in reality, few debt investors would agree to such risk-increasing limitations.

### **Counterparty Risks Agency in General**

The sale of a debt claim or shares may usually be against the interests of the company if the buyer is more likely to behave hostilely towards the company, is less likely to uphold its contractual duties to the company, or both. For instance, company culture may influence how the parties will act in the future. Reputational restrictions in Germany are likely to apply to a German bank doing business with German clients. In Germany, it has long-term interests. These reputational restrictions would be eliminated if the bank transferred its loan portfolio to, say, a Dallas-based financial institution since a Texas bank has almost no substantial long-term interests in the German market. The Texas banks corporate culture would also dictate that it strives for more immediate gains. Therefore, the client could desire to avoid having its obligations allocated in the first place. In terms of debt claims, a typical strategy to reduce this risk is to prohibit both the assignment of the whole contract and the transfer of any claims made in accordance with the contract. The latter would need a clear agreement to be prohibited. Unless the parties specifically agree differently, the primary rule of contract law is that a party may transfer its rights but not its responsibilities. Sometimes the contracting party either the contract as a whole or the rights and duties affixing to shares may have been granted the authority to transfer both its rights and liabilities.

### **Information and Reputational Risk**

One of the most crucial components of exit management is the management of information. Investors and stakeholders may take note of an investors leaving or the companys own activities. Effect of financial restrictions on leaving. The degree of exit flexibility affects how risky a company seems to investors, which has an impact on the companys ability to raise capital and its cost. Their impact is determined by the investors choices. For short-term investors whose assets are protected by the lock-up, lock-up provisions may indicate greater risk, but for long-term investors whose investments are not covered by the lock-up, they may indicate reduced risk. The availability of effective limits on the distribution of money to minority shareholders in a corporation with a controlling shareholder might signify lesser risk to shareholders than the unfettered transferability of shares.

Exits impact on how well financial instruments are seen as being. In addition, whether and how current investors transfer their claims might have an impact on the perceived value of financial instruments issued by the company. A debt claims selling at a significant discount may be an indicator that it is of low quality. When investors who are seen as a reputable source of information are the sellers, the effect is greater. Insiders sales provide insight into how they see the company's future.<sup>3</sup> As a result, the company could choose to manage the transfer of such claims. Investors are interested in learning what insiders do with their shares in cases where shares are traded on a regulated market. In certain circumstances, disclosure of share transactions is mandated under EU securities markets legislation. According to the Market Abuse Directive, [p]ersons discharging managerial responsibilities within an issuer of financial instruments and, where applicable, persons closely associated with them, shall, at a minimum, notify the competent authority of the existence of transactions conducted on their own account relating to shares of the said issuer, to derivatives or to other financial instruments linked to them. Additionally, Member States shall ensure that the public has immediate access to information concerning such transactions, at least on an individual basis. The Transparency Directive establishes a need to provide information on significant holdings [2], [5], [6].

### **Exit of Asset Investors**

The phrase asset investors refer to investors who have contributed physical or intangible assets to the company in addition to cash. There are many different types of asset investors, ranging from network partners whose resources or distribution channels the firm uses in its operations to owners of intellectual property rights that the firm may use in a license agreement to owners of the real estate on which the firm operates to providers of operational leasing services. In a broad sense, even staff members and managers who have committed their human capital to the company might be seen as asset investors. These individuals might be categorized as private asset investors. When the government and other comparable public entities provide public products that may be utilized by both the company and other people, they can be seen as public asset investors in a broad sense. The government, along with other public entities, might take on the role of a private asset investor. Other public-sector investments in the company include subsidies and state assistance. Private asset investors are referred to as asset investors in the following.

### **Characteristics of Asset Investment**

The fact that the investor owns an asset and grants the business permission to use it in return for payment of compensation rent defines asset investment. The investor may have the right to take possession of the asset and remove it or forbid the company from utilizing it. Since the company does not own the asset, it can be required by law to return it or stop using it. The corporation will pay a purchase price if it decides to buy the asset from the investor. Five major hazards result from this. Operational issues operational risk might arise from the withdrawal or seizure of assets that the company employs in its commercial operations. The asset may be hard to replace replacement risk. Even if the company could replace the asset, doing so could end up costing more financial risk. In certain circumstances, the company is so reliant on the assets continuous usage that it is exposed to the risk of hold-up. If the assets owner transfers ownership to a new party, the counterparty commercial risk may change because the new owner is either more or less likely than the previous one to withdraw the asset and is either more or less likely to abuse its position.

Because the business cannot legally return assets to an asset investor when a third party has a claim that predominates over the investors rights, the law of property *Sachenrecht* operates as a restraint. According to the governing law, a financial leasing transaction might be classified as a hire-purchase agreement and a sale and leaseback transaction might be classified as an assignment by way of security rather than a true sale] This is just one example of how provisions of the law of property can affect how the firm may use the asset. In the event that the asset investor or the company becomes insolvent, the transactions characteristics will be crucial. Most insolvency laws are obligatory. As in every transaction, provisions of company law may serve as a restriction. For instance, board members have a duty of care and fiduciary obligations to the corporation, while payments to shareholders are limited by prohibitions on distributions to shareholders and the equal treatment concept. Excessive or pointless payments may constitute a violation of such regulations if the shareholder who owns the asset is also the shareholder.

### **Exit of Debt Investors**

The fulfilment of financial commitments Volume II, the transfer of claims Volume II, and the risks involved in debt financing departure have previously been covered in relation to the departure of debt investors. There are two major ways a debt investor might discharge funds. The debtor might first meet its payment commitments, or the investor may urge the debtor to do so by requesting an acceleration of payments or in another manner. Payment, set-off, and netting are the three most conventional methods of settling a debt. The debt investor might also transfer its claims, second.

### **Risk Mitigation**

Due to the fact that loans are repayable, there are three fundamental strategies to reduce the risk associated with a debt investors withdrawal. First, the company should make sure that the loan facility gives it adequate management latitude section 4.2, and it should also make sure that its covenants with other financing sources wont prevent it from making the essential debt repayments. Second, the equity strategy may be used by the company to reduce risk section 6.3. Third, the company might limit the lenders ability to transfer its claims see section 4.2 and Volume II. Due to the signaling consequences of claim transfers, restrictions on claim transferability may be required.

### **Exit of Shareholders**

The corporate structure of the company determines how a shareholder may leave as a shareholder. The departure of shareholders is governed by a substantial set of company law laws, but in partnerships, the parties have greater latitude [7]–[9]. There are several methods for shareholders to leave a limited liability business. Share sales, public offers, the use of a sell-out or squeeze-out right, share swaps, and consideration in connection with a merger or division are all examples of ways that money might be paid, in addition to dividends, share buybacks, withdrawals or redemptions of shares, and liquidations. The firm will either go on as a legal entity or go out of business via liquidation, merger, or division. The shareholder's shares will either continue to exist via sales, share exchanges, and share buybacks or cease to exist through withdrawal of shares if the firm continues to be a legal entity. A shareholder may invest in both assets and/or debt at the same time. For instance, a shareholder may directly own a portion of the companys key assets, such as its real estate or intellectual property patents, trademarks. The value of such assets might rise if the business is successful. The shareholder might then leave the company as an asset investor by offering to sell those assets to the business or a third party. A shareholder may sometimes use loan instruments to reduce risk since shareholders are residual claimants. Even in the lack of distributable income, the company is nevertheless required to pay its obligations.

### **Cash Payments by the Company**

The Second Company Law Directive and the legal capital system impose broad restrictions on cash transfers to shareholders There are four main restrictions there must be equal treatment for all shareholders who are in the same position the acquisition, redemption, and withdrawal of shares requires a resolution by the general meeting and typically a majority of at least two-thirds and 3 the distribution of funds must not be made when the net assets are lower than the subscribed capital or minimum capital or when the net assets would fall below that threshold. Reducing subscribed capital requires adherence to a creditor protection system, and may demand class consents when they alter class rights. The quantity of distributable assets has increased. The amount that may be delivered to shareholders may be increased by the corporation in a number of ways. In addition to releasing capital and boosting liquidity, selling assets may also raise distributable assets, depending on their prior book value and the relevant accounting rules Additionally, when business is booming, fair value accounting of financial assets may contribute to a rise in the firm's distributable profits

There are several circumstances in which the corporation may pay shareholders. In general, shareholders want compensation for their investments in the companys stock or for supplementary services for more information on the role of shareholders, see Volume I. Shareholder payouts are one technique to affect share price. If the companys stock is traded on a stock exchange, the combination of a low market valuation and the opportunity to distribute a significant amount of assets to shareholders would be an invitation to make a bid for the companys shares and make a windfall profit following the merger of the acquisition vehicle and the target company. It may also be a strategy to control the companys shareholder base, depending on how dividends are paid out. Ferran has outlined the following reasons for companies to use share buy-backs or issue redeemable shares, for instance.

To attract outside investors to facilitate exit to structure a temporary loss of control to return value to shareholders to give information signals to achieve a target capital structure to expand the range of financial options to buy back redeemable shares at a discounted price to facilitate the organization of employee share schemes to increase the availability of capital to achieve a target capital structure to achieve a target capital. The business has the ability to decrease capital, buy shares, and pay dividends. A number of factors, such as how each technique is taxed differently and what possibilities each one has for controlling the shareholder base, will influence the decision between the various approaches. The number of shareholders in the firm will not change as a result of dividend payments. The number of outstanding shares and the shareholder base of the firm may both be reduced via capital reductions and buybacks, subject to restrictions imposed by the concept of equal treatment of shareholders. Unlike share buybacks, which may only be employed when there are willing sellers, the reduction of capital mechanism allows for the payment of shareholders against their will.

## **Dividends**

One of the primary methods of rewarding current shareholders is via the distribution of dividends, and a corporation firm is often required to do so within the regular course of business. causes for paying dividends. Again, there are many different reasons why dividends are paid. Dividend payments and intra-group asset transfers are customary in business groups. The payment of dividends is a crucial signaling strategy for businesses whose shares have been allowed to trade on a regulated market since dividend increases over time may be seen as proof of sustained profits growth. As a result, the share price may rise and perceived risk may be reduced. It may also be essential to employ share buybacks for one-time payments they are more flexible than dividends since they are not linked to increased expectations for future payouts.<sup>8</sup> Since they depend on dividends for income, many investors choose firms that pay them in fact, even this might raise the share price.

This indicates that anticipating dividend payments helps shareholders satisfy their monitoring responsibility Volume I in part. Expected, continuing dividends compel firms to raise new money in order to carry out their activities, claims Easterbrook. As a result, they hasten the monitoring and debt-equity adjustments that are advantageous to investors. This implies that managers may impose discipline on themselves via the firm's dividend policy. Even more reasons may exist to transfer money to shareholders in the form of dividends. For instance, a company whose shares are traded on a regulated market may pay dividends and make other distributions to existing shareholders as a takeover defense dividend may be paid after a successful takeover because it will aid the buyer in repaying takeover bridge loans distributable assets are frequently distributed to existing shareholders prior to an IPO thus the firm may be divided into two separate enterprises without a separation by paying dividends instead.

## **II. CONCLUSION**

Profit-sharing agreements may be a useful tool for increasing employee engagement, rewarding achievement, and coordinating personal or business partner's interests with the success of the company. Businesses may create equitable and compelling profit-sharing agreements by taking into account eligibility restrictions, profit distribution techniques, and regulatory constraints. These agreements might promote collaboration, increase output, and contribute to the organizations overall success and sustainability. Shareholder agreements structural devices linked to control such as shareholder agreements pyramid structures or cross shareholdings and general voting limits for shareholders.

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