



# Data Response Case Studies Volume 2 (2023)

for AS / A Level Year 1 AQA Economics

3.2: Macroeconomics

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# Teacher's Introduction

The case studies in this series are designed to support students as they study AS / A Level Year 1 Macroeconomics. These case studies cover the AQA specification perfectly, and are designed as real-world contexts to complement the theoretical content of the module.

Each case study contains:

- \* **Contextual information:** this is the body text of the case studies, providing the relevant information, facts and figures.
- \* **Data:** each case study contains data presented in a graphical format.
- \* **Use the data questions:** for each case study, students are presented with questions set in response to the data presented. Answers are included.
- \* **Test your knowledge questions:** for each case study, students are presented with questions designed to mimic short-answer examination questions. Answers are included.
- \* **Extended-response question:** for each case study, students are presented with a question designed to mimic long-answer examination questions. Possible answers are included in summary form.

This resource is designed to be useful to students of all abilities. Students of the highest ability require up-to-date contextual information for use in examination, while for lower-ability students these case studies may complement class activity and help to ground theoretical content in real-world contexts.

These case studies are designed to be up to date for 2023 and provide as contemporary a snapshot of economic discussion as possible. However, it is likely that some themes which are relevant and topical at the time of teaching may not be included. It is therefore advised that these examples are used in tandem with the study of the most recent themes.

I hope this resource can contribute towards an engaging and rewarding learning environment. Best of luck with your teaching!

## Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

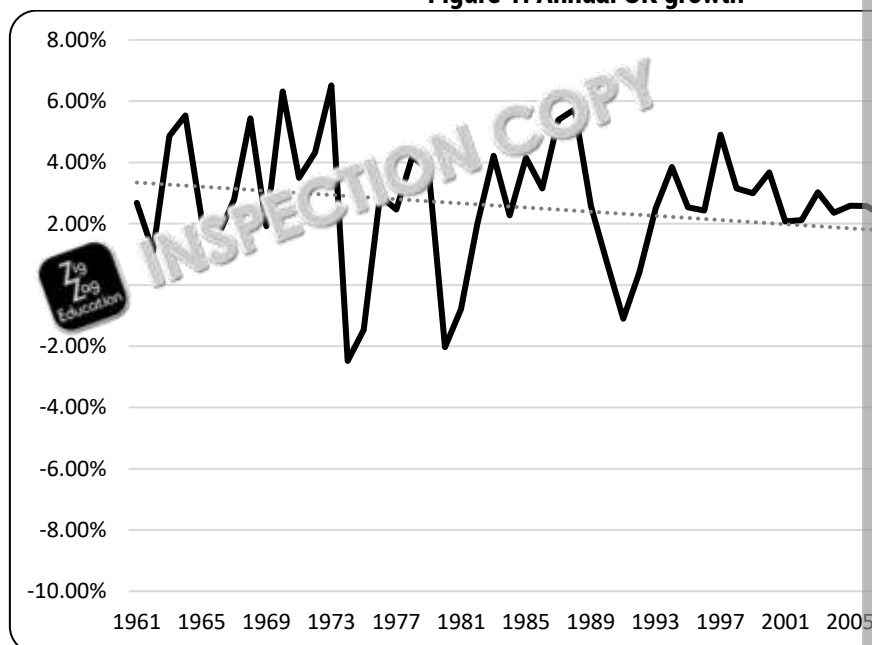
*April 2023*

# Economic growth: in permanent decline

*Economic objectives; Economic growth*

Perhaps the primary measurement of performance in macroeconomics is economic growth, the amount of economic activity that has taken place in an economy over a year, and the rate at which this activity is increasing. **Figure 1** shows the annual percentage of economic growth in the UK from 1961 to 2005.

**Figure 1: Annual UK growth**



Since the global financial crisis of 2007 to 2009, economic growth in the UK has remained low. Historically, gross domestic product would frequently exceed 3% growth over a year, and this high has not been achieved since 2003 (with the exception of the post-pandemic recovery). During the 2010s, economic growth averaged out at just under 2%.

At the same time, the depth of recessionary periods has become more acute. By most measures, the UK's economy had not truly recovered from the financial crash before it was plunged into a coronavirus pandemic.

There are a number of possible reasons for these trends. Some economists argue that a lack of investment over the last decade has led to low levels of productivity, and therefore low growth. Others argue that the UK in particular has become more unequal in recent years, with high consumption and suppressed growth.

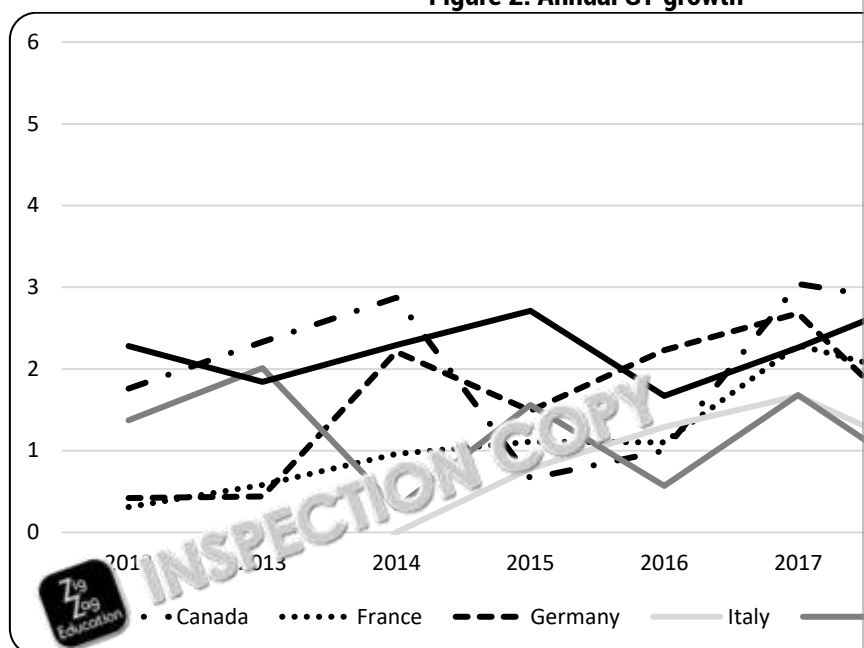
However, others still point out that the stagnation is not unique to the UK, and can be seen in other economies. **Figure 2** (overleaf) shows the growth rates across the other G7 highly industrialised economies in 2012 and 2019 (before the coronavirus pandemic hit). It shows that economic growth was low across the board in the years after the global financial crisis, and the UK – while not the best performer – was among the most sluggish.

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Figure 2: Annual G7 growth



Measuring and forecasting growth is key to making decisions on fiscal policy. Expansion is a key part of sustaining or resuming economic growth. However, critics argue that predicting growth is notoriously difficult, so basing spending decisions on forecasts is a risky move. This is particularly true in a globalised economy, in which interconnected national economies are more vulnerable to economic contagion.

## Use the data

- Briefly describe how Figure 1 would change if nominal GDP figures were used instead of real GDP figures.
- The UK's GDP in 2019 was \$2.83 trillion. The economy shrunk by 9% in 2020. What is the UK's GDP at the end of 2021?

## Test your knowledge...

- Define real GDP.
- Explain **two** alternative measures of economic growth and how they differ from GDP.

## Extended-response question

- 'Once adjustments for taxation and inflation are accounted for, GDP is a good measure of economic success. The UK economy is.' With reference to the UK economy, evaluate this statement.

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# Inflation returns: rising prices in a slowing

*Economic objectives; Inflation and deflation*

Until the 2020s, inflation had become something of a historical phenomenon, associated with the 1970s. The 1990s, 2000s and 2010s had seen inflation brought down to manageable levels, throughout much of the 2010s. Yet following the exogenous shock of the coronavirus pandemic and the subsequent spike in gas prices caused by the Russian invasion of Ukraine, inflation made a dramatic

Figure 1: UK inflation

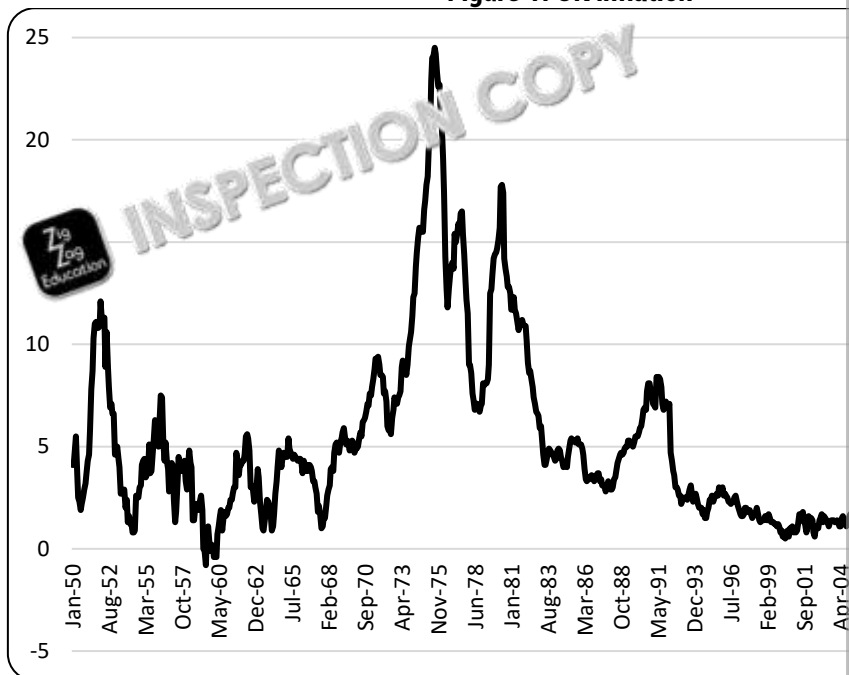


Figure 1 shows that in 2022 inflation exceeded 10% for the first time since 1981, according to the Consumer Price Index. The CPI measures a basket of everyday goods, such as groceries, clothing and housing, and the rate at which prices are increasing.

But the CPI is not the only measure used to capture inflation. The Retail Price Index (RPI) usually records a higher figure of inflation as it includes in its basket of goods the cost of mortgages, interest payments and council taxes. Therefore, while the CPI recorded an inflation rate of 10.1% in July 2022, the RPI measured inflation at 12.3%.

Under these circumstances, macroeconomic orthodoxy tells us to raise interest rates in order to stem rising inflation. However, rising interest rates have the effect of slowing demand across the economy, and if growth is already low, it can potentially trigger a recession.

This is precisely what happened on 4<sup>th</sup> August 2022, when the Bank of England announced that interest rates rise for the first time in 10 years – an increase of 0.5% – alongside gloomy predictions of a sustained recession. By making this decision, the Bank is essentially prioritising reducing inflation over any growth. This is a reversal of what had become the norm in macroeconomic policy: controlling inflation had become the main focus.

It is wise for policymakers to therefore be cautious when relying on measurements of inflation, as they can lead to highly damaging results across the economy.

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## Use the data

1. In 2022 UK inflation reached its highest level in how many years?
2. In what year did the UK last experience deflation?

## Test your knowledge...

1. Explain why the UK stopped using the Retail Price Index as its official measure of inflation.
2. Give **two** examples of deflationary policies.

## Extended-response question

1. Using the Phillips curve diagram, explain how commodity prices can cause inflation.



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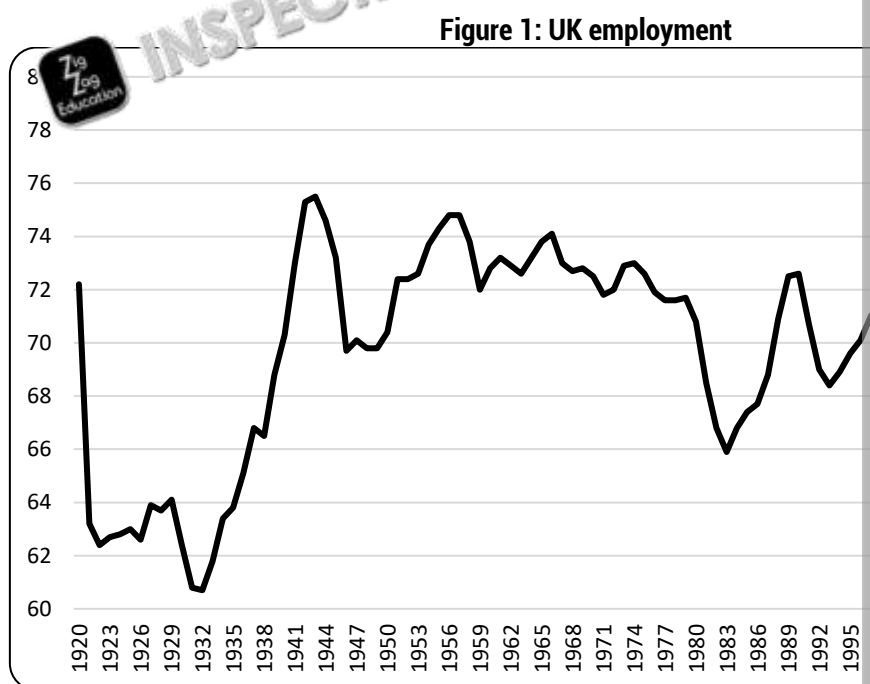


# Full employment or underemployment

*Economic objectives; Employment and unemployment*

Unemployment can be one of the most persistent and damaging economic problems. Some Eurozone countries, such as Spain and Italy, have experienced eye-watering levels of youth unemployment since the financial crisis of 2008 – leading to fears of a 'lost generation'.

The UK was also buffeted by a spike in unemployment following the crash, as shown in **Figure 1**, but since then a rather different story has played out. The UK's employment rate has consistently grown to the highest it has ever been – peaking at 76.5% in 2020. Even the impact of the coronavirus pandemic had only a minimal effect on the overall high employment trend.



The figures look impressive on the surface, but they don't appear to tell the full story. record highs, poverty has been increasing, productivity stagnating and real wages fall

One answer is that, while more people are in work than ever before, their jobs are less remunerated than in previous eras. We can see a correlation between the rise in empl a relaxation of labour rules in the economy in order to encourage more 'flexible' worki implementation of a more flexible labour market was intended to restore profitability as well as reduce what were then rising levels of unemployment.

Reforms to employment policy between 2010 and 2015 included removing restrictions permitting more flexible employment contracts, reducing regulation around the hiring making claim fair dismissal more difficult, removing the compulsory retirement enforcement around employment rights. In 2013, the Department for Business Innovation and Skills described the UK labour market as 'one of the most lightly regulated labour markets in the world'.

While boosting employment figures, this approach also risks creating underemployment. would like to work more hours than are available to them. Flexible labour is utilised pa and social care sectors, though present across the economy. **Figure 2** demonstrates measures, after the new flexible labour rules were introduced.

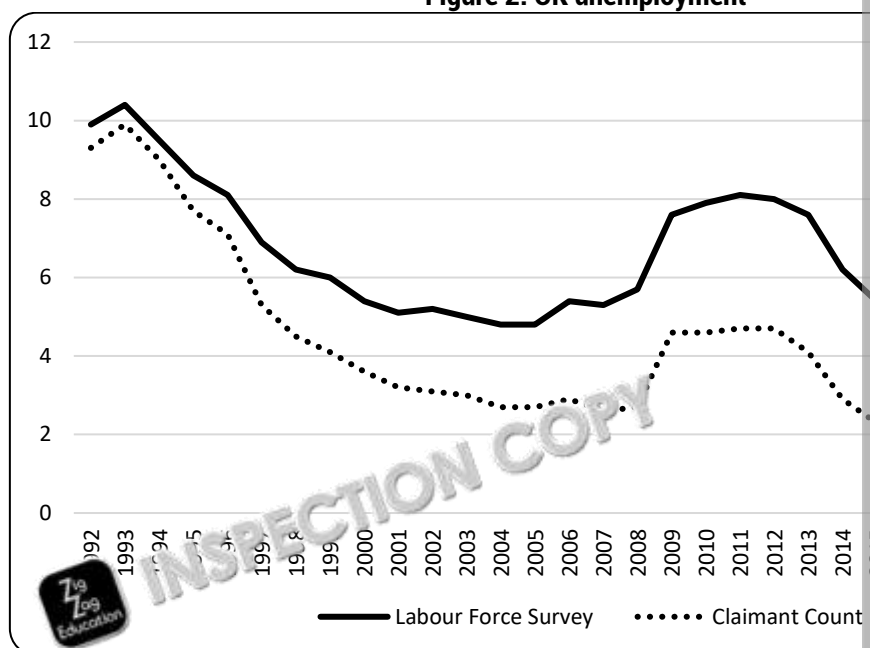
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Figure 2: UK unemployment



Underemployment may be preferable to unemployment statistically, but it can place a strain on government finances than secure work, as workers on low wages or with few hours are not contributing to the welfare system.

### Use the data

- Using Figure 1, identify the year which saw the previous highest recorded level of employment prior to 2020. Can you explain why this might be?
- Using Figure 2
  - Explain why the Claimant Count measure of unemployment is usually lower than the Labour Force Survey measure.
  - Explain why this is not the case in 2020 and 2021.

### Test your knowledge...

- Explain why the unemployment rate could be considered misleading.
- Figure 1 shows a rise in unemployment numbers during the financial crisis of 2008. Explain two types of unemployment that are likely to have been affected during this time.

### Extended-response question

- Explain the main causes of unemployment.

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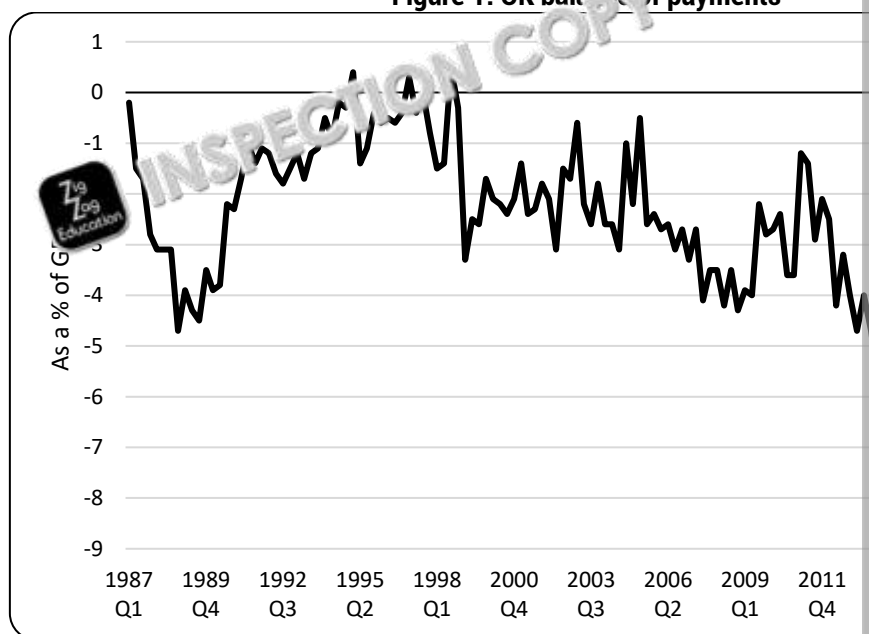
# 'The kindness of strangers' – running a large current account deficit

*Economic objectives; Macroeconomic indicators*

In early 2022 the UK posted its largest recorded current account deficit by a large margin. The Office for National Statistics reported a deficit of £51.7 billion – the equivalent of 8.3% of the nation's GDP.

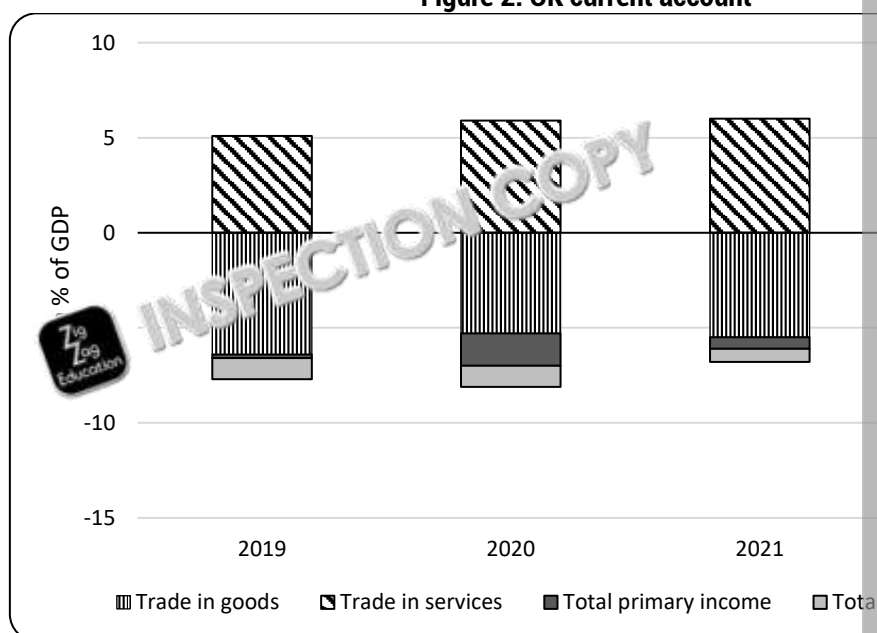
The figure sounds alarming – it is not normal for developed economies to run such large current account deficits. But when we look at **Figure 1**, we see that it was only the first time the UK has posted its first current account surplus for more than 20 years. So what's going on?

**Figure 1: UK balance of payments**



The balance of payments current account is chiefly influenced by the extent of imports and exports in the economy. However, it also counts inflows and outflows of primary and secondary income. The current account in recent years is broken down in **Figure 2**. The current account can often be volatile because of changes in the value of the currency, which reduces demand for exports and makes imports cheaper, thus creating a deficit. The same dynamic is true of a surplus, only the other way round.

**Figure 2: UK current account**



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Current account deficits are not inherently 'bad' in the same way that running current account surpluses are not inherently 'good'. Developing countries may wish to run a current account deficit to invest in improving their productivity in the future. Conversely, countries that rely too heavily on exports may be in trouble if the price of their commodity falls unexpectedly. In this sense, neither a deficit nor a surplus is inherently desirable or problematic.



The problem, however, can be the size of the deficit over a period of time, and governments are often forced to raise taxes or cut public spending to maintain them, then this could lead to higher interest payments which disrupt the functioning of the economy. High interest rates could then spook lenders and make it harder to borrow, leading to higher interest rates, which in turn exacerbates the problem.

Historically, the UK has rarely had a problem with its ability to repay debts and as such has been able to borrow at low rates of interest.

But past performance is not always a guarantee of future success. Former Bank of England Governor Mervyn King said in 2016 that the UK had for a long time relied on 'the kindness of strangers' to keep its current account deficit.

If the UK is borrowing so much that it no longer looks like a stable investment, then those 'strangers' may stop lending.

## Use the data

- Using Figure 2
  - Which of the components of the current account appears to be the most stable?
  - Which of the components of the current account has contributed most to the current account deficit?
- If the UK's current account deficit in Q1 2022 was £51.7 billion, and this is equal to 0.5% of GDP, then what was the UK's overall GDP figure in Q1 2022?

## Test your knowledge...

- Explain what is meant by 'total primary income' and 'total secondary income'.
- Explain the effect on the current account balance if the value of UK investment abroad increased.

## Extended-response question

- Evaluate the effectiveness of investing in one of the UK's export sectors as a way of reducing the current account deficit.

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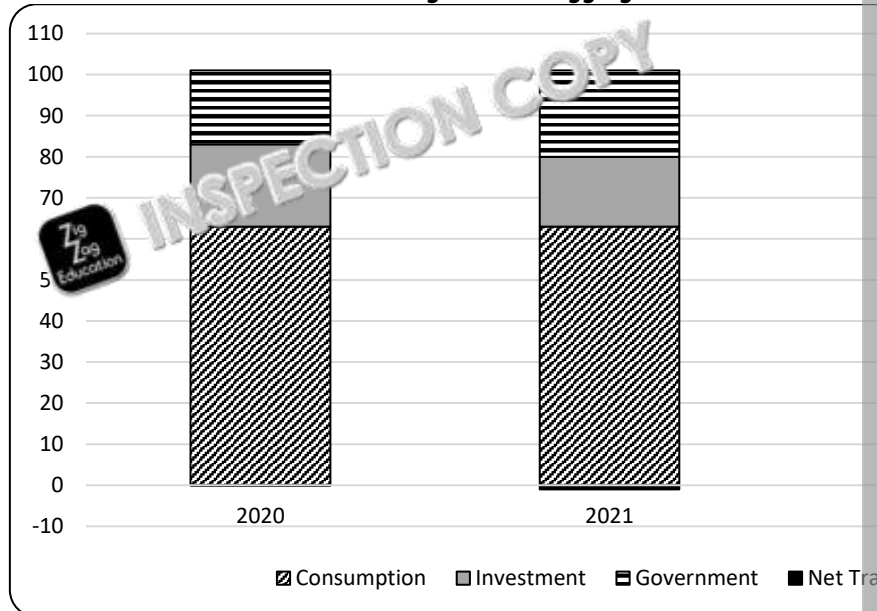


# Collapsing consumption during the coronavirus

## The determinants of aggregate demand

The response to the spread of the coronavirus pandemic had a profound effect on the large parts of the economy closed, and consumers confined to their households, aggregate demand fell to an unprecedented extent. This is because the largest component of aggregate demand is consumption, which represents 63% to 64% of the UK's total GDP.

Figure 1: UK aggregate demand



Government intervention during the crisis sought to support the economy while consumption fell. The main way the government did this was through the furlough scheme. This ensured that employed people received a portion of their wages while they were unable to work. In addition, the government also increased the support for unemployed people received through the Universal Credit, also reducing barriers to access.

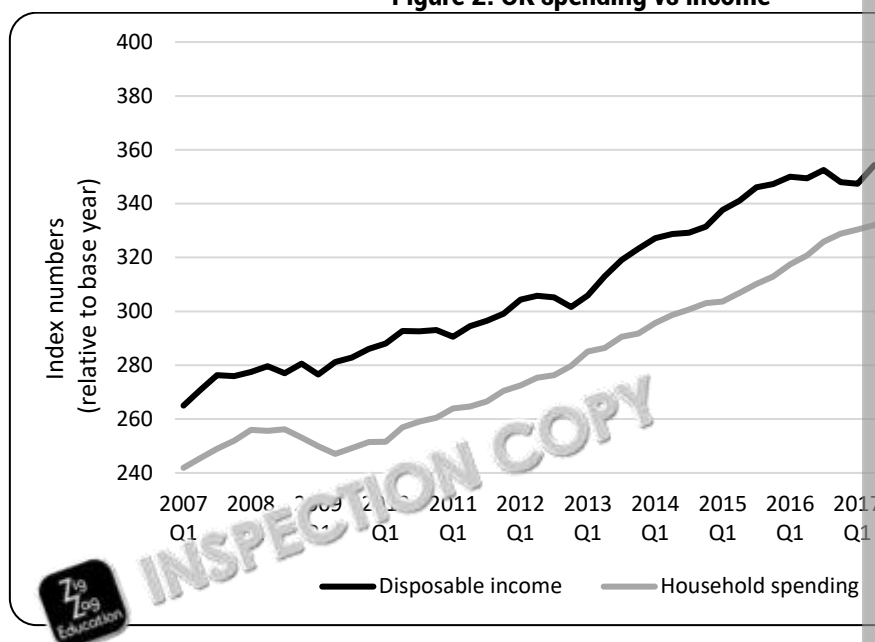
The effect of these interventions can be seen in the fact that while government spending – or consumption – decreases dramatically in 2020, disposable income reduces only by a relatively small amount.



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Figure 2: UK spending vs income<sup>1</sup>



However, despite the collapse in consumption overall, some sectors of the economy grew. Essential retail was one beneficiary – in particular supermarkets. As these were some of the few that remained open, and one of the few outside activities people were permitted to engage in, footfall

Another beneficiary was online retail. With people forced to stay home, a large amount of shopping previously take place on high streets moved online. The share of sales conducted online rose from 30%, in the first months of the pandemic. However, overall sales over the same period

After the height of the pandemic, household sales rebounded, though, as **Figure 2** shows, they did not reach 2020 levels, demonstrating that reduced consumer confidence remained across the

## Use the data

1. Is the data in Figure 1 in real or nominal terms?
2. Take a look at Figure 2. What might account for the small reduction in disposable income in the second quarter of 2020?

## Test your knowledge...

1. What is the formula for aggregate demand?
2. Using an AD curve, show the effect of a fall in the rate of VAT.

## Extended-response question

1. Explain the relative importance of interest rates and consumer confidence in determining aggregate demand.

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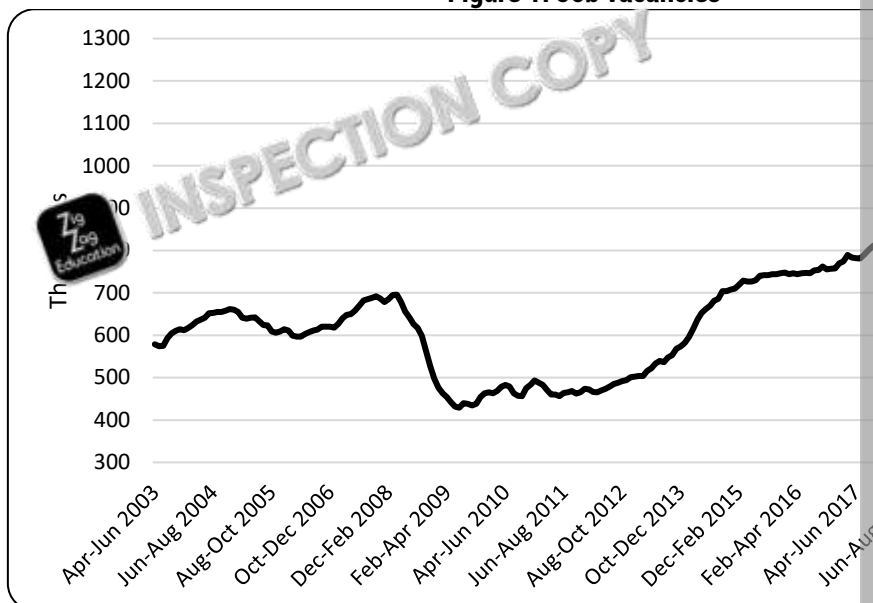
<sup>1</sup> Source: <https://www.niesr.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2022/02/UK-Economic-Outlook-Winter-2022.pdf>

# Aggregate supply: tightening labour

*The determinants of aggregate supply*

At the onset of the coronavirus pandemic, faced with a deeply uncertain economic outlook, the macroeconomy stopped hiring. The result was a collapse in job vacancies, seen in Figure 1. Unemployment was prevented by the introduction of the furlough scheme, many speculating that high unemployment once the pandemic passed and furlough payments were concluded the opposite happened.

**Figure 1: Job vacancies**

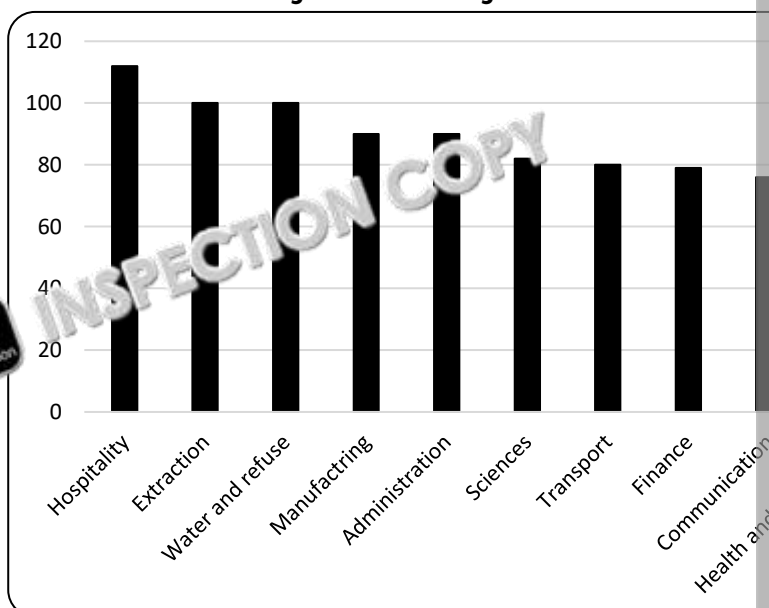


By summer 2020, the number of job vacancies across the economy had almost doubled since pandemic levels, and had reached historic highs. So what happened?

Well, there are a number of factors. Many older workers saw the pandemic as an opportunity to retire, reducing the overall supply of labour. Many foreign-born workers returned to their home countries during the pandemic, and may have been less tempted to return to the UK once it was outside of lockdown, decreasing labour supply.

**Figure 2: Percentage increase in vacancies**

In addition, most vacancies were in low-paid or insecure jobs – positions less likely to tempt younger workers back into the labour market. Figure 2 shows the industries in which vacancies became the most widespread.



<sup>2</sup> Source: <https://commonslibrary.parliament.uk/how-has-the-pandemic-affected-industries-and-labour-in-the-uk/>

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One high-vacancy industry that caught particular attention in 2021 was road freight. During the pandemic, a significant shortage of HGV drivers led to supply problems all over the economy.



This can be partly attributed to the global shortages that had become commonplace throughout the economy due to workers being sick with the virus's spread. In addition, the economic pandemic severely disrupted supply chains, forcing businesses to reorganise their businesses, and changed consumer behaviour, with many more people buying online, more demand for delivery services, and so on.

But there are also issues specific to the UK. A shortage of HGV drivers prior to the pandemic, in part due to the sector's poor remuneration and unsocial hours, was also heavily reliant on 'just-in-time' supply chains, which minimise storage costs but are vulnerable to any kind of disruption.

### Use the data

1. What macroeconomic phenomena can we expect from a sudden tightening of credit as seen in Figure 1?
2. Explain **three** reasons why the hospitality industry may have experienced the downturn following the pandemic.

### Test your knowledge...

1. Using a suitable diagram, demonstrate the impact of increased demand for labour on the long-run aggregate supply.
2. State and explain two other factors that can increase LRAS, aside from technological/demographic/migration changes.

### Extended-response question

1. Using information from the extract and your own knowledge, evaluate the effectiveness of a country encouraging higher levels of migrant workers.

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## Constructing the multiplier: high-speed rail

### Aggregate demand

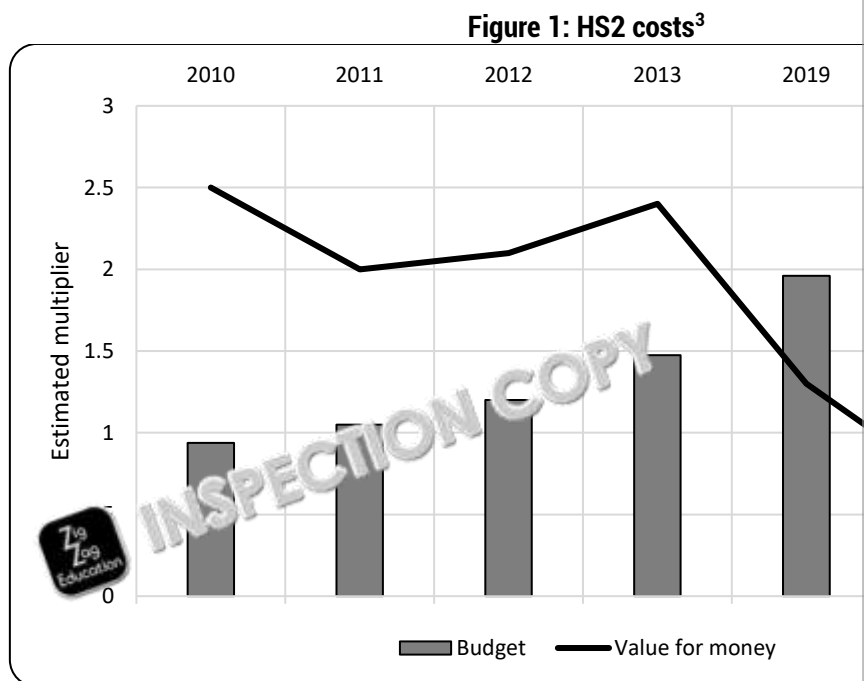
The idea of the multiplier effect in economics is quite simple in theory. When there is an injection into the economy (such as through government spending, or through spending by foreign tourists), the total income in the economy can be greater than the size of the initial injection. This is because when one person receives that money, they then spend that money, which increases the income of others, and so on, until the total income is much larger than the initial injection.

With economic growth and productivity remaining stubbornly low in the UK economy, the focus of policymakers has shifted to how big public investments can help to get the economy moving. One such large investment is the High Speed 2 railway line between London, Birmingham and Manchester.

Some economists believe that transport infrastructure will help to stimulate economic growth and productivity. There are a number of reasons to believe this. Firstly, reduced travel times will allow firms to access more skilled workers for a larger pool of labour. Secondly, greater interconnectedness of cities will allow firms to access services outside of their immediate area more easily. And thirdly, some firms would have a larger customer base than previously, meaning their customer base will expand.

In addition, the government claims that 'HS2 stations can act as a multiplier or accelerator for other economic plans.' This is because the footfall produced by commuters will increase commerce in the area, leading to more business and demand for housing.

However, other economists disagree with this analysis. **Figure 1** highlights how the estimated multiplier has increased considerably across multiple government reviews, from an estimation of £9.5 billion in 2010 to £20 billion in 2019. At the same time, the black line tracks the estimated multiplier arising from the project as costs rose.



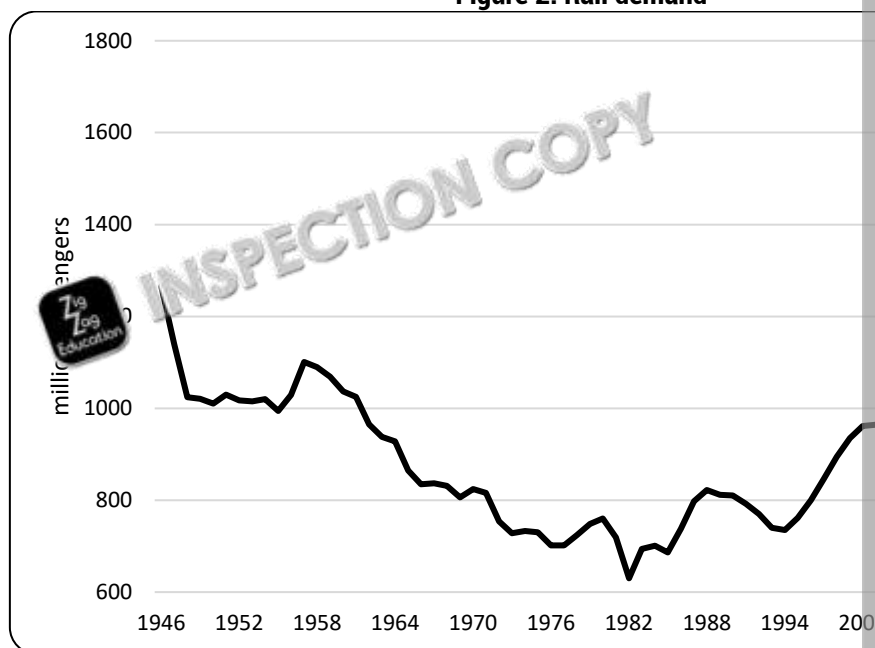
<sup>3</sup> Data <https://www.instituteforgovernment.org.uk/explainers/high-speed-2-costs> data



In Lord Berkeley's unofficial 2020 report on HS2, he estimates that the multiplier for the project is 0.6, which he regards as 'poor value for money'. This stands in contrast with initial projections that the project will produce benefits worth more than twice its costs.

Supporters of HS2 argue that the project is not just about providing value for money, but about improving the UK's railways. **Figure 2** highlights how rapidly increasing passenger numbers on the current network and the capacity is likely to become a necessity in the years ahead.

**Figure 2: Rail demand<sup>4</sup>**



The government predicts that demand for rail journeys will continue to increase at an average of 5% per year. Since 1994 rail demand has increased on average by almost 5% every year, making 2000 the first year since 1994 that demand has exceeded 1994 levels.

## Use the data

- Figure 1 outlines specific estimations of multipliers that have been produced by various analyses of HS2. Give three reasons why it is notoriously difficult to make accurate estimates of the multiplier.
- The estimated multiplier of HS2 in 2011 was 2. Calculate how many billion pounds of additional output would be generated at this point in time.

## Test your knowledge...

- Use a diagram to explain why an increase in government spending is expected to lead to inflation.
- What is the most important variable in determining the size of the multiplier?

## Extended-response question

- Suppose a government wanted to help the economy out of recession by raising government spending. Using your knowledge of injections, withdrawals, and the multiplier, evaluate the likely effectiveness of this policy.

<sup>4</sup> Data <https://dataportal.orr.gov.uk/statistics/usage/passenger-rail-usage/table-1220-passenger-journeys/>  
<sup>5</sup> <https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/ld201415/ldselect/ldconaf/134/13410.htm>

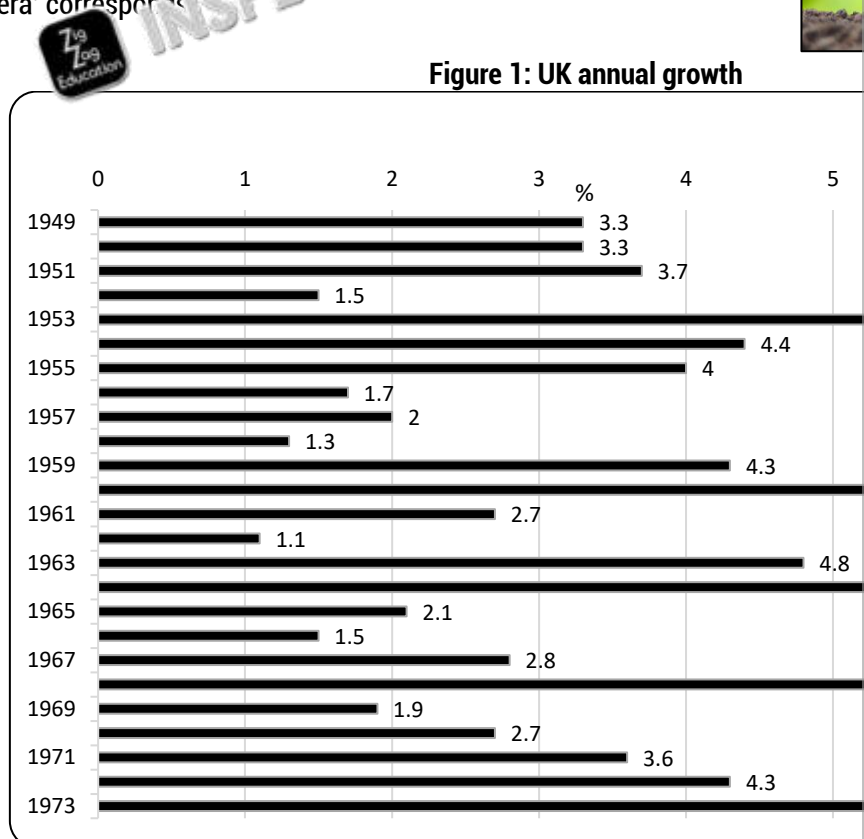
# The 'golden era' of growth

*Economic growth and the economic cycle*

Between the late 1940s and early 1970s, the UK economy experienced an unprecedented period of growth, often referred to as the 'golden era' of British economic expansion. During this period, the UK's annual growth rate regularly exceeded 3% as Britain was rebuilt following the destruction of the Second World War.

The strong growth figures were accompanied by significant improvements in living standards as consumer goods became cheaper, wages rose, jobs were widely available, the welfare state emerged and slums were cleared to make way for modern housing. In 1957 Prime Minister Harold Macmillan famously declared that British people had 'never had it so good'.

**Figure 1** shows the exceptional long run of growth figures to which the 'golden era' corresponds.



There were a number of reasons why the UK was able to sustain such a long period of growth. These included the level of job creation associated with post-war reconstruction, and the influx of immigrants from Commonwealth nations.

The golden era can be said to have come to an end when the economy entered a period of stagnation in response to oil price increases. Since then the UK has not experienced such a prolonged period of growth, with the economy slipping into recession on a more regular basis.

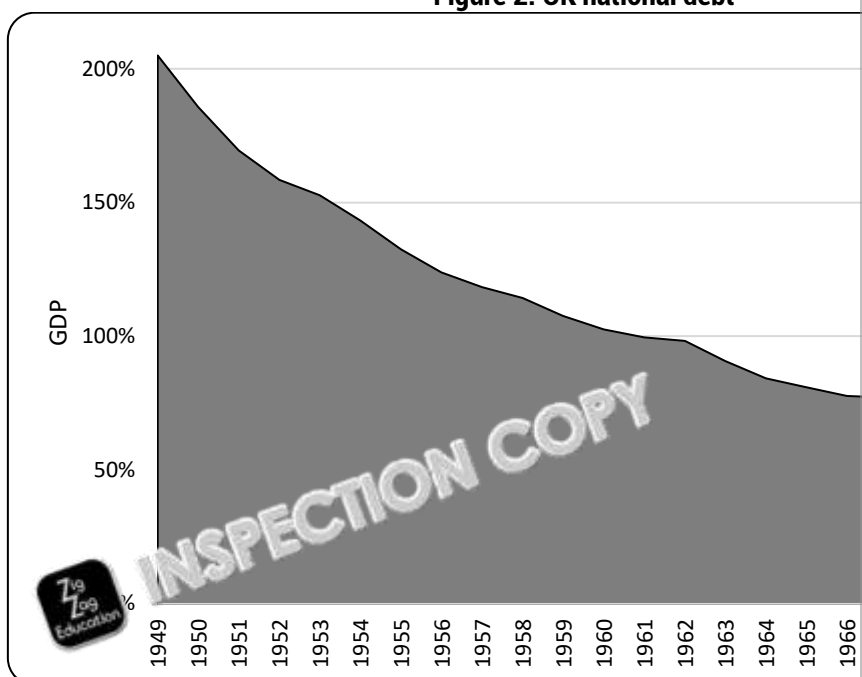
One major advantage of this 'golden era' of growth was that it helped to substantially reduce the national debt that had accrued while fighting the Second World War. **Figure 2** traces the reduction of national debt as a percentage of GDP from 1949–1973. It shows that, following the war, debts were more than 200% of GDP, but fell to around 50% in just over 20 years.

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Figure 2: UK national debt



The Office for Budget Responsibility highlights how 'in nominal terms, debt increased but GDP increased by more than 1,200 per cent in the same period. This reduced the debt level to less than 50 per cent of GDP'.<sup>6</sup>

This conforms to a discretionary fiscal policy approach which seeks to be a countercyclical. During periods of expansion, high taxes and low public spending should in theory provide financial reserves needed to cut taxes and increase spending in recessionary periods.

## Use the data

1. Explain why the trend in Figure 2 can be attributed to sustained economic growth.
2. Using Figure 1, estimate the average annual GDP growth rate of the UK over the period 1949-1966.

## Test your knowledge...

1. What is the alternative to 'discretionary fiscal policy'?
2. Using a suitable diagram, explain the difference between short-run and long-run economic growth.

## Extended-response question

1. Explain the costs and benefits of economic booms.

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<sup>6</sup> <https://obr.uk/box/post-world-war-ii-debt-reduction/>

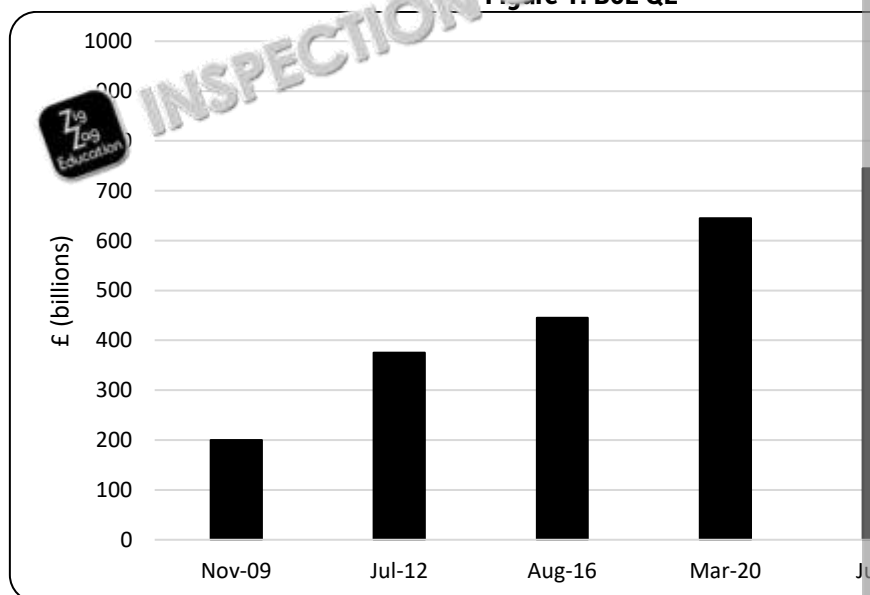
# Quantitative easing: the evolution of money

## Central banks and monetary policy

Following the financial crisis of 2007/08, the Bank of England adopted a new form of quantitative easing, or QE. QE expands the money supply, and does so through the central bank purchasing government bonds. Most of the debts purchased belong to the government, and are also known as gilts. By creating the money that the bank has created, the money supply expands.

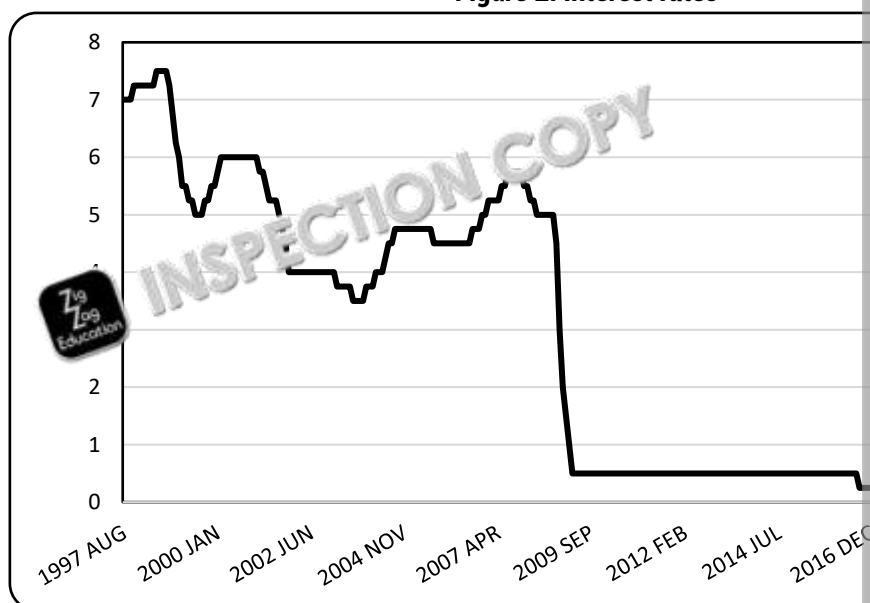
The process of QE was repeated again on two occasions in the 2010s when deflation was a risk. And it was rapidly expanded during the coronavirus pandemic, partly as a means to help the economy through the crisis. **Figure 1** demonstrates the cumulative cost of QE, with each major injection to the market.

Figure 1: BoE QE<sup>7</sup>



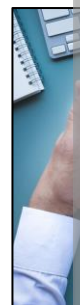
QE has been used to achieve multiple monetary and fiscal aims. It was initially introduced as a tool to try to increase persistently low inflation, as interest rates could not be lowered further. A key aim of the Bank of England was that the money entering the national income would help to stimulate demand and encourage banks to lend in a weaker economic environment. **Figure 2** shows how far the Bank of England lowered interest rates in this period.

Figure 2: Interest rates



<sup>7</sup> <https://www.bankofengland.co.uk/monetary-policy/quantitative-easing>

There is no consensus among economists as to how successful this was. Inflation mostly remained below the Bank's 2% target, but some argue that QE helped to prevent more damaging deflation. QE was also criticised at the time for increasing levels of wealth inequality in the UK by inflating the price of assets, such as housing.



QE was subsequently used in 2016 with the aim of stabilising markets following the UK's decision to leave the EU. And during the coronavirus pandemic crisis, large amounts of QE took place alongside high levels of government borrowing, which were required for high-cost fiscal interventions such as the furlough scheme.

Initially planned as a short-term and one-off intervention, QE has become a major policy alongside the setting of interest rates. Since 2022, the Bank of England has started to unwind the QE, as it has accrued during the several rounds of QE. However, such a process remains subject to the overall macroeconomic impact.

### Use the data

1. Which is the single biggest injection of QE highlighted by Figure 1?
2. Explain why the Bank of England may have started offloading its QE debts in 2022.

### Test your knowledge...

1. Give **two** reasons why the UK inflation rate might have been falling (Figure 1).
2. Explain why deflation might be damaging for an economy.

### Extended-response question

1. Assess the effectiveness of lowering interest rates to stimulate economic growth.

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# Fiscal misadventure: Truss's tax ga

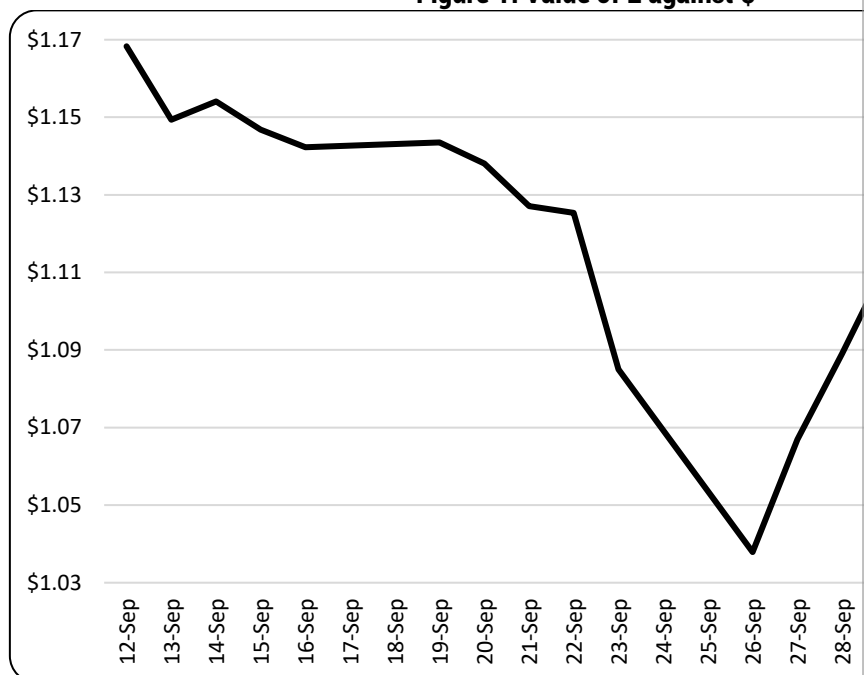
Central banks and monetary policy



In September 2022, the recently elected British Prime Minister Liz Truss announced a range of large public spending cuts. A package of £100 billion was announced to cover the energy costs of households, followed by a further £45 billion worth of tax cuts, intended to support a range of individuals and businesses and generate economic growth. Truss, as Prime Minister, is responsible for explaining how public expenditure is managed. She is responsible for explaining how public expenditure is managed. She is responsible for explaining how public expenditure is managed.

The reaction of financial markets to the latter announcement was dramatic. Investors, spooked by the enormous unfunded spending, lost confidence in the UK government's ability to continue paying off its debts, and lost confidence in the UK government's ability to continue paying off its debts, and lost confidence in the UK government's ability to continue paying off its debts. This led to a sharp fall in the value of the British pound, seen in **Figure 1** against the US dollar.

**Figure 1: Value of £ against \$**



At the same time the price of government debt – its value on financial markets – also fell. A major source of investment in government debt is pension funds, so as the bond market began to collapse, pensions start to be put at risk. Eventually the Bank of England stepped in when pensions were about to collapse. The central bank spent £300bn buying government debt, which helped to restore some of the pound's value.

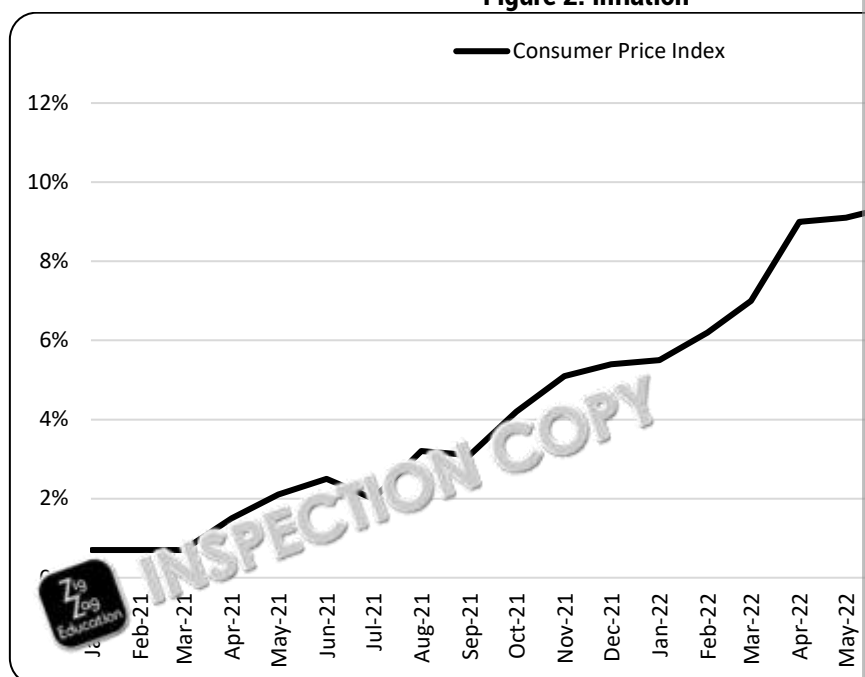
But the emergency intervention by the central bank also added to the inflationary pressure on the economy, highlighted in **Figure 2**. The prospect of large interest rate rises severely affected many homeowners relying on low interest rates in order to keep up with their payments. Offers were withdrawn at the peak of the crisis.

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Figure 2: Inflation



Eventually, the political pressure that resulted from this combination of financial scars forced them to reverse their expensive policies, and ultimately pushed them both out of office. But it is important to maintain the confidence of financial markets is to the functioning of a nation. The boundaries of plausible macroeconomic policies lie.

### Use the data

1. The pound started 2022 at a value of \$1.35. How much of its value had it lost by May 2022?

### Test your knowledge...

1. Identify **two** factors which influence the Monetary Policy Committee's decisions.
2. Explain **two** consequences of a currency depreciation.
3. Using a suitable diagram, explain how tax cuts could generate economic growth.

### Extended-response question

1. Explain the increasing role of the central bank in managing the UK economy.

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# Expansionary fiscal policy: eat out to

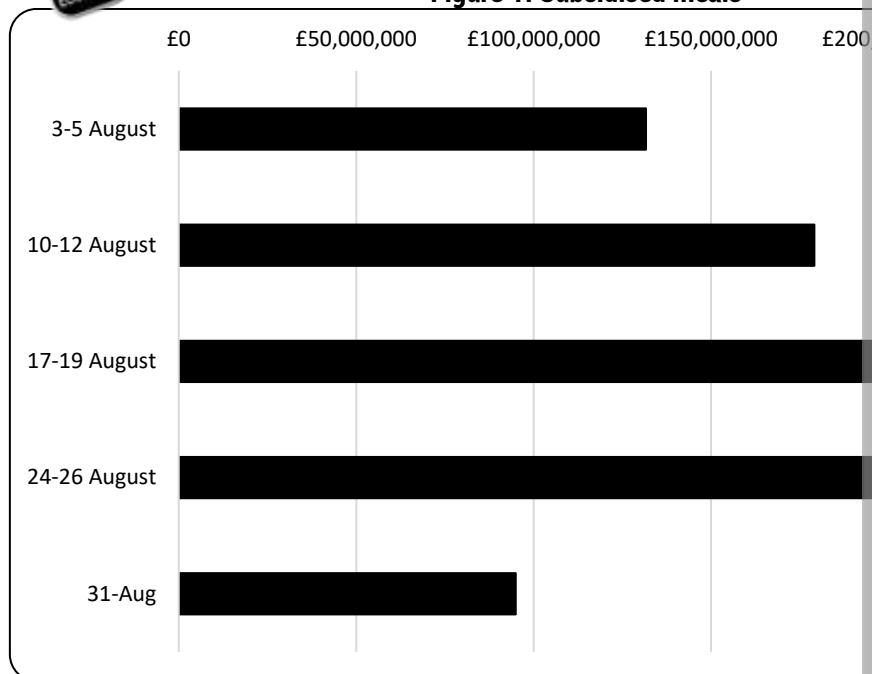
*Fiscal policy; Aggregate demand*

The hospitality industry was among the worst affected sectors of the UK economy during the coronavirus pandemic crisis. With the population forced into their homes, bars, restaurants and cafes had virtually no means to generate revenues which could cover their core maintenance costs, and many ended up in a perilous financial position.

As the spread of the virus appeared to dissipate during summer 2020, the government launched an unusual fiscal stimulus policy to support the industry. The 'eat out to help out' scheme subsidised food and soft drinks in hospitality venues by 50% every Monday to Wednesday for the whole of August. **Figure 1** shows the increasing popularity of the scheme over the course of the month based on the money spent by the government.



**Figure 1: Subsidised meals**



The overall cost of the scheme was £840 million, significantly greater than the £500 million initially allocated. The aim of the government was to boost overall aggregate demand in the recessionary pressures as the UK left lockdown. The government was anxious that public spaces, and demand would continue to be suppressed due to the public having to save.

Research conducted by the London School of Economics, or LSE, suggests that the scheme did not boost aggregate demand as much as the costs involved. The LSE concluded that it did not boost demand in designated periods, and there was no evidence to suggest that it encouraged people to save.

However, the government argues that the scheme was effective at keeping struggling businesses afloat, preventing them from laying off staff, by providing them with much needed revenue. It also helped to reduce the cost of furlough, given that the hospitality industry was subsidising wages during the pandemic. **Figure 2** (overleaf) shows the number of employees in the industry in October and November 2020.

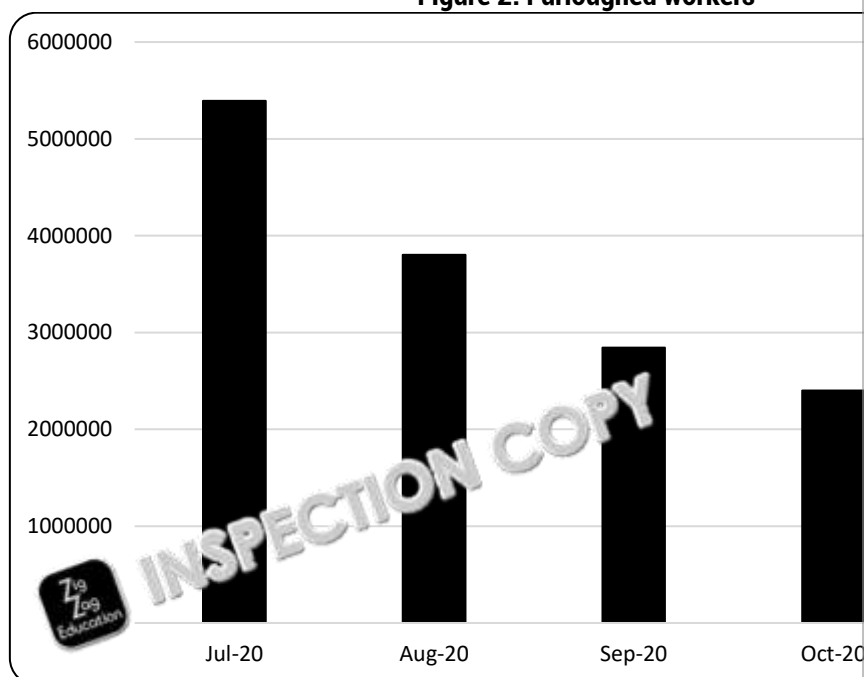
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Figure 2: Furloughed workers



In addition, some studies found that the scheme may have contributed to the increase in the spread of the virus. Increased transmission meant that restrictions on social gatherings began to be implemented in mid-September, less than two weeks after the scheme ended.<sup>8</sup>

### Use the data

1. What does the take-up of the scheme indicated in Figure 1 tell us about the popularity of the services provided by the hospitality industry?
2. Take a look at Figure 2. Does it indicate that the 'eat out to help out' scheme encouraged more employees furloughed?

### Test your knowledge...

1. Explain how expansionary fiscal policy correlates to the economic cycle.
2. Give **two** examples of supply-side policies which could result in supply-side inflation.
3. Show the effect of fiscal stimulus on AD using a Keynesian AD/AS diagram.

### Extended-response question

1. Evaluate the effectiveness of using demand-side policies to stimulate economic growth.

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<sup>8</sup> [https://cep.lse.ac.uk/textonly/\\_new2014/news/releases/2021\\_02\\_10\\_i394.pdf](https://cep.lse.ac.uk/textonly/_new2014/news/releases/2021_02_10_i394.pdf) LSE study

# Indirect taxation: Hospitality's VAT

Fiscal policy

At the height of the coronavirus pandemic crisis in July 2020, the UK government made the decision to give the hospitality and tourism sector a 15% cut in value added tax (VAT), a duty on goods. Whereas the standard rate of VAT is 20%, government would reduce this rate to just 5%. This would be to help support a sector that was particularly hard hit by the closure of large parts of the consumer economy. A lower rate of VAT remained in place for the industry until March 2022.

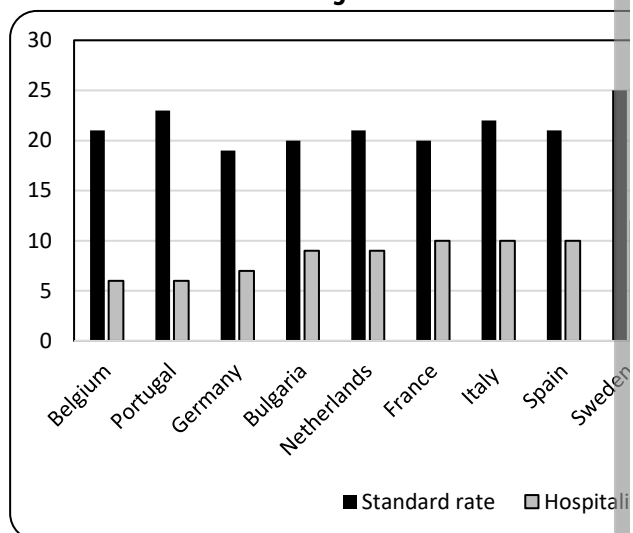
The VAT cut enabled providers to choose either lowering their prices or retaining the extra 15% of sales for themselves. Some pubs chose to reduce the price of their alcohol, but the cut did not apply, and recoup those losses by raising their food prices, in the hope that

While these measures were temporary, many in the hospitality and tourism sector believed they should be implemented permanently. One reason for this is that many other European countries have lower domestic hospitality sectors, as seen in **Figure 1**. In addition, the industry is highly profitable and a large employer.

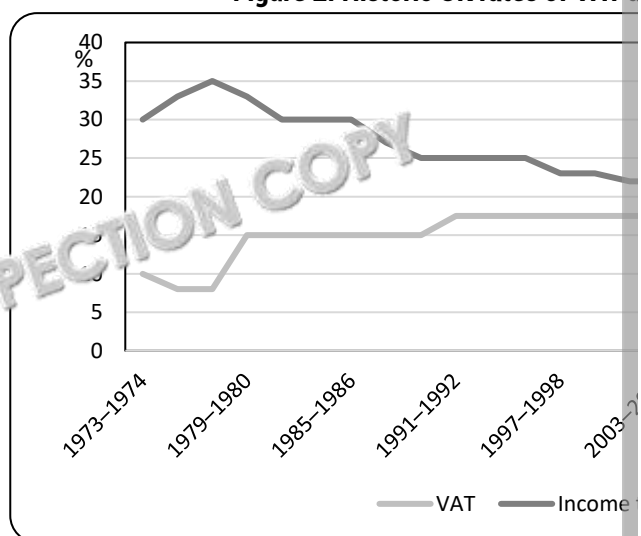
However, VAT exemptions are controversial and their economic benefits are contested. Critics point to the increased administrative costs of such schemes, and argue that instead of offering a range of special reduced rates, the economy would be better off with a lower standard rate.

VAT was first introduced in the UK in 1973 at a rate of 10%. In 1978, VAT generated 7% of the UK's revenue – this figure had more than doubled by the 2000s, making it a key source of government revenue. But higher prices also suppress consumer demand, which in turn can mean less employment and lower profits – a vicious circle which reduces government revenue in the long run. **Figure 2** shows how income tax has fallen as VAT has increased.

**Figure 1: VAT rates across Europe**



**Figure 2: Historic UK rates of VAT and Income Tax**



<sup>9</sup> Source: <https://www.ukhospitality.org.uk/blogpost/1721400/392803/VAT-Rates-for-Hospitality--Leisure>

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## Use the data

1. What is the median VAT rate of the 14 European countries in Figure 1, and how does it compare to the UK?
2. Give **two** reasons for trends of taxation displayed in Figure 2.

## Test your knowledge...

1. Explain why the hospitality and tourism sector is price sensitive.
2. Using a diagram, explain the welfare loss associated with VAT on hospitality and tourism.

## Extended-response question

1. Explain the costs and benefits of indirect taxation.

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# Answers

## Economic growth: in permanent decline?

### Use the data

1. Nominal GDP figures do not account for the effect of inflation, so GDP figures appear positive in the UK). Therefore, the GDP growth figures would be higher (also the record). Visually, the graph would appear to have shifted up.
2. The economy shrunk by 9% in 2020 – 9% of 2.83 is 0.25.  $2.83 - 0.25 = 2.58$ . The economy grew by 0.18 in 2021. So  $2.58 + 0.18 = 2.76$ . The answer is \$2.76 trillion.

### Test your knowledge...

1. GDP is the total value of output (or goods and services) produced in an economy (with the effect of inflation has been removed).  
*Award 1 mark for a correct definition, 2 for a partially correct definition, 3 for correct definition and explanation.*
2. One alternative measure is gross national product (GNP), which measures total domestic output, but it includes property income received from foreign nations. Unlike GDP, GNP includes foreign multinational corporations. Another alternative measure is gross national income (GNI), which measures a nation's total income, rather than output as with GDP. GNI is the sum of all the money earned by those who are domestically resident.  
*Award 1 mark for identifying each alternative measure, and 1 further mark for explanation.*

### Extended-response question

1. GDP measures the total value of output in an economy. When you adjust for population and inflation (real GDP) this can give a good impression of the size of an economy. However, to compare the success of different economies, many important factors are omitted:
  - **Living standards.** It can be more informative to adjust GDP using the concept of purchasing power parity (PPP) to account for different living standards in different countries (PPP should be clear). Accounting for living standards tends to narrow the perceived gap between rich and poor countries as they are usually relatively cheap in poorer countries.
  - **Inequality.** Even per capita GDP figures give no indication of the distribution of income. A country can experience rapid economic growth, but this would not benefit the general population if the benefits go to a small elite.
  - **Negative externalities.** GDP only measures the total value of output, it doesn't account for 'bad' output. Economic growth may come hand in hand with environmental damage, such as the loss of land for commercial purposes.
  - **Happiness.** Having a higher average standard of living does not guarantee that people are happy. People may end up working excessively long hours and spend less time with their families. While economic growth and wealth increases happiness up to a point – but increasing wealth beyond that point has diminishing returns. This is notoriously difficult to measure, however.

Strong answers must include reference to the UK economy, such as the respondent's own country, and the information and data included in the case study.

In your answer you could also make reference to 'composite' indicators such as the Human Development Index (HDI) which takes into account a range of factors before comparing countries' performance (with respect to economic development, life expectancy and education). It is important to note that GDP does not account for the size of the 'black economy' (unrecorded or illicit economic activity) which is a significant factor in many countries. A good answer should explain at least two or three of the

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## **Preview of Answers Ends Here**

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This is a limited inspection copy. Sample of answers ends here to stop students looking up answers to their assessments. See contents page for details of the rest of the resource.