

# Topic on a Page for IB Economics

Higher Level: Units 1-4

D Glover

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*Both the summary and activity pages are provided in A3 and A4 format.*

# Teacher's Introduction

This resource covers all content (higher and standard level) of the IB Economics specification. It provides 19 A3 posters, together covering all the subtopics.

It is intended as a summary of the material and focuses on the main points rather than the detail, so all important areas are covered, without going into too much depth. The posters can be displayed on classroom walls, or given to students to learn with in lessons or at home. The resource can be used to help students to revise at the end of a topic, or before a test or an exam.

The resource consists of:

- 19 completed mind maps which provide solutions to the activity mind maps, labelled **1** to **19**
- 19 activity (partially complete) mind maps for students to complete, labelled **1** to **19**


Both sets of mind maps are provided in A3 and A4 formats.

Activity versions of the posters are also included, where some of the sections are blank, so that the students can test their knowledge by completing these. Answers for these activities are on the summary sheets.

Different styles and layouts are used to help to make the information interesting, and to help the students engage with the information in a productive way.

If teachers wished to add extra annotations to clarify or add further information, they could do this as well.

Some of the subtopics are linked, and it will be helpful for students to view the whole of each poster to help them to make connections between concepts. However, posters have clear-cut divisions between subtopics, and the teacher could choose to give students part of a poster, if they wish to focus on a particular subtopic.

The symbol  is used to denote quantitative skills.



Higher Level content is indicated like this.

*D Glover, November 2023*

# 1.1: What is economics?

These nine concepts will be a recurring theme in your study of economics. You will need to understand their relevance and evaluate their importance to strong economic performance.

- Scarcity
- Choice
- Efficiency
- Equity
- Well-being
- Sustainability
- Change
- Interdependence
- Intervention

**Economic resources**  
all things that help us produce goods and services.

**Labour** – Human workers.

**Economic resources come in four main categories:**

1. Land
2. Labour
3. Enterprise
4. Capital

Land refers to all those natural raw materials that are found on land or under sea.

**Enterprise** refers to the risk-taking attitude that is required for a person to be able to run a business.

**Capital** – Technology or machinery to facilitate in converting raw materials into finished products.

## Economics as a social science

**Microeconomics** →

Study of how resources are allocated by individuals.

**Macroeconomics** →

Study of how resources are allocated by governments and between economies.

✓ Economics is a social science because it is a study of society and human behaviour.

**Main economic problem**

= scarcity because resources are limited while our wants are infinite.

## PPCs and the problem of choice

**Renewable resources** replenish quickly, e.g. sunlight.

**Non-renewable resources** do not replenish quickly, e.g. oil.

✓ PPC shows the optimal combination of quantities of goods which resources are willing to produce.

- Consumer goods are directly bought by households.
- Capital goods are used to make consumer goods.
- So more capital goods help produce more consumer goods.

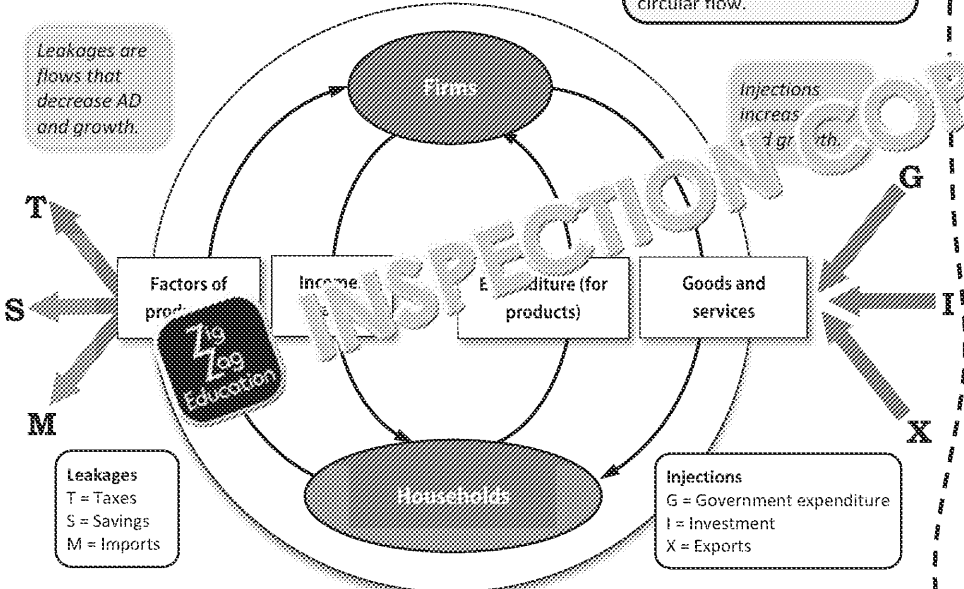
**Scarcity** requires us to think about how resources are scarce, then how they can be made to be used to the benefit of future generations.

## Circular flow of income

The circular flow model visualises the way that income flows in, out and around the economy.

All economic actors are interconnected and play a role in injecting income into and leaking income from the circular flow.

Leakages are flows that decrease AD and growth.



**Economic growth** creating products that consumers want.

**Advantages**

- Efficiency
- Competition

✓ **Free market economy** where the economy is driven by the price mechanism.

**Disadvantages:**

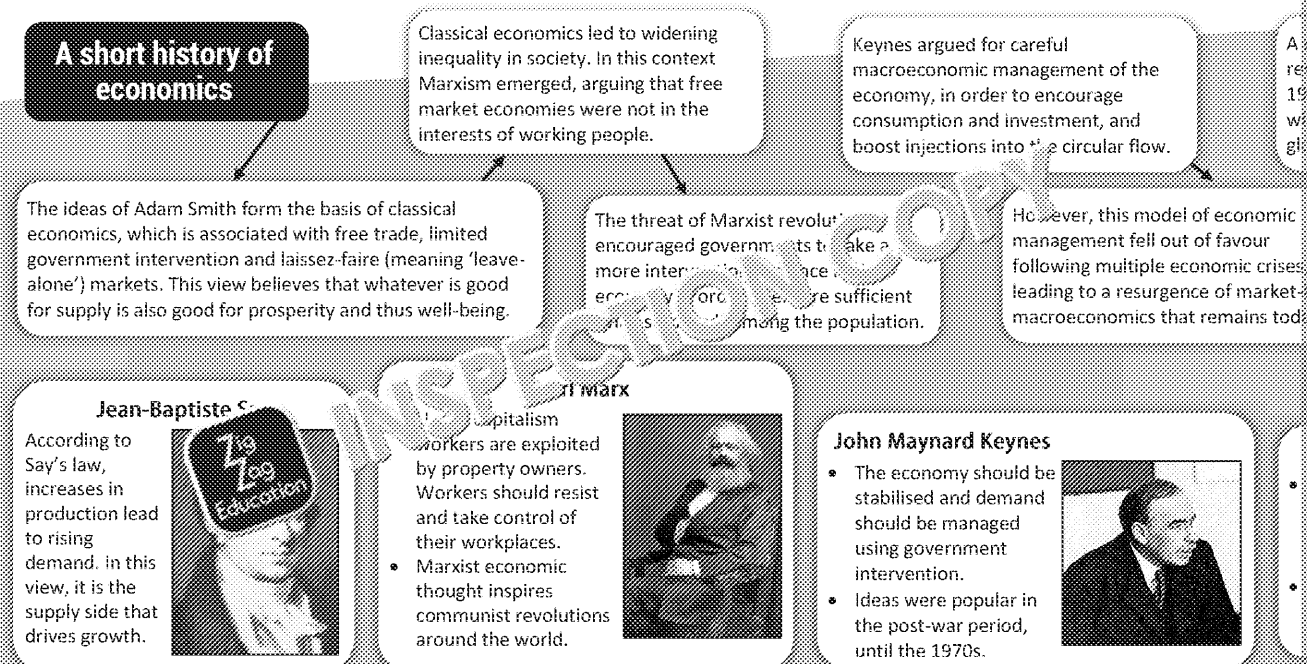
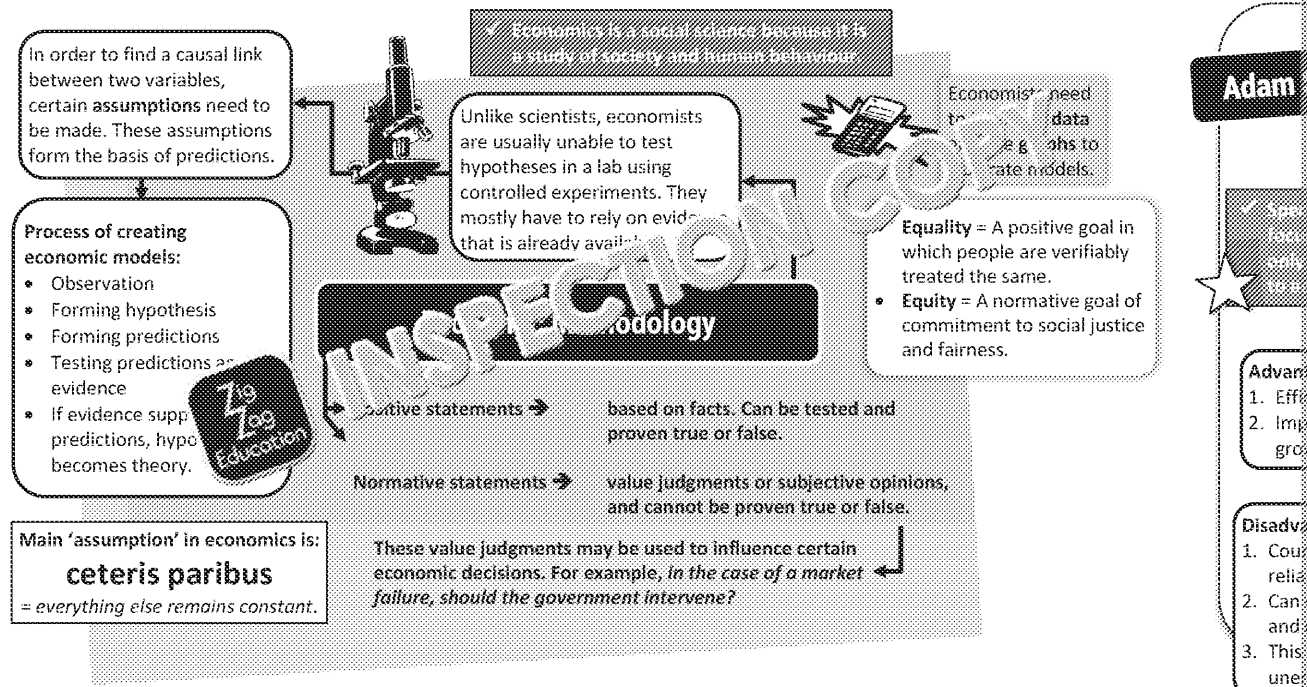
- Market failure
- No public goods
- Bad for the environment
- High inequality

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## 1.2: How do economists approach the world?



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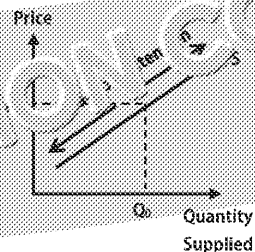
## 2.1-2.3: Supply, demand and market equilibrium

### Supply

Supply is the amount of a good or service that a firm wants to and is able to sell at a certain price, in a given time period.

#### Movement along supply curve:

Changes in price lead to movements along supply curve. For example, if price rises, supply expands.



#### Shift in the supply curve results from:

- Subsidies provided by the government
- Indirect taxes imposed by the government
- Changes in the number of firms providing a particular good or service
- Changes in technology
- Changes in costs, such as wages of labour and prices of capital goods
- Changes in the quantity of a natural resource, such as the emergence of a new gas field

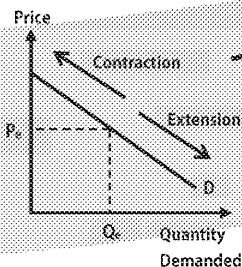
Remember this does not include changes in price variable.

### Demand

Demand is the amount of goods and services that consumers want and can afford to buy, at a given price over a given time period.

#### Movement along demand curve:

Changes in price lead to movements along a demand curve. For example, if price rises, demand contracts.



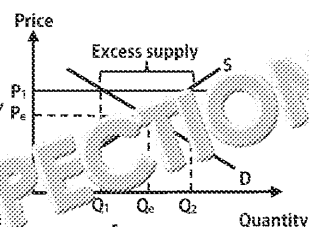
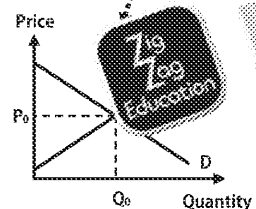
#### Shift in the demand curve result from:

- Population size
- Advertising
- Tastes and preferences
- Income changes
- Others: price of complement/substitute goods

Remember this does not include changes in price variable.

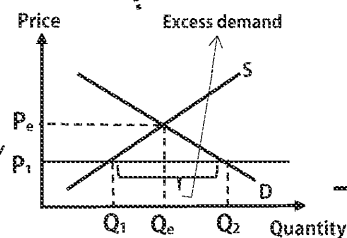
### Market equilibrium

The point where demand and supply meet gives us the equilibrium price and quantity.



To eliminate excess supply, consumers offer lower prices. This allows producers to increase supply. The supply expands and demand contracts until equilibrium is reached.

To eliminate excess supply, producers offer lower prices. Thus, demand rises and supply contracts until equilibrium is reached.



Community welfare is maximised when the quantity of a good produced equals the quantity demanded.

Allocative efficiency is reached when community welfare is maximised.

Market equilibrium is reached when the quantity of a good produced equals the quantity demanded.

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## 2.5 & 2.6: Elasticities

### Price elasticity of demand

Measures the responsiveness of demand following a change in price

$$PED = \frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded of good A}}{\% \text{ change in price of good A}}$$

- PED > 1 means demand is relatively elastic.
- PED < 1 means demand is relatively inelastic.
- PED = 1 means demand has unit elasticity.
- PED = 0 means demand is perfectly inelastic.
- PED = infinity means demand is perfectly elastic.

#### Factors that influence PED

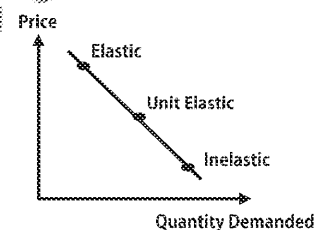
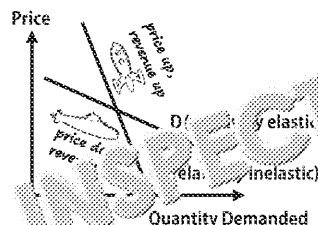
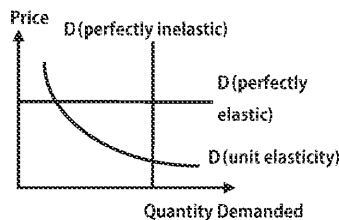
- Time period
- Proportion of income spent
- Availability of substitutes
- Type of good

**Remember:** PED is always negative.

- This means that price and demand always move in the opposite direction.
- For ease we will refer to the absolute values, i.e. '-1' becomes '1' as we ignore the minus.

#### PED and total revenue:

- Total revenue = Price × Quantity
- Elastic demand → fall in price increases consumer spending by a larger proportion, thereby increasing total revenue.
- Inelastic demand → increase in price increases consumer spending by a smaller proportion, thereby increasing total revenue.
- Total revenue is maximised when demand is unit elastic.



### Income elasticity of demand

Measures the responsiveness of demand following a change in income

$$YED = \frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded}}{\% \text{ change in real income}}$$

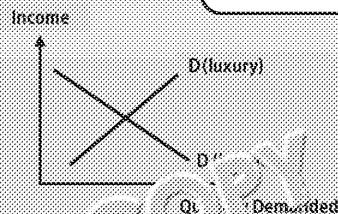
- YED > 0 means demand is elastic/inelastic (i.e. change in income brings about a change in demand in the same direction). (**Normal good**)
- 0 < YED < 1 means demand is relatively inelastic. (**Necessity**)
- YED > 1 means demand is relatively elastic. (**Luxury good**)
- YED = 1 means demand has unit elasticity.
- YED < 0 means demand is elastic/inelastic. (**Inferior good**)

#### Example:

- Income increases.
- demand for car increases (luxury)
- demand for public transport decreases (inferior)

#### Significance of YED:

- Allows firms to decide what prices to keep
- Helps firms in predicting future sales
- Helps firms to strategise, e.g. diversification



Real income decreases from £3,000 to £2,000 a month and the demand for Sainsbury's own brand bread increases from 500 loaves to 1,700

- Calculate the YED.
- What type of good is this? **Inferior good**
- Is the good relatively elastic or inelastic? **Relatively elastic**

$$\begin{aligned} \% \text{ change in demand} &= \frac{1700 - 500}{500} \times 100 = 240\% \\ \% \text{ change in income} &= \frac{3000 - 2000}{2000} \times 100 = 50\% \\ YED &= \frac{240}{50} = 4.8\% \end{aligned}$$

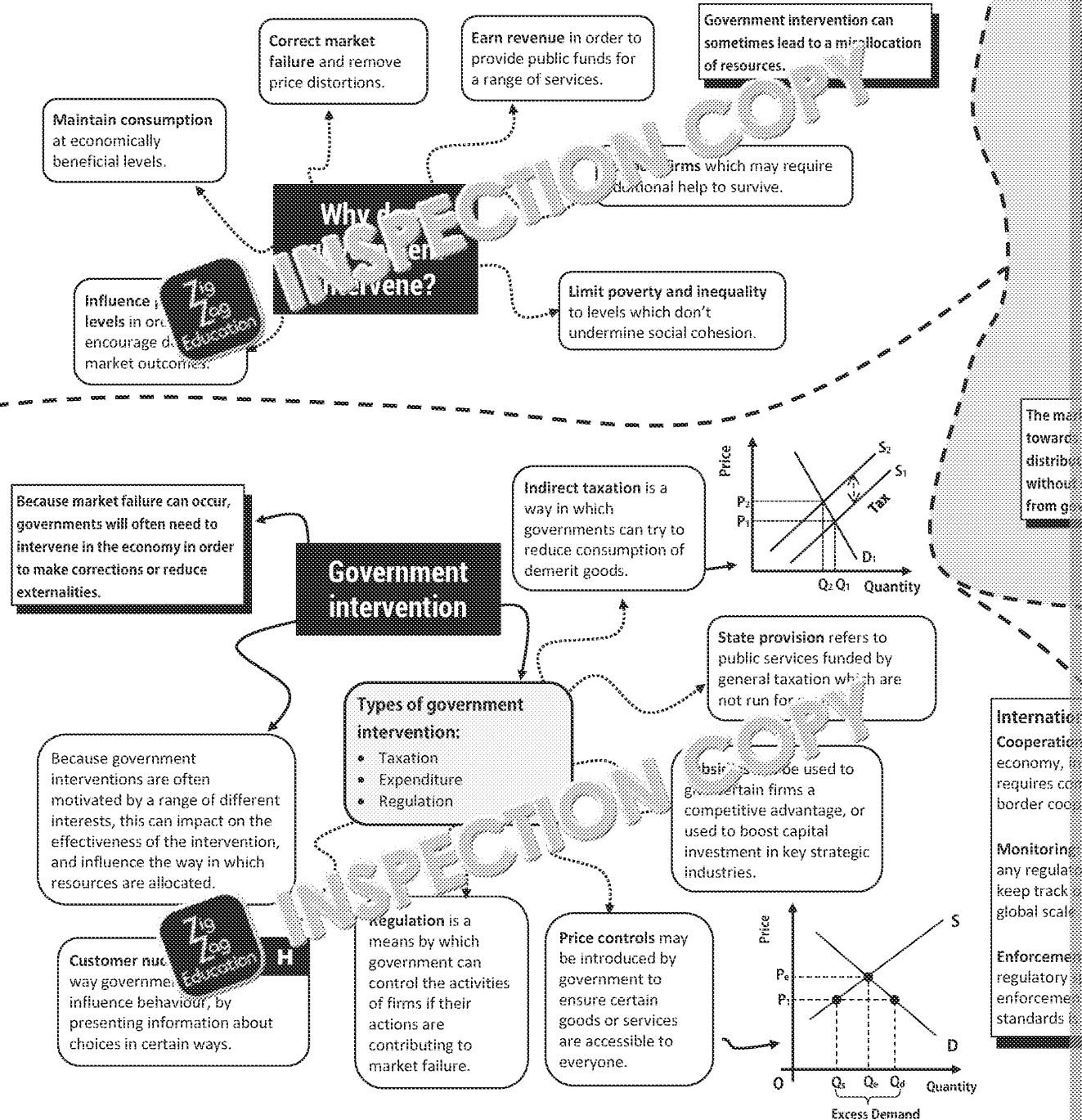
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## 2.7: Role of government in microeconomics



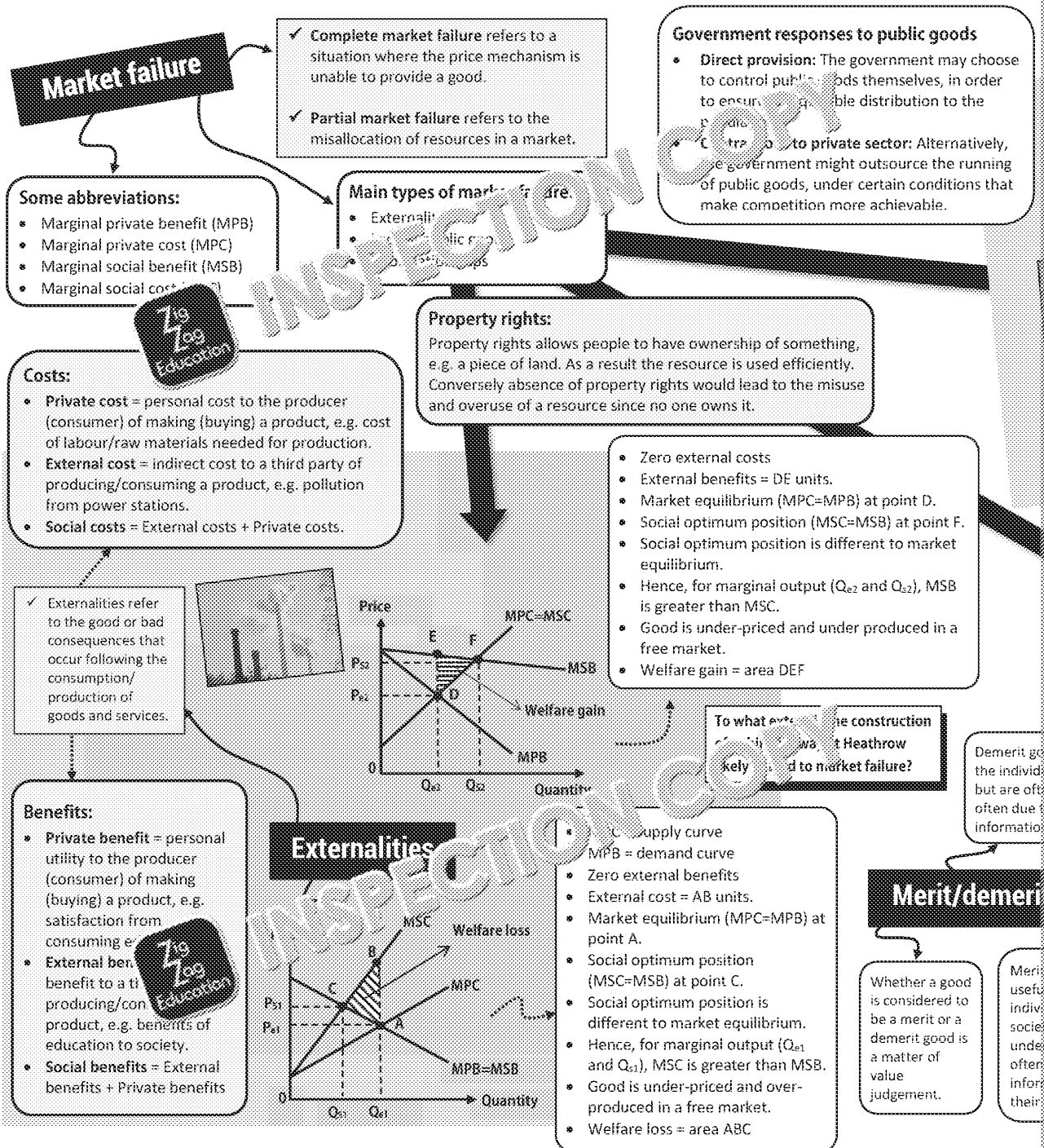
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## 2.8 & 2.9: Market failure, externalities and public goods



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## 2.4: Consumer behaviour and 2.10: Asymmetric information (HL)



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## 2.11: Market failure – market power (HL)

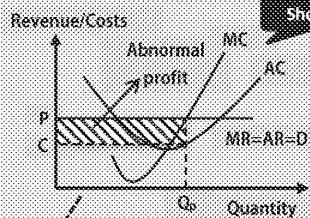
**Remember: Firms seek profit maximisation**  
Profit is maximised when marginal revenue equals marginal cost.

### Perfect competition

#### Characteristics:

- Large number of small firms
- Homogenous products
- No barriers to entry or exit
- Perfect information
- Firms are price takers

#### Horizontal AR



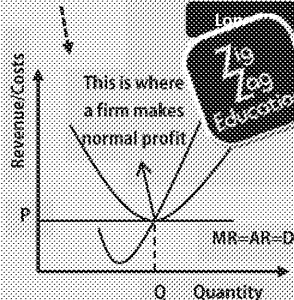
Short run

Firms can make abnormal profit/loss in the short run but not in the long run

Because of perfect information and no barriers to entry/exit

As new firms enter, prices fall and this eliminates any abnormal profit

Firms make normal profit in the long run. Long run equilibrium position is at  $AC = AR$



### Monopolistic competition

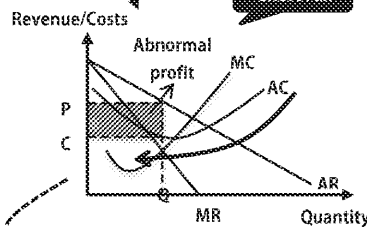
#### Characteristics:

- Large number of small firms
- Similar products
- Low barriers to entry/exit
- Imperfect information
- Limited influence over prices

#### Downward-sloping AR and MR

Example: Newsagents

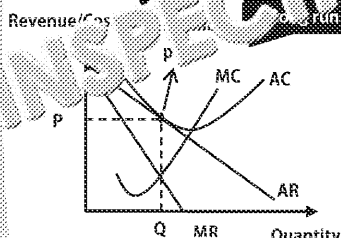
Short run



Firms can make abnormal profit/loss in the short run but not in the long run

Because of low barriers to entry/exit

As new firms enter, a firm's individual demand curve (AR) shifts to the left and eliminates any abnormal profit.



Not allocatively or productively efficient

### Oligopoly

Concentration ratio: the share of total sales held by the top four firms.

Calculating the 4-firm concentration ratio for the UK supermarket industry is simply done by adding the top four firms' market shares (28% + 16% + 16% + 10%). This gives us a concentration ratio of 70%.

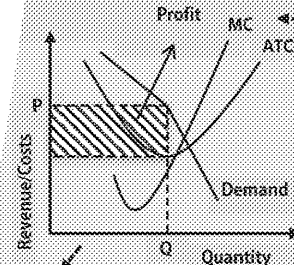
#### Downward-sloping AR and MR

Example: supermarket

#### Characteristics:

- Small number of big firms
- Product differentiation
- High barriers to entry or exit
- Imperfect information
- Considerable influence over prices

Oligopolistic firms are interdependent and follow each other. If one firm cuts its price, others have to follow, otherwise competitors will stop coming to the market.



#### Kinked demand curve

According to the kinked demand curve, firms operating in oligopoly face an elastic demand at high prices and an inelastic demand at low prices. This assumes that other firms will not copy a price increase in an oligopolistic market.

#### Can lead to price wars

#### Types of price competition:

- Price wars: firms keep lowering prices below their competitor's
- Predatory pricing: a firm sells its product at a price below short-run marginal cost to drive its competitors out of business.
- Limit pricing: prices are so low that firms experience a short-run loss

#### Types of non-price competition:

- Offers (e.g. B-O-G-O-F)
- Branding and marketing
- Customer service
- Product improvement

Thus, firms mostly choose to collude.

#### Non-collusive oligopoly

Informal collusion – a price leader emerges and others follow. Technically illegal but very hard to control.

#### Advantages

- Enables innovation
- Competitive
- Price stability

#### Disadvantages

- Enables collusion
- Reduced choice
- High barriers to entry

#### Collusive oligopoly:

Dominant firms form a cartel. The cartel occupies monopoly power. Individual firms may agree to split profit or share technology, etc. but this is illegal.

Because collusion is a well-known oligopolistic feature, the term 'oligopoly' is sometimes used to refer simply to price-setting behaviour, rather than a market structure.

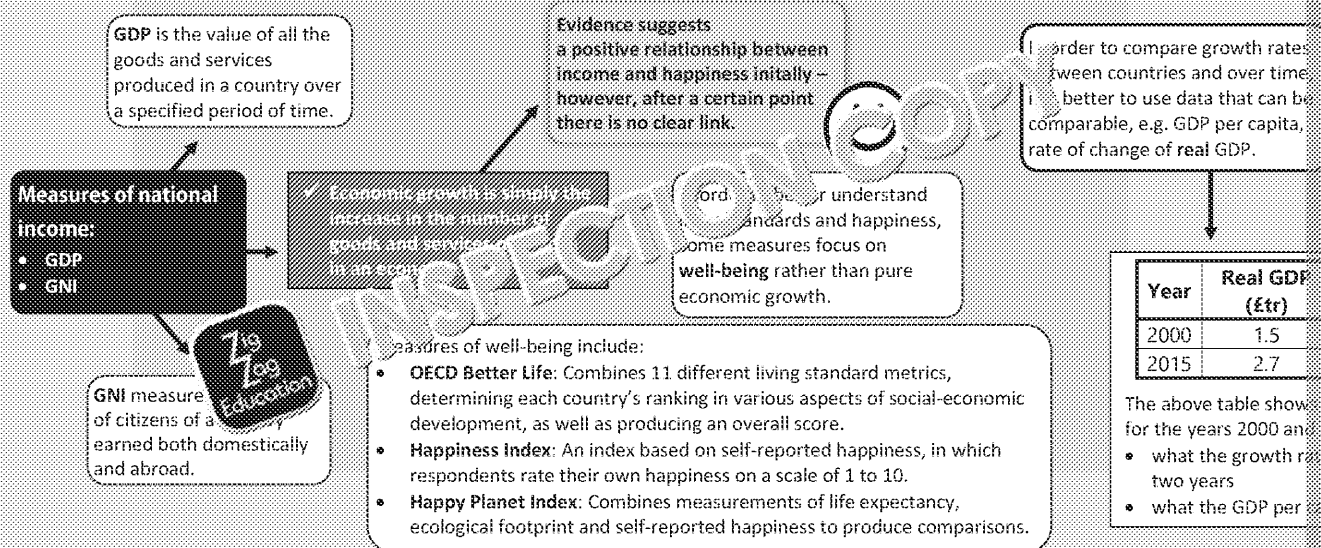
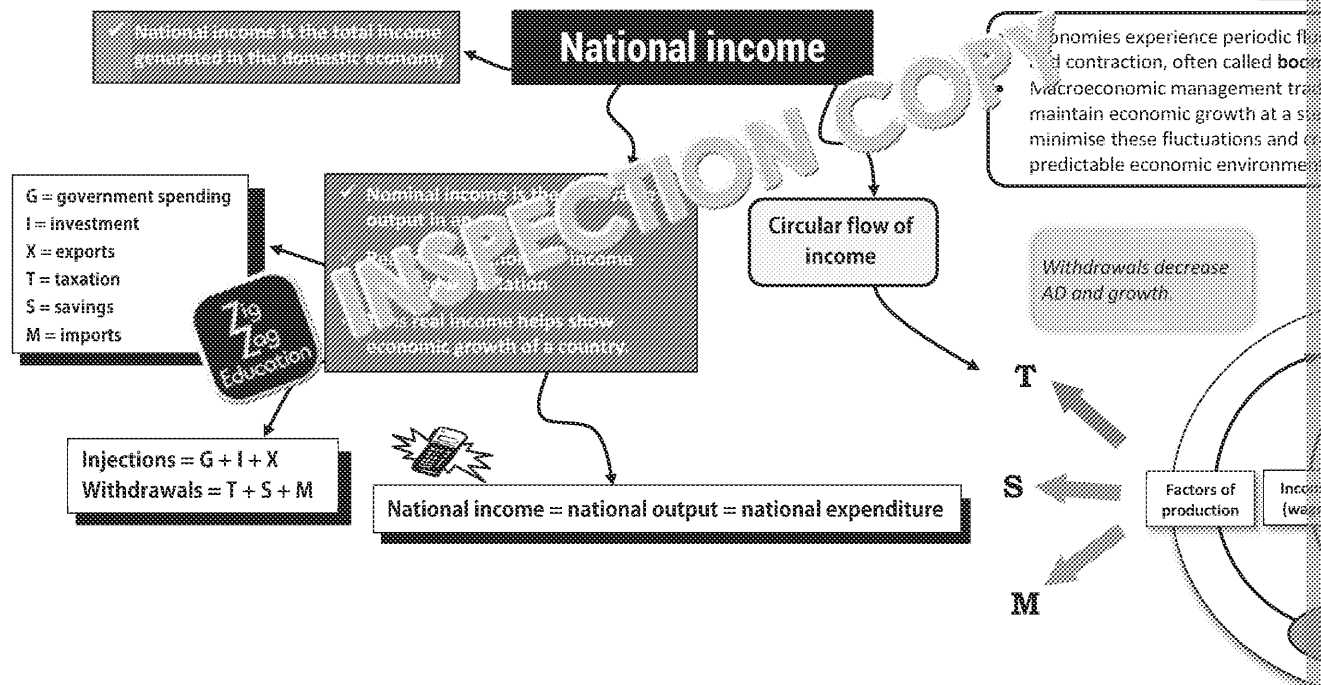
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### 3.1: Measuring economic activity



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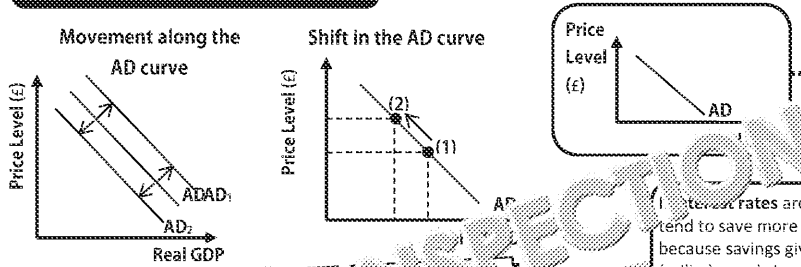
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## 3.2: Variations in economic activity

### Aggregate demand



AD curve is downward sloping because of:

- **Real balance effect** – as prices rise, fewer people are able to buy goods and services.
- **International competitiveness** – if domestic prices are high, exports appear more expensive, while imports appear less expensive. So net exports fall, reducing AD.
- **Interest rate effect** – as price levels rise, interest rates tend to increase. Higher interest rates reduce investment and consumption (because firms and households are more likely to save than spend), thereby reducing AD.

If interest rates are high, consumers tend to save more than they spend because savings give a higher reward (utility) – and vice versa.

**Consumer confidence** also determines the level of consumption. If the economy is doing well and confidence levels are high about the future, consumers are likely to increase consumption – and vice versa.

- **Disposable income** is income that is left after all taxes have been deducted.
- This determines the level of consumption.

**Wealth effects** also matter. If the price of a person's asset (e.g. house) goes up, the person is more likely to increase spending. This is related to the consumer confidence idea.

- Government spending is a part of **fiscal policy**.
- Fiscal policy is about making changes to government spending and/or taxation.
- A government can adopt either a contractionary or an expansionary fiscal policy.
- Contractionary policy is about increased taxation and lower spending.
- Expansionary policy is about lowering taxation and increasing spending.

- **G for government spending**
- Spending on welfare, health, education, etc.
- Forms about 25% of AD in the UK

- Government spending depends on the **trade cycle**.
- When the economy is doing poorly, unemployment rises. So the government has to spend more on welfare while the tax revenue it receives also falls.
- The opposite happens during an economic boom.

**State of the world economy:**

Recession is likely to affect a country's ability to export. In a recession, inflation lowers, so exports may increase. However, if there is a global recession, other countries may also be in recession, leading to more imports. Thus, total volumes of exports and imports may fall, applying for a national/global boom.

**Exchange rates:**

If the value of the pound increases (appreciation), the pound becomes more expensive. Thus, exports fall and imports rise, which reduces net exports, ceteris paribus. The opposite applies to depreciation.

**Degree of protectionism:**

A country can try to protect its exports by subsidizing them and/or taxing imports (tariffs). This is likely to increase net exports. However, if one country uses trade barriers, others are likely to follow suit. This will reduce net exports.

AD refers to the total demand for all the goods and services produced in an economy.

- **C for consumption**
- Total household spending
- Largest component of AD in the UK (about 60%)

If households decide to save more, their consumption will fall.

In 2021, total consumer spending in the UK was £1,892 billion.

In 2022, 44.7% of UK's GDP was used in the form of government spending.

In 2022, UK was a net importer, with a trade gap of £62 billion.

**X - M**

- **X for exports**
- Forms about 2% of AD in the UK

**Real incomes:**

As real incomes rise, demand for imports rises. This decreases net trade (X - M). In other words it increases a country's current account deficit.

**Non-price factors:**

The exchange rate does not affect the quality of traded goods, and changes to exports/imports as a result of exchange rates changes could be mitigated if domestic goods are particularly high-quality or unique.

- Marginal propensity to consume establishes how much extra is consumed following a rise in the disposable income.
- This tends to be higher for low-income families.

- **I for investment**
- Spending by firms on technology, infrastructure, etc.
- Forms about 15% of AD in the UK

- **Gross investment** refers to the total investment made in a period of time.
- **Net investment** = gross investment – depreciation of assets

**Influences on investment:**

- As the economy grows, more jobs are created and incomes rise. So to meet the increased demand, firms increase investment.
- Business confidence is high, so the prospect of investment is high in normal conditions.
- High demand for exports leads to more investment to meet the demand.
- If interest rates are high, investment will be low because the cost of borrowing would be high.
- If credit is easily accessible, investment will be high.
- Tight government regulation is likely to limit investment, e.g. high taxes.

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### 3.3: Macroeconomic objectives

#### Effects of growth:

- Economic growth can improve living standards by creating jobs, raising incomes and improving consumer choice.
- Growth increases tax revenues for the government, enabling more spending.
- Growth can also help government to service existing debts more quickly.
- However, growth is not distributed evenly and can create income inequality.
- Growth can create environmental damage and be unsustainable in the long run.
- Growth creates inflationary pressures.

- Short-run growth** occurs when productivity from its existing resources improves.
- Long-run growth** occurs when a country's productive potential increases.

#### Causes of growth:

##### Demand-side factors:

- Increases in the components of AD will increase growth ( $C, I, G, X - M$ )

##### Supply-side factors:

- Technological advancement
- Education and training
- Demographic changes and migration
- Government regulation

UK's average growth rate between 2010 and 2020 was 1.2%.

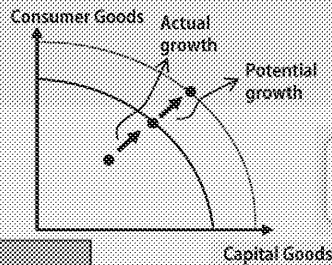
UK's national debt was 101% of its GDP in 2022.

Classical economists argue that there is a trade-off between growth and inflation, the Phillips curve.

In 2022 the UK's unemployment rate was 3.6%.

UK's target inflation rate is 2%.

#### Economic growth



- Actual economic growth** is real growth measured using GDP figures.
- Potential economic growth** is the overall capacity for growth in the economy. This may be higher than actual economic growth.

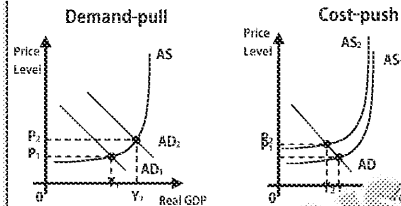
#### Inflation

- Inflation = increase in prices
- Deflation = falling prices
- Disinflation = falling rate of increase

Inflation is measured using the **Consumer Price Index (CPI)**. CPI uses prices of a 'basket' of everyday goods that are compared over time.

#### Causes of inflation:

- Demand pull** – demand pulls prices with it (i.e. a rise in demand pulls prices up).
- Cost push** – high costs of production push prices up.
- Growth in money supply** – increases demand for goods.



#### Limitations of CPI:

- Prices could change due to changes in quality.
- Temporary shocks can exaggerate inflation.
- A typical 'basket' of goods could be different for different groups of consumers (e.g. students, pensioners).
- Price rise for certain goods may not be captured by CPI.

#### Causes of deflation:

- Falling aggregate demand, often associated with recessions.
- Falling costs of production, possibly due to low commodity prices, technological innovation or currency appreciation.
- Negative expectations: low consumer or business confidence.

#### Effects of deflation:

- Deferred consumption – people do not spend as prices fall.
- The real value of debt begins to increase.
- Creates uncertainty for firms and policymakers.
- Creates recessionary pressures, leading to bankruptcies and unemployment.

#### Effects of inflation:

- Creates uncertainty for consumers – may be unwilling to spend → AD falls.
- Loss of international competitiveness → exports fall.
- Savings are now worth less.
- People on fixed incomes will see purchasing power decline.
- Menu costs – firms need to update all prices.
- Shoe leather costs – consumers will have to spend more time and energy trying to find cheaper options.

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## 3.4: Inequality and poverty

**Inequality** = the difference in income, wealth and power between different groups in society.

**Inequity** = the idea that society is structured in an unfair way, which disadvantages certain groups.

### Causes of inequality:

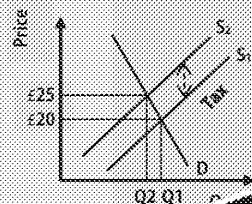
- Regressive tax system
- Weak trade unions
- Unfair pension scheme
- Lack of social security
- Level of education
- Employment/inheritance laws, etc.
- Globalisation and technological change
- Discrimination against certain groups
- Market-orientated policies

### Direct Taxation

- Direct taxation is often applied to any regular income that is received, such as wages, profits or rents.
- The most common example of direct taxation is income tax, which is deducted from people's wages.
- Other examples include corporation tax, National Insurance contributions, and a wealth tax.

### Indirect Taxation

- Indirect taxation is often applied to irregular forms of spending, and often consumption on demerit goods.
- The most common example of indirect taxation is value added tax (VAT), which is added on to most consumption.
- Other examples include duties on demerit goods such as alcohol and tobacco.



Indirect taxation results in a leftward shift of the supply curve

**Marginal tax rates:** governments allocate different rates of tax to different levels of income. This means a higher rate of tax is paid on the income received over a certain threshold.

**Average tax rates:** average tax rates are simply the total amount of tax paid, divided by the total income earned.

**Absolute poverty** refers to a situation where a person is denied basic needs over a long period of time (e.g. food, shelter and clothing).

Measured by calculating the proportion of people living under some income threshold – around \$2 a day.

**Relative poverty** occurs when a person can meet basic needs but earns considerably less than the country's average person.

In Britain any person earning less than half of the median income is considered to be in relative poverty.

**Wealth inequality** refers to the extent of the difference in the value of assets that people in a country own.

**Income inequality** is the extent of the difference in the amount people in a country earn.

**Wealth** = stock concept = asset, e.g. house  
**Income** = flow concept = liquid money

### Alleviating inequality and poverty with taxation

Taxation has a critical role to play in reducing inequality and poverty. Primarily, taxation acts as a means of income and wealth redistribution in society. It redirects resources away from wherever they are being accumulated, and towards wherever they are most needed. The effectiveness of taxation at reducing inequality and poverty is highly dependent on the kind of taxation system that is being implemented. Some taxation systems, such as marginal taxes, are better at reallocating resources than others, such as average taxes. The effectiveness of taxation also depends on how tax revenues are spent.

Income (£)	Rate
0 – 10,000	0%
10,001 – 25,000	20%
25,001 – 40,000	40%
40,001 +	50%

Calculate the average tax rate on an income of £37,000

$$\frac{\text{total taxes paid}}{\text{total income}} \times 100$$

### Causes of changes in poverty:

- High growth → decreases absolute poverty, increases creation of jobs
- High growth → increases average income → increase in relative poverty
- More FDI → more jobs → decrease in poverty
- More trade → more jobs → decrease in poverty
- Increased income tax → reduce poverty

### Policies:

- Transfer payments are direct payments from government which can alleviate poverty.
- Government spending on public services can help to reduce inequality and poverty.
- Minimum wages reduce income inequality.
- Investment in education creates opportunities.
- Legislation banning discrimination.
- Policies which reduce discrimination.
- A universal basic income could provide a standard of living for all.

### Taxation

- **Progressive taxation** increases the tax rate on high earners more, reducing inequality.
- **Regressive taxation** decreases the tax rate on low earners, which can increase inequality.
- **Proportional and indirect taxation** can increase inequality if not used carefully.

Since 2022, the World Bank has set the global poverty line as an income of \$2.15 a day. Those earning less than this are regarded as living in absolute poverty.

### Difficulty measuring poverty

- It is hard to measure many aspects of poverty, such as a lack of opportunity.
- There is no universal agreement on what poverty means.
- Indices which rely on averages can overlook the impoverishment of some people.
- Getting accurate data on those living under poverty lines is difficult.
- Poverty can vary wildly in different contexts and locations.

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## 3.5 & 3.6: Demand-side policies

### Goals of fiscal policy

- A primary aim is to reduce the extent of fluctuations in the business cycle
- Reducing unemployment
- Maintaining economic stability
- Reducing inequality
- Maintaining financial equilibrium with other economies
- Low and stable inflation

### Strengths of fiscal policy

- Can be used in a countercyclical way to maintain stability in the economy, tempering boom periods and alleviating recessionary periods.
- Particularly effective when it comes to an industrial strategy – can be targeted at specific sectors of the economy to achieve specific results.
- Fiscal stimulus is often effective at boosting growth, employment, living standards, etc.
- Fiscal measures are often effective at reducing inequality and tackling poverty.

### Weaknesses of fiscal policy

- Subject to time lags – it can take a long time from initial investment – and effectiveness can be undermined by political considerations.
- Fiscal stimulus is often costly and can substantially add to government debt.
- Some economists argue that public investment leads to 'crowding out' of private investment, though others argue that the two are complementary.

### Others goals of policy

- To maintain the money supply
- To ensure stability of currencies
- To monitor the financial system as lender of last resort

Fiscal policy is the use of government revenue through taxes or revenue from government assets, and engages in either current or capital expenditure. Where fiscal deficits arise, borrowing occurs.

Macroeconomic policies designed to influence aggregate demand.

## Fiscal policy

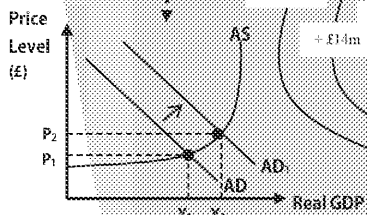
Fiscal policy may be **expansionary**: designed to stimulate aggregate demand through spending and low taxation, or **contractionary**, seeking to lower aggregate demand through spending reductions and low taxation.

Fiscal policy refers to the use of taxes and government spending by the state to influence the economy.

### Keynesian multiplier

The concept of the multiplier states that any government spending yields an economic return greater than that of the initial investment. This is because fiscal stimulus creates a multiplier effect, where each pound spent generates more than one pound of further spending.

### Effect of an expansionary fiscal/monetary policy



The multiplier can be calculated using the formula

$$\frac{1}{1 - MPC}$$

**The marginal propensity to consume (MPC)** = the proportion of income that will be injected by consumer spending

**The marginal propensity to save (MPS)** = the proportion of income that will be leaked by saving

**The marginal propensity to tax (MPT)** = the proportion of income that will be leaked due to taxes

**The marginal propensity to import (MPM)** = the proportion of income that will be leaked by buying imports

### Equilibrium

- Ideal economic interest
- The point where the economy is in equilibrium

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## 3.7: Supply-side policies

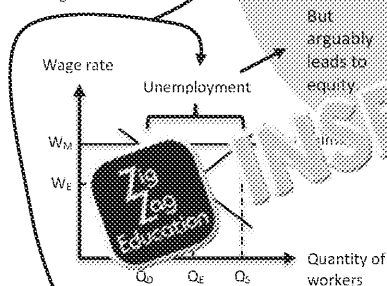


- On the demand side, government spending and tax reductions both increase aggregate demand.
- On the supply side, investment, R&D, incentives and improved human capital all result in increased efficiency and productivity which increases aggregate supply.

### Goals of supply-side policies

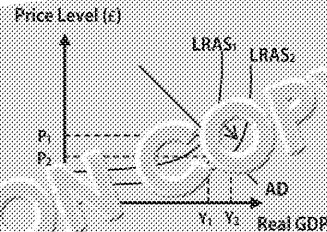
- Increase the productive capacity of the economy
- Incentivise technological innovation
- Improve international competitiveness
- Increase the efficiency of the market
- Improve labour and capital productivity
- Generate more market competition
- Boost employment by reducing the cost of labour

- May also cause inflation.
- Local/foreign firms may relocate abroad (job losses).

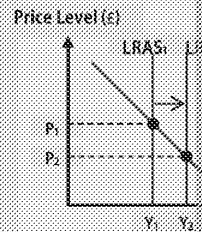


Minimum wage is set above the equilibrium wage rate.

Minimum wage is imposed to avoid very low wages for workers.



Effect of supply-side policies on Keynesian diagram



Effect of supply-side policies on a Classical diagram

**Supply-side improvements** refer to factors that increase the level of supply in the private sector, e.g. greater investment and productivity. Supply-side improvements may help to achieve supply side policies.

**Supply-side policies** are any policies that increase AS.

## Supply-side policies

### Strengths

- Can reduce inflation
- Create more jobs
- Lead to international competitiveness
- Can create longer-term basis for growth

### Weaknesses

- Longer time to see results
- Large opportunity cost
- Slow and incomplete data collection can lead to incorrect decisions

**Improve infrastructure** = investment in transport links, communication networks and housing, etc. can help to increase AS, as it reduces costs of production.

- **Research and technology** = investment in R&D can make production more efficient, cheaper (in the long-run) and quicker.
- **Increase incentives** = raising minimum wages or providing perks can increase the supply of labour.
- **Increasing competition** = e.g. preventing monopolies will allow more firms to enter the market, increasing AS.
- **Reforming labour market** = e.g. abolishing the minimum wage or trade unions will allow firms to hire more workers.
- **Human capital** = providing vocational training and subsidising education can create more skilled workers.

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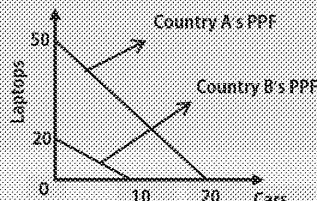
## 4.1–4.4: International trade

### Impacts of international trade:

Positive	Negative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase in consumer choice</li> <li>• Low prices for consumers</li> <li>• Improved living standards</li> <li>• Access to cheap factor inputs for businesses</li> <li>• Firms can make higher profits due to access to a bigger market</li> <li>• Encourages specialisation → increased efficiency</li> <li>• Reduction in unemployment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased environmental degradation/pollution</li> <li>• Increased interdependence → recession in one country spreads quickly</li> <li>• Access to cheap labour abroad → local unemployment will rise</li> </ul>

Advantages of trade and specialisation	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Greater choice for consumers</li> <li>• Cheaper goods for consumers</li> <li>• Greater efficiency</li> <li>• Firms experience economies of scale</li> <li>• Wider market → increased sales</li> <li>• Increased income → higher standard of living</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Countries become more dependent on each other</li> <li>• Terms of trade may move against a country's exports</li> <li>• Over-reliance on a few exports</li> <li>• Countries lacking resources may struggle to compete</li> <li>• Unwanted goods may be imported at low prices, which may harm local industries</li> <li>• May widen the gap between rich and poor countries</li> <li>• Bad for 'infant industries'</li> </ul>

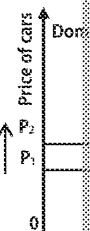
	Cars production	Laptops production
Country A	20	50
Country B	10	20



Country A has **absolute advantage** in the production of both goods (i.e. it can produce more of both goods *cheaply* using the same resources than country B).

Country B has **comparative advantage** in the production of cars (i.e. it can produce cars at a lower opportunity cost than country A).

Country A needs to forego 2.5 units of laptops to produce 1 car (20:50).  
Country B needs to give up 2 units of laptops to produce 1 car (10:20).



- Tariff increase on the price of imports → lower demand
- Revenue for government (ABCD)
- Domestic consumer surplus increased by  $P_1P_2DE$
- Welfare loss (ADE + BCF)

### Trade protection

- The **World Trade Organisation (WTO)** promotes free trade by following a policy of **trade liberalisation** – a platform for trade negotiations and settlement of any trade disputes between member countries.
- Conflict between WTO and regional trade agreements → latter lead to trade diversion, which decreases trade elsewhere and undermines comparative advantage.

### Trade blocs + WTO

Bilateral – Developed countries
Regional – Developed countries
Regional – Developing countries
Multilateral – International trade organisation

### Types of trade blocs:

1. **Free Trade Area** (these can be bilateral or regional)
  - Free movement of goods and services
  - Each member can set their own trade barriers for non-members
2. **Customs union**
  - Member countries have a joint trade policy for all non-members
3. **Common market**
  - Free movement of factor inputs
4. **Monetary union**
  - Single currency – as in the **Eurozone**
  - **Conditions necessary for success include:**
    - Similar growth patterns and **business cycles** of member countries
    - Similar cultures to decrease barriers to free movement
    - Increase spending in adversely affected (by this movement)

### Advantages and disadvantages of trade blocs

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No transaction costs</li> <li>• Greater market access → economies of scale → lower costs</li> <li>• Stronger bargaining power in multilateral organisations</li> <li>• Attract FDI → good for growth</li> <li>• International cooperation increases political stability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transition costs, e.g. <b>menu costs</b></li> <li>• Loss of sovereignty</li> <li>• Undermine multilateral arrangements (such as WTO)</li> <li>• No control over monetary policy (in monetary unions)</li> </ul>

### Monetary unions

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduce exchange rate costs, eliminate currency risk, more efficiency, greater information, boosts investment and growth</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loss of monetary independence can exacerbate economic crises, leading to higher inflation and/or unemployment</li> </ul>

### Reasons for restrictions on free trade

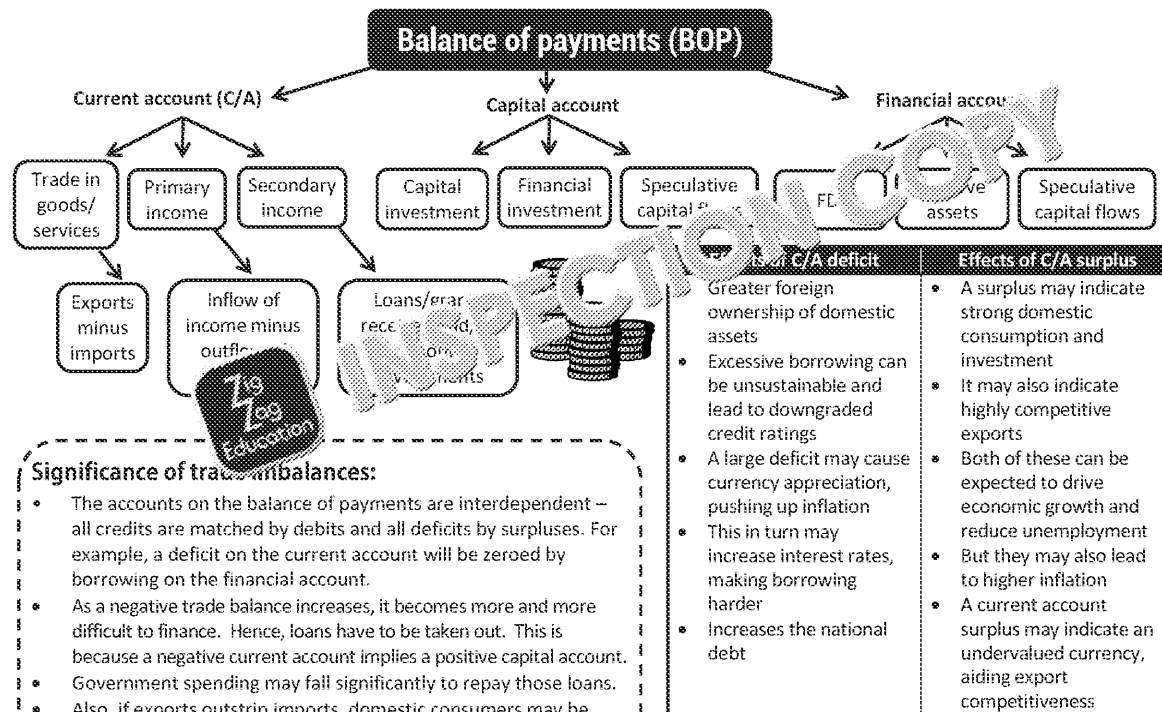
1. Protecting local industries:
  - Infant industries are new industries that need time to mature out
  - Sunset industries are firms in decline but that may be useful
  - Countries need to be self-sufficient in industries such as defence and energy
2. Preventing 'dumping' from very cheap imports
3. Protecting jobs
4. Diversification of underdeveloped economy
5. Correcting current account deficit
6. Avoiding unfair competition
7. Retaliation against trade restrictions

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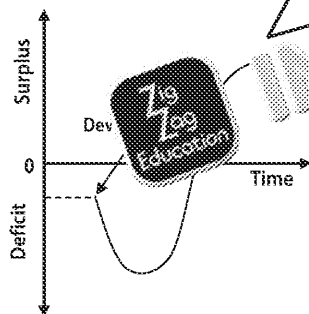


## 4.5 & 4.6: Exchange rates and Balance of payments



### Current account (C/A)

- The Marshall-Lerner condition** posits that depreciation only leads to a C/A improvement if  $(PED_{\text{exports}} + PED_{\text{imports}} > 1)$ .
- The J curve** suggests changes in the ER have time lags. Initially C/A deteriorates because in the short run exports and imports have inelastic demands. Later, as demands become more elastic, we see an improvement.



### Reducing current account imbalances:

- Expenditure-reducing policies**  
Policies that reduce AD, e.g. increasing income tax → reduces disposable income → demand for imports decreases.  
+ Also effective at tackling inflation  
– May harm growth and employment
- Expenditure-switching policies**  
Policies that affect demand for imports, i.e. trade barriers such as imposing tariff → imports become expensive → demand for imports falls.  
+ Effective in short term to protect industries  
– Could lead to trade retaliation
- Supply-side policies**  
Policies that affect demand for exports, e.g. increasing spending on education → improves labour productivity → improves quality/quantity of exports → demand for exports rises.  
+ Useful for solving long-term structural issues  
– Can come with significant time lags
- Doing nothing**  
Due to the downsides of the policies mentioned above, some countries may opt to do nothing

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## 4.7: Sustainable development

✓ Sustainability is the ability to maintain a system over a long period of time – specifically to maintain the natural environment for future generations.

### Sustainable Development

✓ Development is the process of industrialisation and growth, and the standard is that it is sustainable.

✓ Sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without damaging the environment for future generations.

✓ 17 goals set by United Nations General Assembly in 2015

#### Sustainability and poverty

- Impoverished people are overwhelmingly involved in the primary sector of the global economy, meaning they are most affected by the depletion of natural resources and extreme weather.
- Unequal societies rely on economic growth to maintain living standards, which often leads to resource depletion.
- The more unequal a society is, the less the voices of those who depend on the natural world are heard as the economy grows.
- Thus, policymakers are concerned to treat sustainability and poverty as a single issue.



#### Microgrids: Solar in Yemen



- Goal 5: Gender Equality
- Goal 8: Decent Work and Growth
- Goal 7: Affordable Clean Energy
- Goal 11: Sustainable Communities

- Yemen is one of the world's most impoverished countries. The country has been plunged into a humanitarian crisis due to its ongoing civil war.
- Yemen's energy supply – produced from oil and gas – does not meet demand, meaning many live without a reliable source of energy to meet their daily needs.
- The Enhanced Rural Energy in Yemen (ERRY) project grants micro-finance loans to women to help them start a business.
- Participants are provided with a mini solar farm sufficient to generate enough energy for a small neighbourhood, and trained in maintenance.
- They are then able to generate an income by selling energy to local households and businesses.
- In the areas where microgrids have been installed, unemployment and poverty have fallen drastically. Living costs have fallen due to a cheap and sustainable local source of energy. Prejudice against women has also reduced after local communities have seen them operate as trained solar engineers.

#### Regenerative Farming



- Goal 2: Zero Hunger
- Goal 5: Gender Equality
- Goal 13: Climate Action
- Goal 15: Life On Land

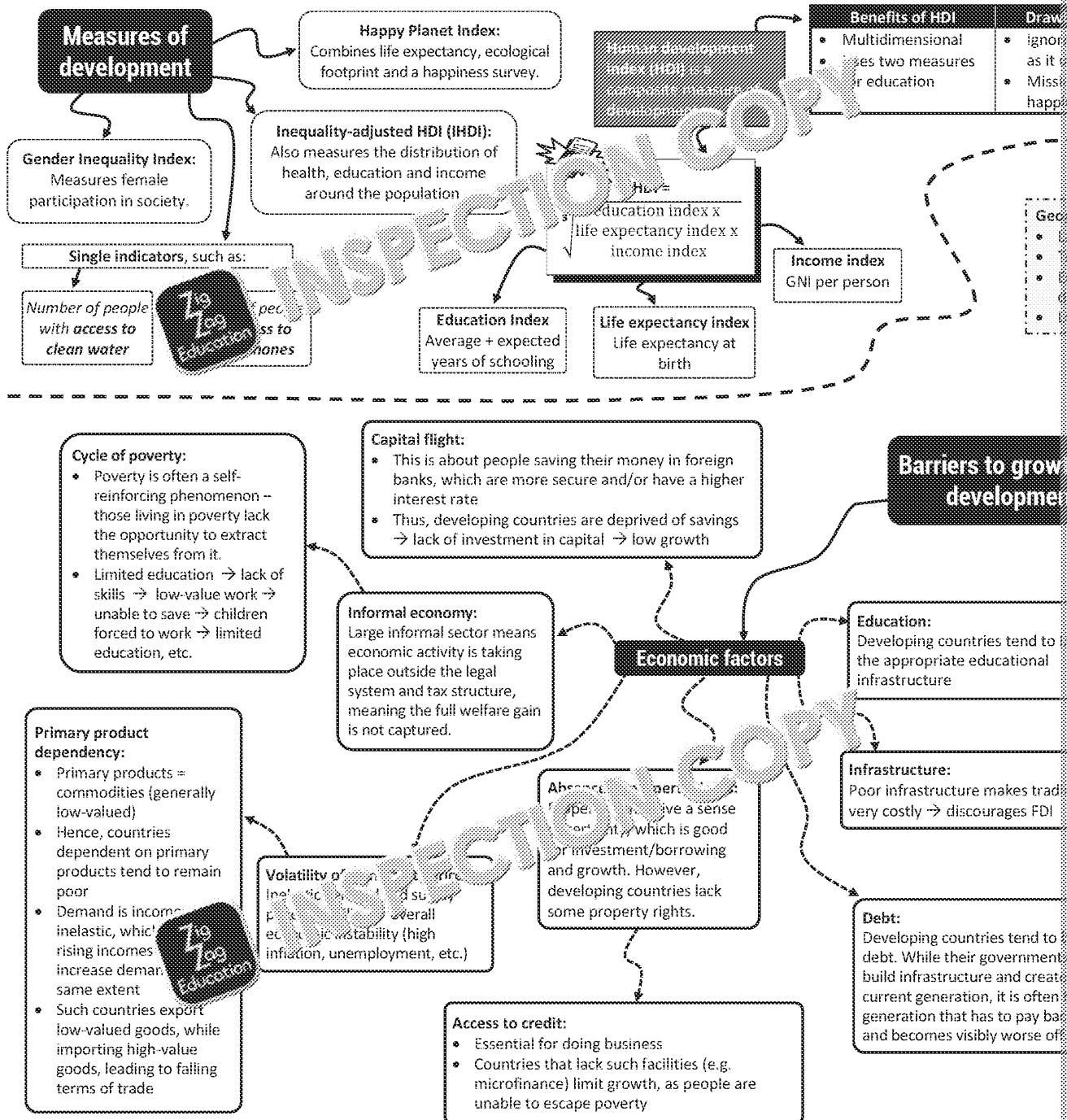
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## 4.8 & 4.9: Development

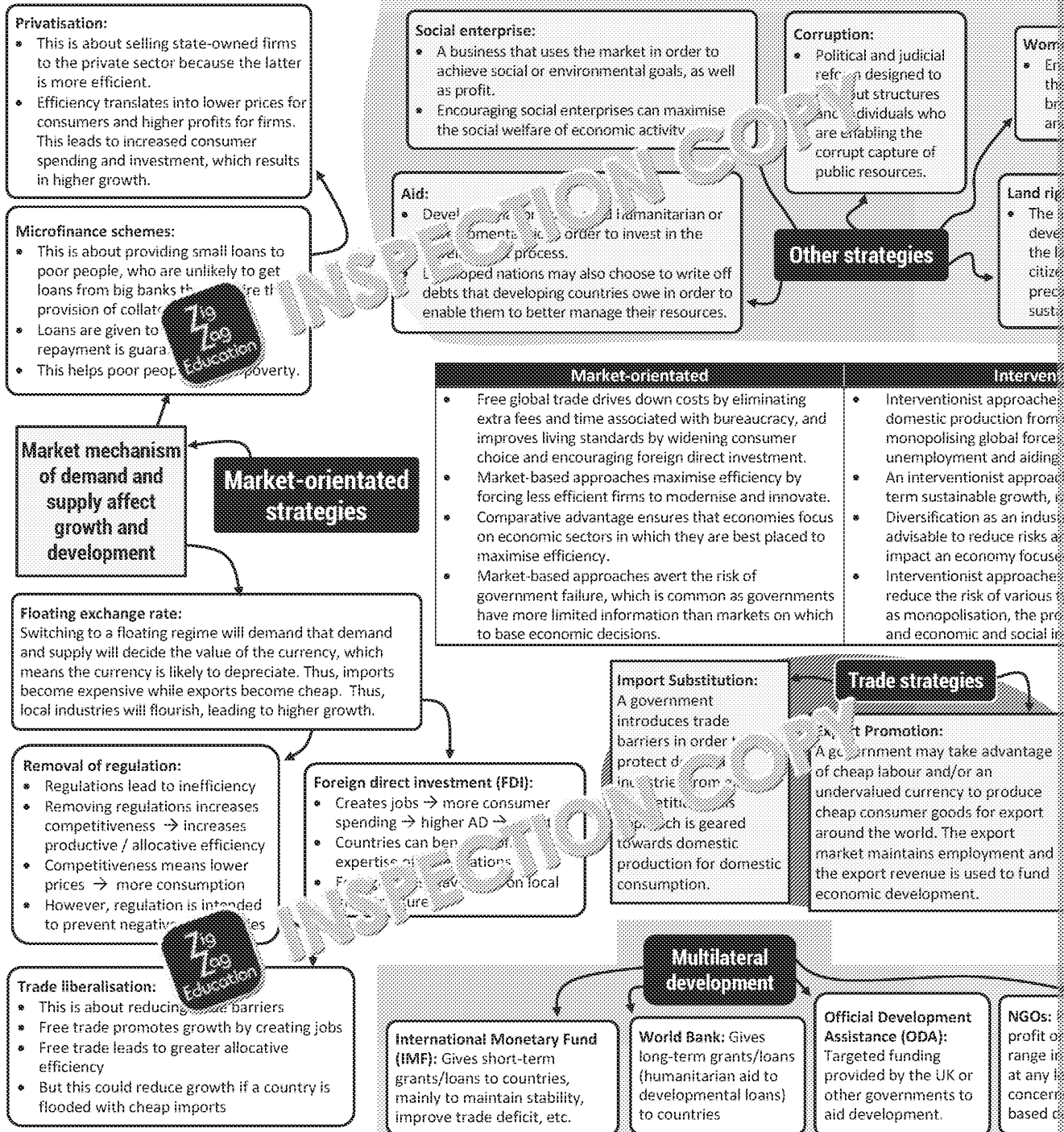


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## 4.10: Strategies influencing growth and development



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# 1.1: What is economics?

These nine concepts will be a recurring theme in your study of economics. You will need to understand their relevance and evaluate their importance to strong economic performance.

- Scarcity
- Choice
- Efficiency
- Equity
- Well-being
- Sustainability
- Change
- Interdependence
- Intervention

**Economic resources**  
all things that help us produce goods and services.

Human workers.

## Economics as a social science

Microeconomics →

Macroeconomics →

✓ Economics is a social science because it is a study of society and human behaviour.

Define macroeconomics and microeconomics

Main economic

= scarcity because resources are limited while our wants are infinite

PPCs and the problem of choice

Renewable resources replenish quickly, e.g. sunlight.

Non-renewable resources do not replenish quickly, e.g. oil.

✓ PPC shows the combinations of types of goods and services that can be produced with limited resources.

Fill in the blanks  
- Consumer goods  
- Capital goods

- \_\_\_\_\_ are directly bought by households.
- \_\_\_\_\_ are used to make capital goods.
- So more \_\_\_\_\_ help produce more consumer goods.

What are the four factors of production?

\_\_\_\_\_ refers to the risk-taking attitude that is required for a person to be able to run a business.

\_\_\_\_\_ – Technology or machinery to facilitate in converting raw materials into finished products.

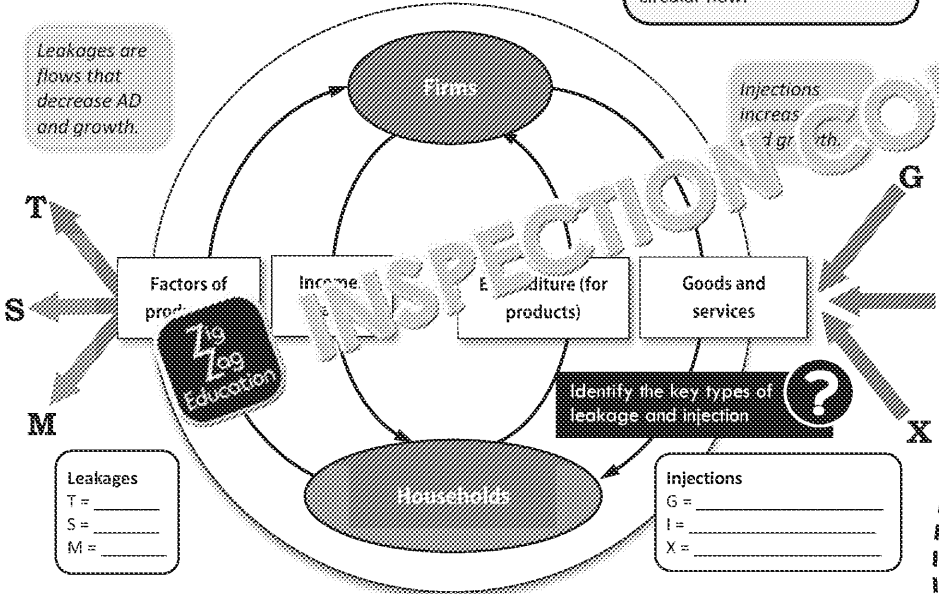
**Scarcity** requires us to choose how resources are scarce, then how they can be made to the benefit of future generations.

## Circular flow of income

The circular flow model visualises the way that income flows in, out and around the economy.

All economic actors are interconnected and play a role in injecting income into and leaking income from the circular flow.

Leakages are flows that decrease AD and growth.



Economic growth is created by increasing the number of consumers.

Advantages of free market economy

- Efficiency
- Competition

✓ Free market economy

Disadvantages:

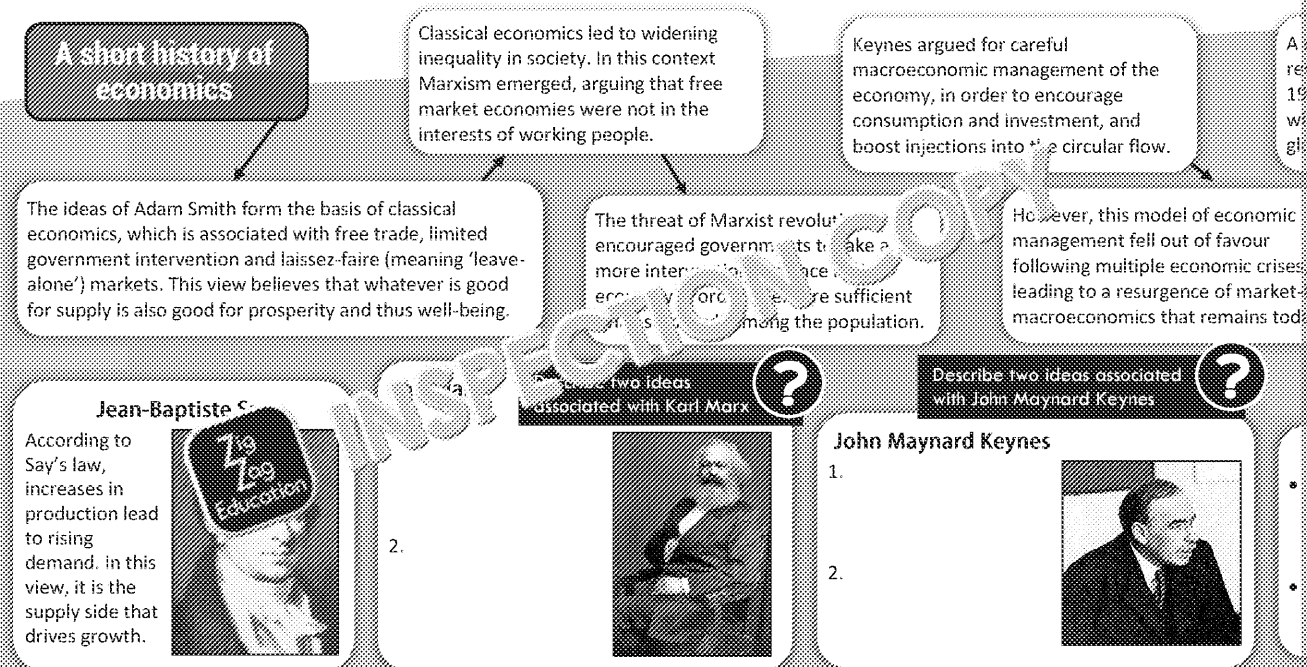
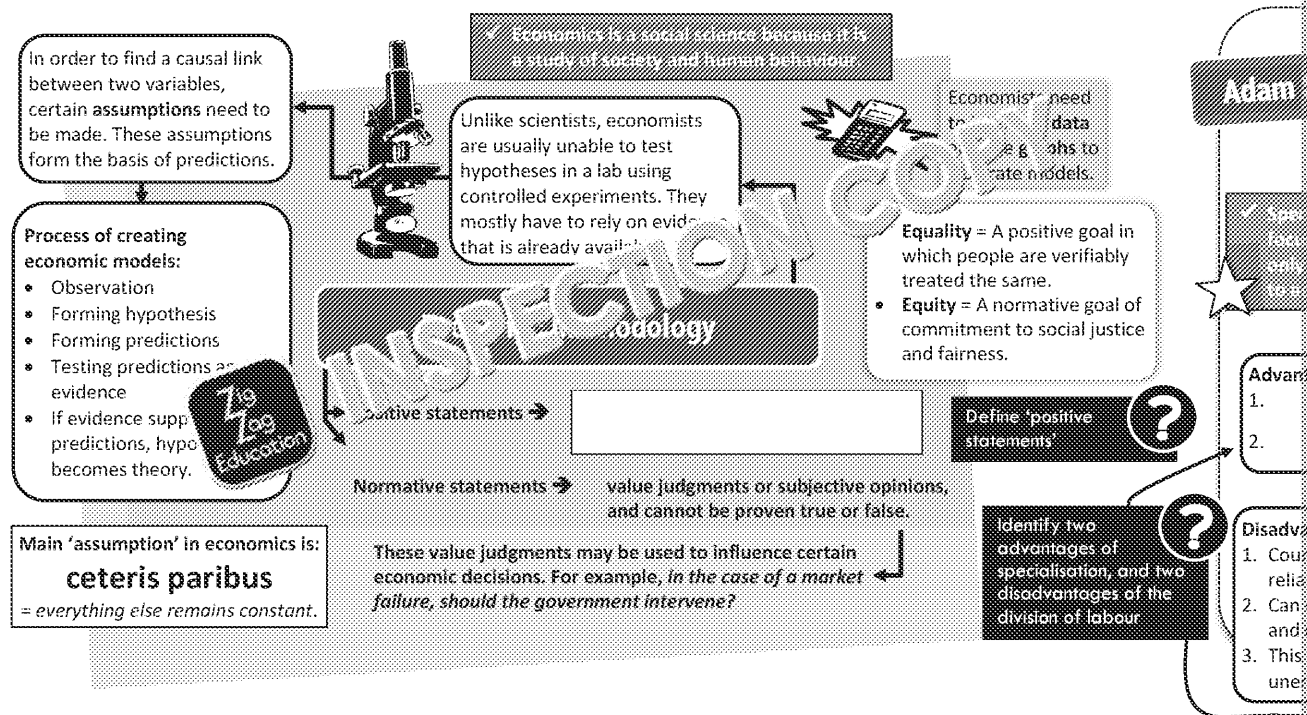
- Market failure
- No public goods
- Bad for the environment
- High inequality

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## 1.2: How do economists approach the world?



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## 2.1-2.3: Supply, demand and market equilibrium

### Supply

Define supply

#### Movement along supply curve:

Changes in price lead to movements along supply curve. For example, if price rises, supply expands.

Provide any three factors that will cause the supply curve to shift

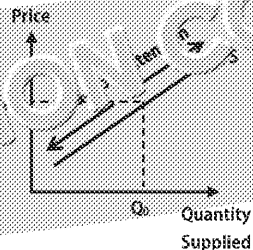


Shift in the supply curve results from:

1.

3.

Remember this does not include price variable.



### Demand

Define demand

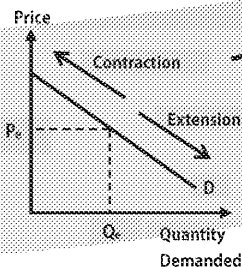
#### Movement along demand curve:

Changes in price lead to movements along a demand curve. For example, if price rises, demand contracts.

Shift in the demand curve result from:

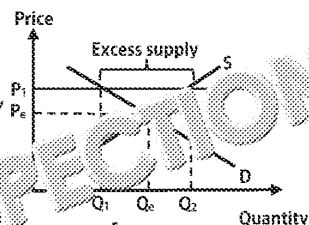
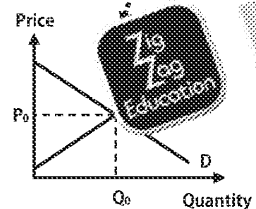
- Population size
- Advertising
- Tastes and preferences
- Income changes
- Others: price of complement/substitute

Remember this does not include changes in price variable.



### Market equilibrium

The point where demand and supply meet gives us the equilibrium price and quantity.

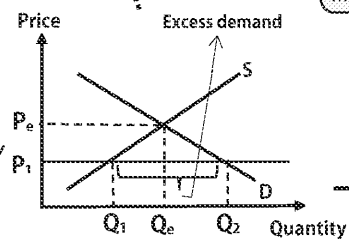


To eliminate excess supply, producers must lower their prices. This allows demand to increase. Thus, supply expands and demand contracts until equilibrium is reached.

Fill in the blanks



To eliminate excess supply, producers must lower their prices. Thus, demand increases and supply contracts until equilibrium is reached.



Community welfare is maximised when the market is in equilibrium.

Allocative efficiency is reached when community surplus is maximised and deadweight loss is zero.

Market equilibrium is reached when the quantity demanded equals the quantity supplied.

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## 2.5 & 2.6: Elasticities

### Price elasticity of demand

PED =  $\frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded of good A}}{\% \text{ change in price of good A}}$

- PED > 1 means demand is relatively elastic
- PED < 1 means demand is relatively inelastic
- PED = 1 means demand has unit elasticity
- PED = 0 means demand is perfectly inelastic
- PED = infinity means demand is perfectly elastic

#### Factors that influence PED

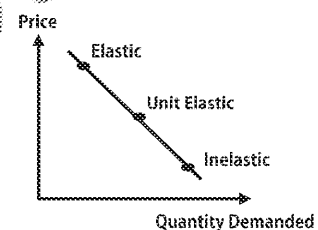
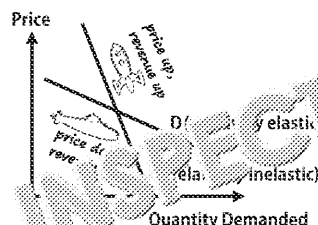
- Time period
- Proportion of income spent
- Availability of substitutes
- Type of good

**Remember:** PED is always negative.

- This means that price and demand always move in the opposite direction.
- For ease we will refer to the absolute values, i.e. '-1' becomes '1' as we ignore the minus.

#### PED and total revenue:

- Total revenue = Price  $\times$  Quantity
- Elastic demand  $\rightarrow$  fall in price increases consumer spending by a larger proportion, thereby increasing total revenue.
- Inelastic demand  $\rightarrow$  increase in price increases consumer spending by a smaller proportion, thereby decreasing total revenue.
- Total revenue is maximised when demand is unit elastic.



### Income elasticity of demand

Define each

YED =  $\frac{\% \text{ change in quantity demanded}}{\% \text{ change in income}}$

Fill in the missing elements of the formulae

Fill in the blanks

- YED > 0 means demand is \_\_\_\_\_ (i.e. change in income brings about a change in demand in the same direction). (**Normal good**)
- $0 < \text{YED} < 1$  means demand is relatively \_\_\_\_\_ (**Necessity**)
- YED > 1 means demand is relatively \_\_\_\_\_ (**Luxury good**)
- YED = 1 means demand has unit \_\_\_\_\_
- YED < 0 means demand is \_\_\_\_\_ (**Inferior good**)

Fill in the blanks

Example:  
Price of car increases,  
its demand decreases

Draw and label the following demand curves on the diagram:

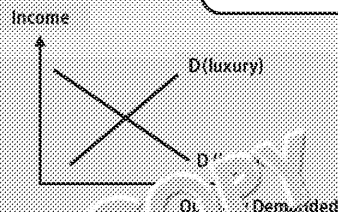
- Perfectly elastic
- Perfectly inelastic
- Unit elastic

Example:

- Income increases,
- demand for car increases (luxury)
- demand for public transport decreases (inferior)

#### Significance of YED:

- Allows firms to decide what prices to keep
- Helps firms in predicting future sales
- Helps firms to strategise, e.g. diversification



Work out the following question on YED. Please show your workings

When income decreases from £3,000 to £2,000 a month and the demand for Sainsbury's own brand bread increases from 500 loaves to 1,700

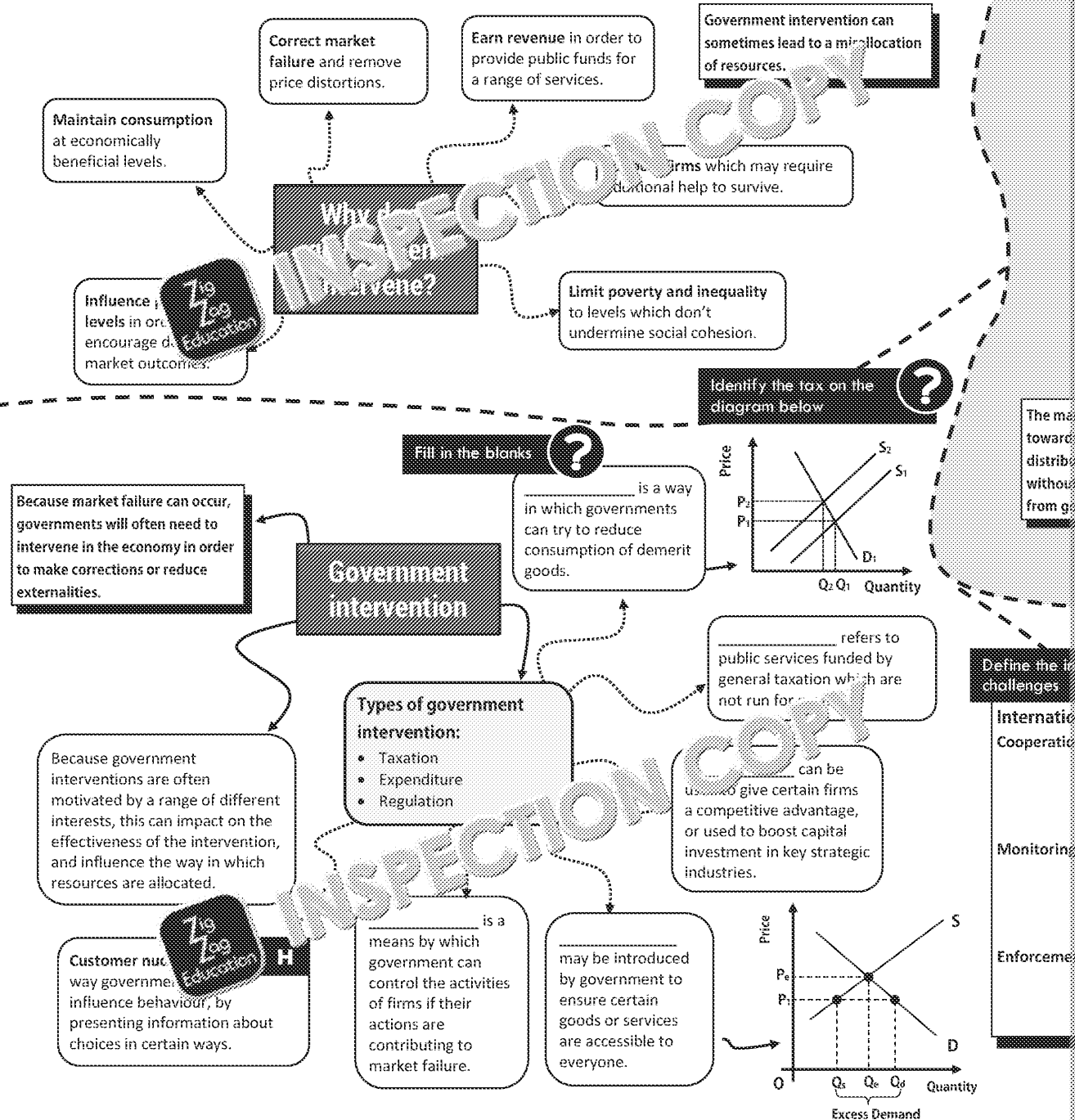
- Calculate the YED.
- What type of good is this? \_\_\_\_\_
- Is the good relatively elastic or inelastic? \_\_\_\_\_

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## 2.7: Role of government in microeconomics



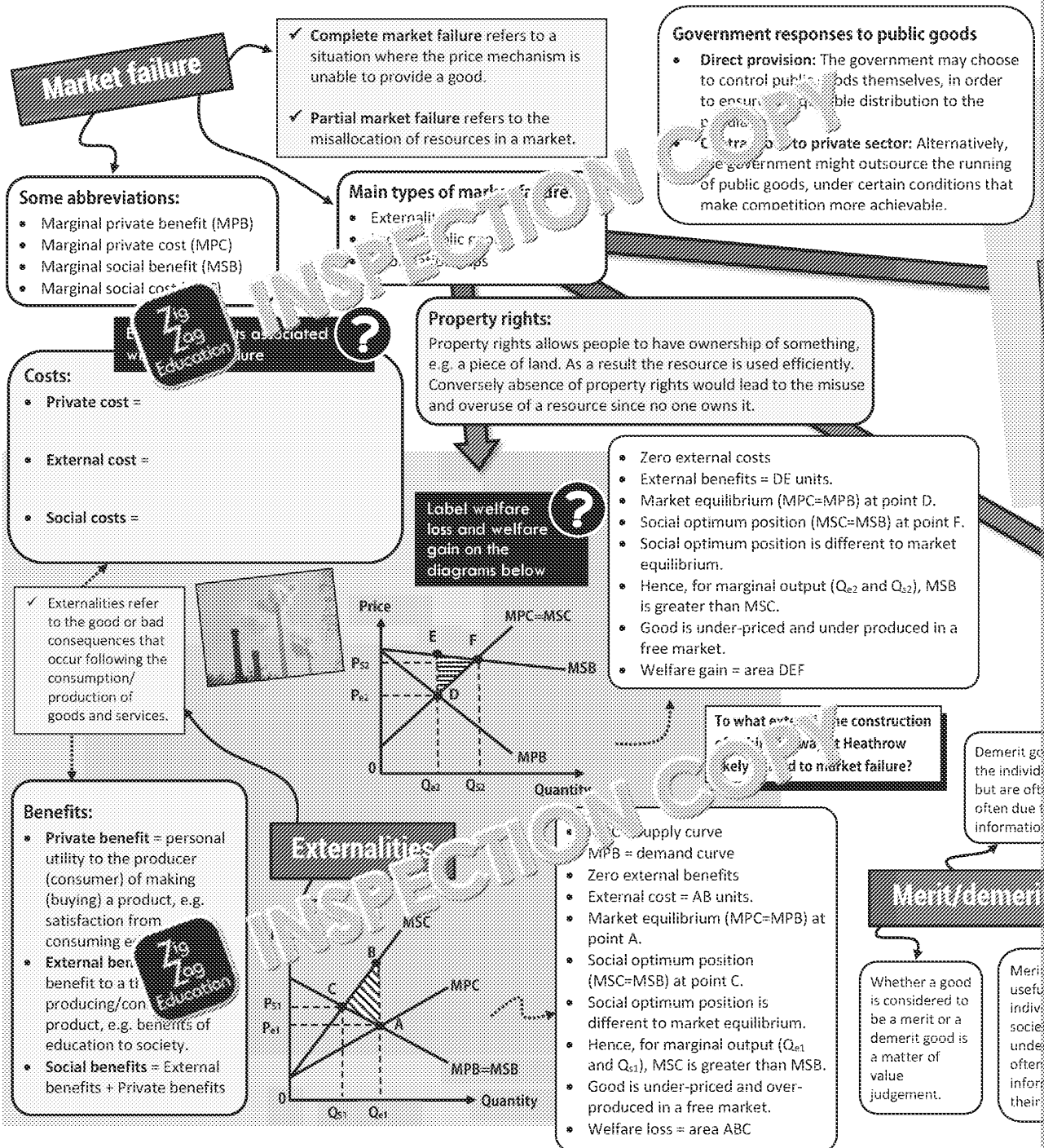
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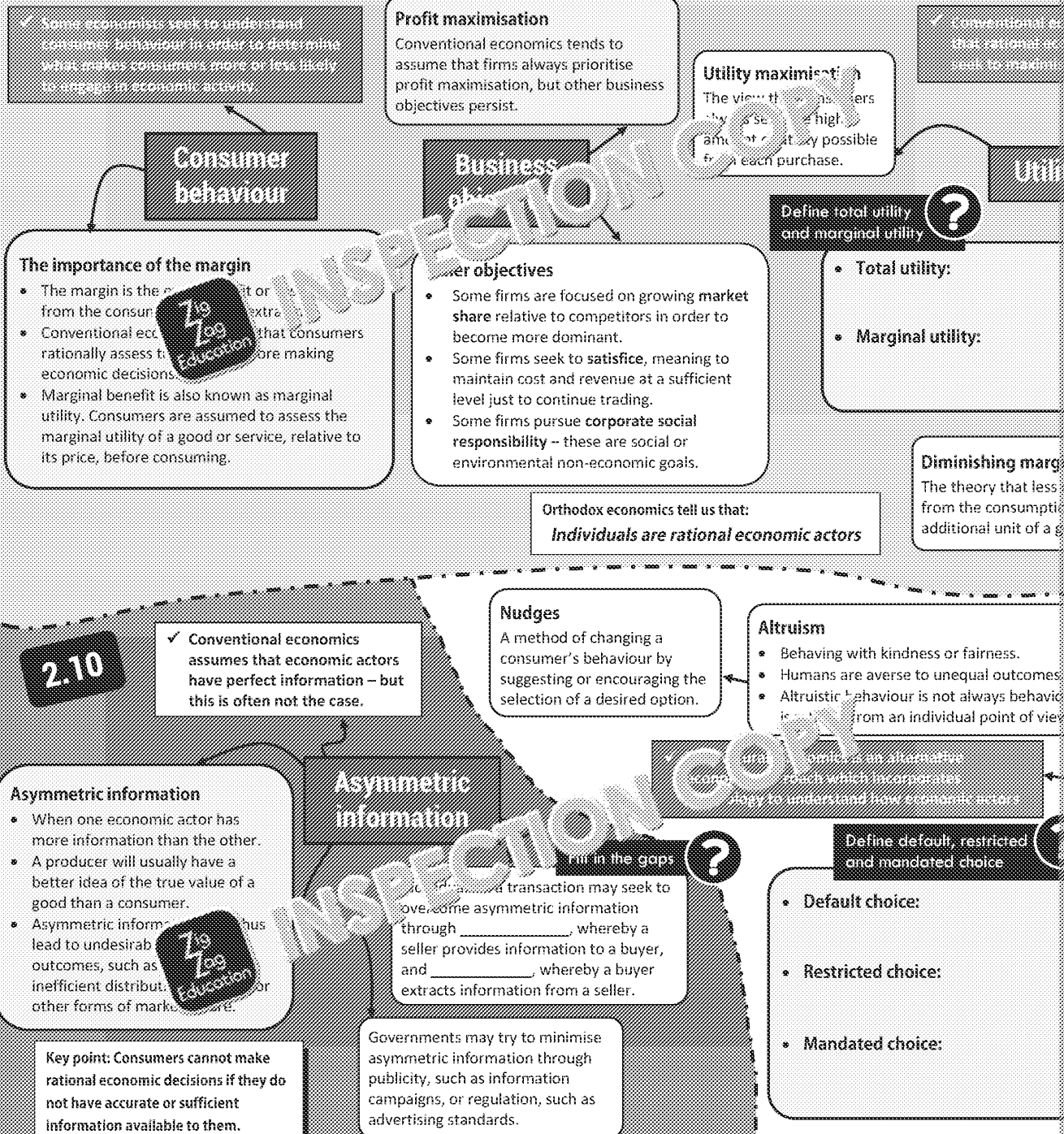




## 2.8 & 2.9: Market failure, externalities and public goods



## 2.4: Consumer behaviour and 2.10: Asymmetric information (HL)



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## 2.11: Market failure – market power (HL)

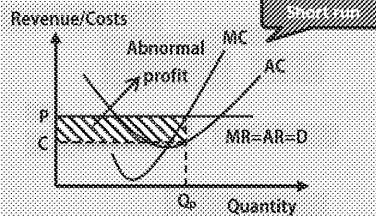
Remember: Firms seek profit maximisation  
Profit is maximised when marginal revenue equals marginal cost

### Perfect competition

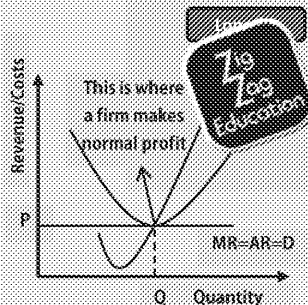
#### Characteristics:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Horizontal AR



Explain why firms in a perfectly competitive market can make abnormal profit in the short run but not the long run



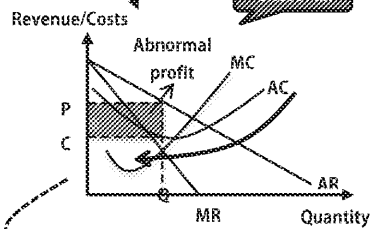
### Monopolistic competition

#### Characteristics:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Downward-sloping AR and MR

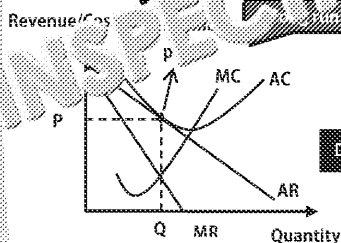
Example: Newsagents



Firms can make abnormal profit/loss in the short run but not in the long run

Because of low barriers to entry/exit

As new firms enter, a firm's individual demand curve (AR) shifts to the left and eliminates any abnormal profit.



Not allocatively or productively efficient

### Oligopoly

Concentration ratio: The top four firms' market shares are 28% + 16% + 16% + 10% = 70%.

Calculating the 4-firm concentration ratio for the UK supermarket industry is simply done by adding the top four firms' market shares (28% + 16% + 16% + 10%). This gives us a concentration ratio of 70%.

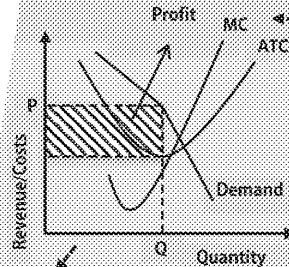
Downward-sloping AR and MR

Example: Supermarkets

#### Characteristics:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Oligopolistic firms are interdependent. They follow each other. If one firm cuts its price, others have to follow, otherwise competitors will stop coming to the market.



Kinked demand curve

According to the kinked demand curve, firms operating in oligopoly face an elastic demand curve at high prices and an inelastic demand curve at low prices. This assumes that other firms will not copy a price increase in an oligopolistic market.

#### Can lead to price wars

##### Types of price competition:

- Price wars: firms keep lowering prices below their competitors'.
- Predatory pricing: a firm sells its product at a price below short-run marginal cost to drive its competitors out of business.
- Limit pricing: prices are so low that firms experience a short-run loss.

##### Types of non-price competition:

- Offers (e.g. B-O-G-O-F)
- Branding and marketing
- Customer service
- Product improvement

Thus, firms mostly choose to collude.

#### Non-collusive oligopoly

#### Collusive oligopoly:

Define collusive and non-collusive oligopoly

Because collusion is a well-known oligopolistic feature, the term 'oligopoly' is sometimes used to refer simply to price-setting behaviour, rather than a market structure.

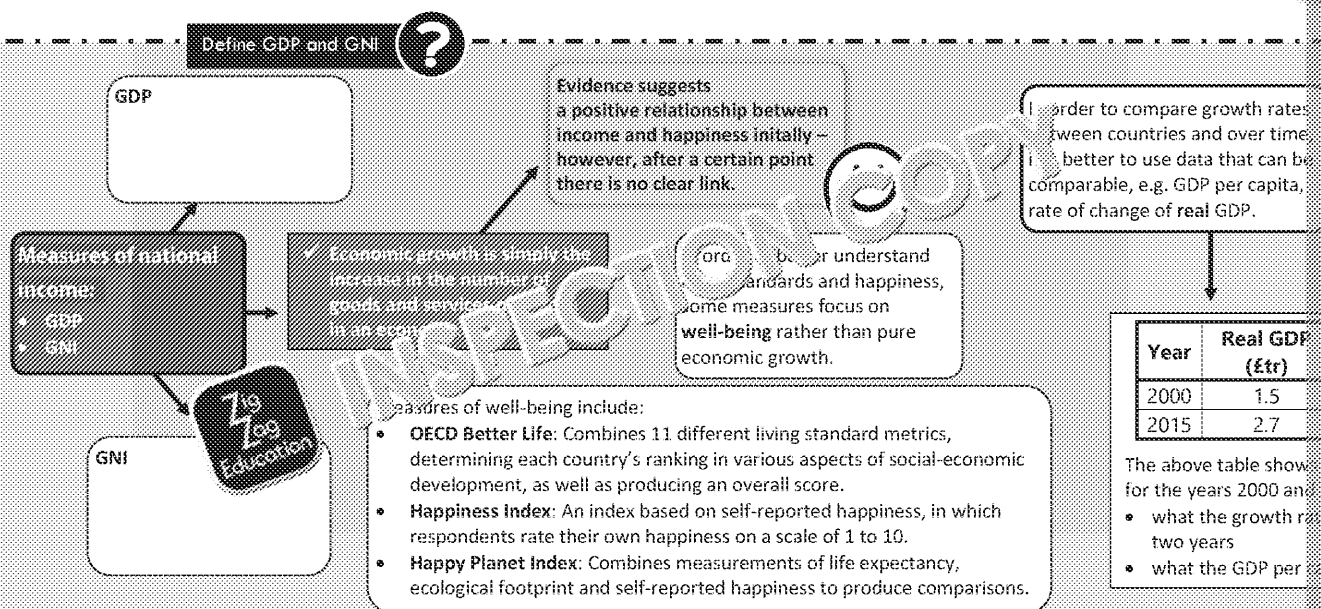
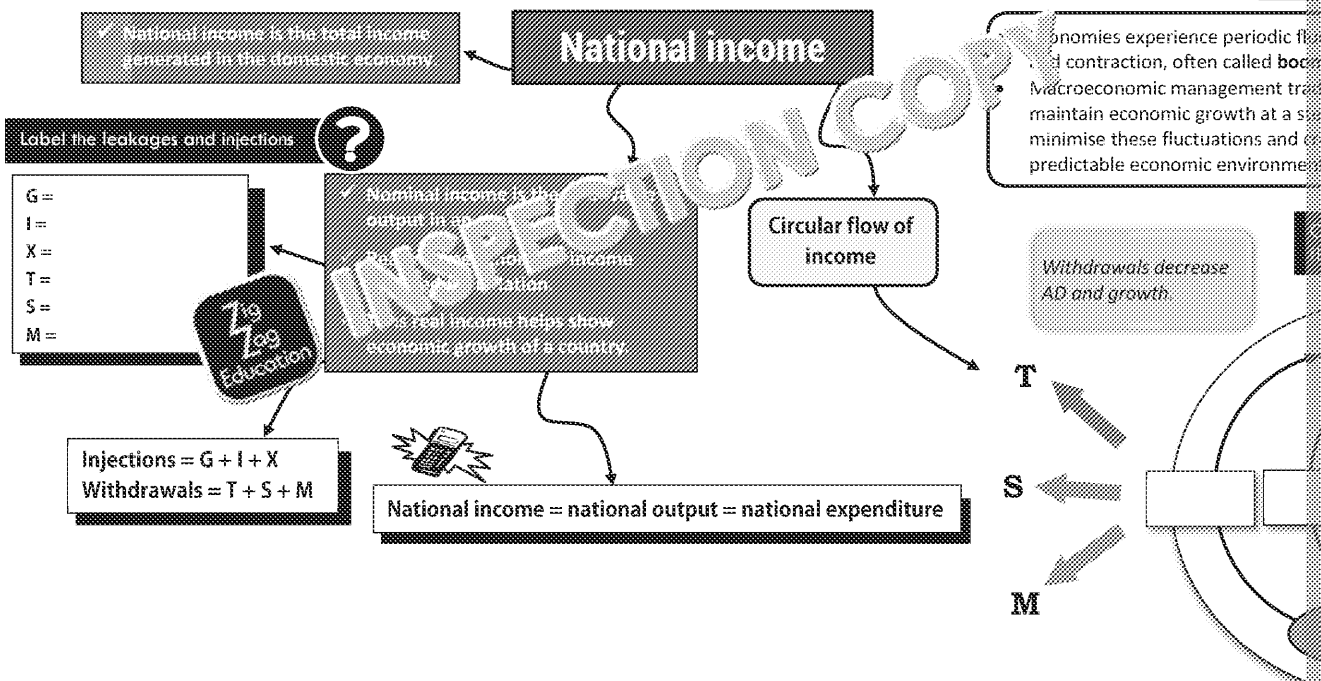
Not allocatively or productively efficient

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### 3.1: Measuring economic activity



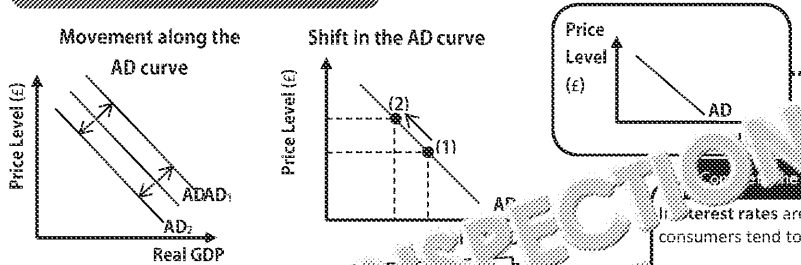
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## 3.2: Variations in economic activity

### Aggregate demand



AD curve is downward sloping because of:

- **Real balance effect** – as prices rise, fewer people are able to buy goods and services.
- **International competitiveness** – if domestic prices are high, exports appear more expensive, while imports appear less expensive. So net exports fall, reducing AD.
- **Interest rate effect** – as price levels rise, interest rates tend to increase. Higher interest rates reduce investment and consumption (because firms and households are more likely to save than spend), thereby reducing AD.

If interest rates are high, consumers tend to...

**Consumer confidence** also determines the level of consumption. If the economy is doing well and confidence levels are high about the future, consumers are likely to increase consumption – and vice versa.

**Wealth effects** also matter. If the price of a person's asset (e.g. house) goes up, the person is more likely to increase spending. This is related to the consumer confidence idea.

- **Disposable income** is income that is left after all taxes have been deducted.
- This determines the level of consumption.

- Government spending is a part of **fiscal policy**.
- Fiscal policy is about making changes to government spending and/or taxation.
- A government can adopt either a contractionary or an expansionary fiscal policy.
- Contractionary policy is about increased taxation and lower spending.
- Expansionary policy is about lowering taxation and increasing spending.

- Marginal propensity to consume establishes how much extra is consumed following a rise in the disposable income.
- This tends to be higher for low-income families.

- **C** for **Consumption**
- Total household spending
- Largest component of AD in the UK (about 60%)

If households decide to save more, their consumption will fall.

In 2021, total consumer spending in the UK was £1,892 billion.

In 2022, 44.7% of UK's GDP was used in the form of government spending.

In 2022, UK was a net importer, with a trade gap of £52 billion.

- **I** for **Investment**
- Spending by firms on technology, infrastructure, etc.
- Forms about 15% of AD in the UK

- **Gross investment** refers to the total investment made in a period of time.
- **Net investment** = gross investment – depreciation of assets

#### Influences on investment:

- As the economy grows, more jobs are created and incomes rise. So to meet the increased demand, firms increase investment.
- Business confidence – if firms feel the prospect of investment is good, they will invest more.
- High demand for exports – if there is more demand for exports, firms will invest more to meet the demand.
- If interest rates are high, investment will be low because the cost of borrowing would be high.
- If credit is easily accessible, investment will be high.
- Tight government regulation is likely to limit investment, e.g. high taxes.

#### Real incomes:

As real incomes rise, demand for imports rises. This decreases net trade (X – M). In other words it increases a country's current account deficit.

#### Non-price factors:

The exchange rate does not affect the quality of traded goods, and changes to exports/imports as a result of exchange rates changes could be mitigated if domestic goods are particularly high-quality or unique.

Fill in the blank

- **G** for **Government spending**
- Spending on welfare, health, education, etc.
- Forms about 25% of AD in the UK

- Government spending depends on the **trade cycle**.
- When the economy is doing poorly, unemployment rises. So the government has to spend more on welfare while the tax revenue it receives also falls.
- The opposite happens during an economic boom.

#### State of the world economy:

Recession is likely to affect a country's ability to export. However, if there is a global recession, other countries may also be in recession, so exports may increase. However, if there is a global recession, other countries may also be in recession, so exports may increase. However, if there is a global recession, other countries may also be in recession, so exports may increase.

#### Exchange rates:

If the value of the pound increases (appreciation), exports become more expensive. Thus, exports fall and imports rise, which worsens the trade balance, ceteris paribus. The opposite applies to depreciation.

#### Degree of protectionism:

A country can try to protect its exports by subsidising them and/or taxing imports (tariffs). This is likely to increase net exports, but it may also make the country's exports appear cheaper than imports. However, if one country imposes trade barriers, others are likely to follow suit. This will reduce net exports.

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### 3.3: Macroeconomic objectives

#### Effects of growth:

- Economic growth can improve living standards by creating jobs, raising incomes and improving consumer choice.
- Growth increases tax revenues for the government, enabling more spending.
- Growth can also help government to service existing debts more quickly.
- However, growth is not distributed evenly and can create income inequality.
- Growth can create environmental damage and be unsustainable in the long run.
- Growth creates inflationary pressures.

Complete the sentences ?

- Short-run growth occurs when...
- Long-run growth occurs when...

#### Causes of growth:

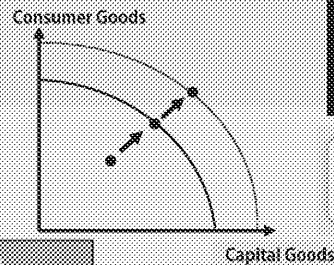
##### Demand-side factors:

- Increases in the components of AD will increase growth (C, I, G, X - M)

##### Supply-side factors:

- Technological advancement
- Education and training
- Demographic changes and migration
- Government regulation

#### Economic growth



UK's average growth rate between 2010 and 2020 was 1.2%.

UK's national debt was 101% of its GDP in 2022.

Classical economists argue that there is a trade-off between growth and inflation, represented by the Phillips curve.

In 2022 the UK's unemployment rate was 3.6%.

Label actual growth and potential growth on the PPF diagram ?

UK's target inflation rate is 2%.

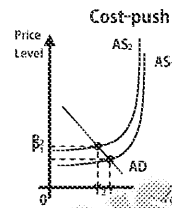
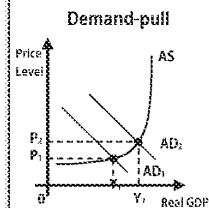
#### Inflation

- Inflation is a rise in prices.
- Deflation is a fall in prices.
- Distribution is a fall in the rate of increase.

#### Causes of inflation:

- demand pulls prices with it (i.e. a rise in demand pulls prices up).
- high costs of production push prices up.
- Growth in money supply — increases demand for goods.

Label each type of inflation ?



Inflation is measured using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). CPI uses prices of a 'basket' of everyday goods that are compared over time.

#### Limitations of CPI:

- Prices could change due to changes in quality.
- Temporary shocks can exaggerate inflation.
- A typical 'basket' of goods could be different for different groups of consumers (e.g. students, pensioners).
- Price rise for certain goods may not be captured by CPI.

#### Causes of deflation:

- Falling aggregate demand, often associated with recessions.
- Falling costs of production, possibly due to low commodity prices, technological innovation or currency appreciation.
- Negative expectations: low consumer or business confidence.

#### Effects of deflation:

- Deferred consumption — people do not spend as prices fall.
- The real value of debt begins to increase.
- Creates uncertainty for firms and policymakers.
- Creates recessionary pressures, leading to bankruptcies and unemployment.

#### Effects of inflation:

- 
- 
- 

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Zig  
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Education

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### 3.4: Inequality and poverty

**Inequality** – the difference in income, wealth and power between different groups in society.

**Inequity** – the idea that society is structured in an unfair way, which disadvantages certain groups.

**Causes of inequality:**

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

List four causes of inequality

Define absolute poverty

Define relative

What is the difference between wealth inequality and income inequality?

**Causes of changes in poverty:**

- High growth → decreases absolute poverty, increases creation of jobs
- High growth → increases average income → increase in relative poverty
- More FDI → more jobs → decrease in poverty
- More trade → more jobs → decrease in poverty
- Increased income tax → reduce income inequality

**Policies:**

- Transfer payments are direct payments from government which can alleviate poverty
- Government spending on public services can help to reduce inequality and poverty
- Minimum wages reduce income inequality
- Investment in education creates opportunities
- Legislation banning discrimination
- Policies which reduce discrimination
- A universal basic income could raise the standard of living for all.

**Direct Taxation**

- Direct taxation is often applied to any regular income that is received, such as wages, profits or rents.
- The most common example of direct taxation is income tax, which is deducted from people's wages.
- Other examples include corporation tax, National Insurance contributions, and a wealth tax.

**Indirect Taxation**

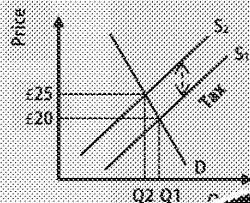
- Indirect taxation is often applied to irregular forms of spending, and often consumption on demerit goods.
- The most common example of indirect taxation is value added tax (VAT), which is added on to most consumption.
- Other examples include duties on demerit goods such as alcohol and tobacco.

**Alleviating inequality and poverty with taxation**

Taxation has a critical role to play in reducing inequality and poverty. Primarily, taxation acts as a means of income and wealth redistribution in society. It redirects resources away from wherever they are being accumulated, and towards wherever they are most needed. The effectiveness of taxation at reducing inequality and poverty is highly dependent on the kind of taxation system that is being implemented. Some taxation systems, such as marginal taxes, are better at reallocating resources than others, such as average taxes. The effectiveness of taxation also depends on how tax revenues are spent.

**Taxation**

- **Progressive taxation** – tax rates increase as income increases, reducing inequality
- **Regressive taxation** – tax rates decrease as income increases, increasing inequality
- **Proportional and indirect taxation** – tax rates are the same for all, which can increase inequality if progressive taxes are not implemented



Indirect taxation results in a leftward shift of the supply curve

**Marginal tax rates:** Marginal tax rates allocate different rates of tax to different levels of income. This means a higher rate of tax is paid on the income received over a certain threshold.

**Average tax rates:** average tax rates are simply the total amount of tax paid, divided by the total income earned.

Income (£)	Rate (%)
0 – 10,000	0%
10,001 – 25,000	20%
25,001 – 40,000	40%
40,001 +	50%

Calculate the average tax rate on an income of £37,000

$$\frac{\text{total taxes paid}}{\text{total income}} \times 100$$

Since 2022, the World Bank has set the global poverty line as an income of \$2.15 a day. Those earning less than this are regarded as living in absolute poverty.

**Difficulty measuring poverty**

- It is hard to measure many aspects of poverty, such as a lack of opportunity
- There is no universal agreement on what poverty means.
- Indices which rely on averages can overlook the impoverishment of some
- Getting accurate data on those living under poverty lines is difficult.
- Poverty can vary wildly in different contexts and locations.

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## 3.5 & 3.6: Demand-side policies

### Goals of fiscal policy

- A primary aim is to reduce the extent of fluctuations in the business cycle
- Reducing unemployment
- Maintaining economic stability
- Reducing inequality
- Maintaining financial equilibrium with other economies
- Low and stable inflation

### Strengths of fiscal policy

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

### Weaknesses of fiscal policy

- Subject to time lag – takes a long time from initial investment – and effectiveness is undermined by political considerations.
- Fiscal deficits can be substantial and can substantially add to government debt. Economists argue that public investment leads to 'crowding out' of private investment, though others argue that the two are complementary.

Identify three strengths of fiscal policy ?

### Others goals of policy

- To maintain the money supply
- To ensure stability of currencies
- To monitor the financial system as lender of last resort

Fiscal policy involves revenue through taxes or revenue from government assets, and engages in either current or capital expenditure. Where fiscal deficits arise, borrowing occurs.

## Fiscal policy

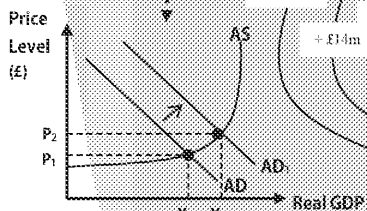
Fiscal policy may be **expansionary**: designed to stimulate aggregate demand through spending and low taxation, or **contractionary**, seeking to lower aggregate demand through spending reductions and low taxation.

Define fiscal policy ?

Macroeconomic policies designed to influence aggregate demand.

Define

### Effect of an expansionary fiscal/monetary policy



The multiplier can be calculated using the formula

$$\frac{1}{1 - MPC}$$

H

Define MPS, MPT, MPM ?

The **marginal propensity to consume (MPC)** is the proportion of income that will be injected by consumer spending

The **marginal propensity to save (MPS)** =

The **marginal propensity to tax (MPT)** =

The **marginal propensity to import (MPM)** =

H

### Keynesian multiplier

The concept of the multiplier states that any government spending yields an economic return greater than that of the initial investment. This is because fiscal stimulus creates a multiplier effect.

H

• Real interest rate

• Nominal interest rate

Define real and nominal interest rates

Equilibrium

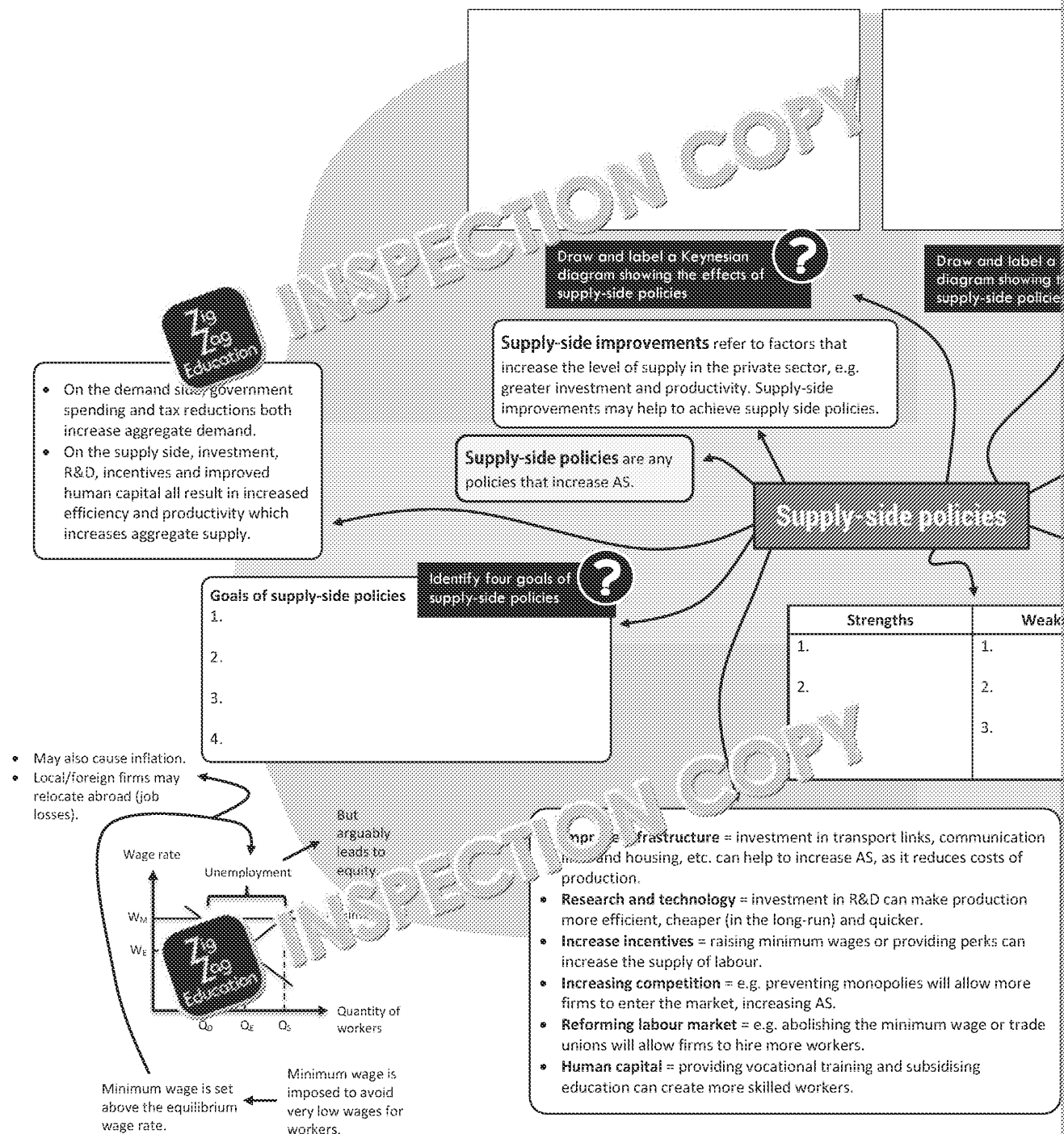
- Ideal economic interest
- The point where the

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### 3.7: Supply-side policies



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## 4.1–4.4: International trade

Give three positive and three negative impacts of international trade

Impacts of international trade:

Positive	Negative
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

Advantages of trade and specialisation

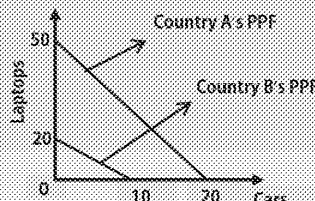
- Greater choice for consumers
- Cheaper goods for consumers
- Greater efficiency
- Firms experience economies of scale
- Wider market → higher standards of living
- Increased competition → higher standards of living

Disadvantages

- Countries become more dependent on each other
- Terms of trade may move against a country
- Over-reliance on a few exports
- Countries lacking resources may struggle
- Unwanted goods may be imported at low prices, which may harm local industries
- May widen the gap between rich and poor countries
- Bad for 'infant industries'

Country A has a comparative advantage in the production of cars, while Country B has a comparative advantage in the production of laptops.

	Cars production	Laptops production
Country A	20	50
Country B	10	20



Country \_\_\_\_ has **absolute advantage** in the production of both goods (i.e. it can produce more of both goods *cheaply* using the same resources than country B).

Fill in the blanks

Country \_\_\_\_ has **comparative advantage** in the production of cars (i.e. it can produce cars at a lower opportunity cost than country A).

Country A needs to forego 2.5 units of laptops to produce 1 car (20:50). Country B needs to give up 2 units of laptops to produce 1 car (10:20).

- Tariff increase on the price of imports → lower demand
- Revenue for government (ABCD)
- Domestic consumer surplus increased by P<sub>1</sub>P<sub>2</sub>DE
- Welfare loss (ADE + BCF)

Trade protection

- The World Trade Organisation (WTO)
- Conflict between WTO and regional trade agreements → latter lead to trade diversion, which decreases trade elsewhere and undermines comparative advantage.

Trade blocs + WTO

Bilateral → Free trade area  
Regional → Free trade area  
Multilateral → Free trade area  
Multilateral → Free trade area

List and explain the four main types of trade blocs

Types of trade blocs:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

Advantages and disadvantages of trade blocs

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No transaction costs</li> <li>• Greater market access</li> <li>• Economies of scale → lower costs</li> <li>• Stronger bargaining power in multilateral organisations</li> <li>• Attract FDI → good for growth</li> <li>• International cooperation increases political stability</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transition costs, e.g. menu costs</li> <li>• Loss of sovereignty</li> <li>• Undermine multilateral arrangements (such as WTO)</li> <li>• No control over monetary policy (in monetary unions)</li> </ul>

Monetary unions

Advantages

- Reduce exchange rate costs, eliminate currency risk, more efficiency, greater information, boosts investment and growth

Disadvantages

- Loss of monetary independence can exacerbate economic crises, leading to higher inflation and/or unemployment

Reasons for restrictions on free trade

List at least five reasons for a country wanting to restrict free trade

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.

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## 4.5 & 4.6: Exchange rates and Balance of payments

Fill in the determinants of the current account

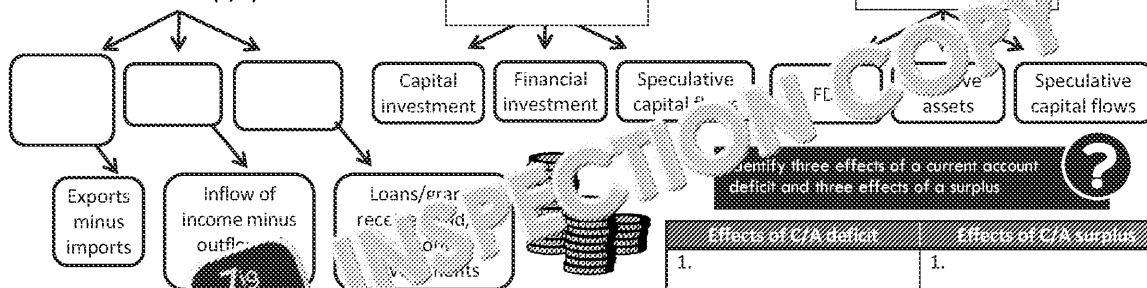


### Balance of payments (BOP)

Name the other two accounts of the BOP



Current account (C/A)



Identify three effects of a current account deficit and three effects of a surplus



Effects of C/A deficit	Effects of C/A surplus
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

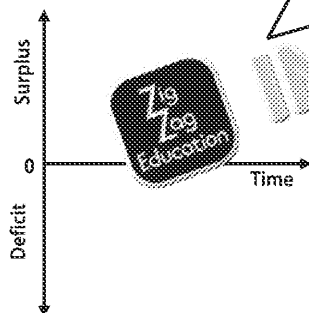
### Significance of trade imbalances:

- The accounts on the balance of payments are interdependent – all credits are matched by debits and all deficits by surpluses. For example, a deficit on the current account will be zeroed by borrowing on the financial account.
- As a negative trade balance increases, it becomes more and more difficult to finance. Hence, loans have to be taken out. This is because a negative current account implies a positive capital account.
- Government spending may fall significantly to repay those loans.
- Also, if exports outstrip imports, domestic consumers may be faced with limited choice.
- Trade imbalances also lead to massive currency fluctuations → affects global trade.

### Current account (C/A)

H

- The Marshall-Lerner condition posits that depreciation only leads to a C/A improvement if  $PED_{\text{exports}} + PED_{\text{imports}} > 1$ .
- The J curve suggests changes in the ER have time lags. Initially C/A deteriorates because in the short run exports and imports have inelastic demands. Later, as demands become more elastic, we see an improvement.



### Reducing current account imbalances:

H

- Expenditure-reducing policies**  
Policies that reduce AD, e.g. increasing income tax → reduces disposable income → demand for imports decreases.  
+ Also effective at tacking inflation  
– May harm growth and employment
- Expenditure-switching policies**  
Policies that affect demand for imports, i.e. trade barriers. Imposing tariff → imports become expensive → demand for imports falls.  
+ effective in short term to protect industries  
– Could lead to trade retaliation
- Supply-side policies**  
Policies that affect demand for exports, e.g. increasing spending on education → improves labour productivity → improves quality/quantity of exports → demand for exports rises.  
+ Useful for solving long-term structural issues  
– Can come with significant time lags
- Doing nothing**  
Due to the downsides of the policies mentioned above, some countries may opt to do nothing

Value added  
Value added

### Factors in

- Relative price  
If relative price of exports is higher than imports → increase in demand for exports → E dep
- Relative price  
If relative price of imports is higher than exports → E dep
- Speculation  
If people expect the currency to depreciate, they will buy foreign assets → higher demand for foreign assets → E dep
- State of the economy  
Economic growth → demand for imports rises → E dep
- Demand for exports  
The export demand curve shifts right → E dep
- Remittances  
Direct remittances → E dep
- Foreign investment  
FDI can lead to E dep

### Growth and

ER depreciation  
creation → E dep

### Living standards

ER depreciation  
expensive → E dep

### Growth and

ER depreciation  
creation → E dep

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## 4.7: Sustainable development

**Define sustainability** ?

**Sustainable Development**

**Define development** ?

It is a way of achieving socio-economic development without damaging the environment for future generations.

**Fill in the gaps** ?

**Sustainability and poverty**

- Impoverished people are overwhelmingly involved in the \_\_\_\_\_ sector of the global economy, meaning they are most affected by the depletion of \_\_\_\_\_ and extreme weather.
- Unequal societies rely on \_\_\_\_\_ to maintain living standards, which often leads to resource depletion.
- The more unequal a society is, the less the voices of those who depend on the natural world are heard as the economy grows.
- Thus, policymakers are concerned to treat sustainability and poverty as a \_\_\_\_\_.

**17 goals set by United Nations General Assembly in 2015**

**SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

**Microgrids: Solar in Yemen**

**Which SDGs does this project address?**

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

- Yemen is one of the world's most impoverished countries. The country has been plunged into a humanitarian crisis due to a long-running civil war.
- Yemen's energy supply – produced from oil and gas – does not meet demand, meaning many live without a reliable source of energy to meet their daily needs.
- The Enhanced Rural Energy in Yemen (ERRY) project grants micro-finance loans to women to help them start a business.
- Participants are provided with a mini solar farm sufficient to generate enough energy for a small neighbourhood, and trained in maintenance.
- They are then able to generate an income by selling energy to local households and businesses.
- In the areas where microgrids have been installed, unemployment and poverty have fallen drastically. Living costs have fallen due to a cheap and sustainable local source of energy. Prejudice against women has also reduced after local communities have seen them operate as trained solar engineers.

**Regenerative Farming**

**Which SDGs does this project address?**

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

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## 4.8 & 4.9: Development

Identify two more measures of development



### Measures of development

Combines life expectancy, ecological footprint and a happiness survey.

Human development index (HDI) is a composite measure of development

Benefits of HDI

- Multidimensional
- Uses two measures for education

Drawbacks of HDI

- Ignores as it is
- Misses happiness

Inequality-adjusted HDI (IHDI): Also measures the distribution of health, education and income around the population

HDI =  
education index x  
life expectancy index x  
income index

What are the three components of HDI, and what do they measure?



Measures female participation in society.

Single indicators, such as:



### Barriers to growth and development

Barriers to growth and development

### Cycle of poverty:

- Poverty is often a self-reinforcing phenomenon – those living in poverty lack the opportunity to extract themselves from it.
- Limited education → lack of skills → low-value work → unable to save → children forced to work → limited education, etc.

### Capital flight:

- This is about people saving their money in foreign banks, which are more secure and/or have a higher interest rate
- Thus, developing countries are deprived of savings → lack of investment in capital → low growth

### Economic factors

Education: Developing countries tend to lack the appropriate educational infrastructure

Infrastructure: Poor infrastructure makes trading very costly → discourages FDI

Debt: Developing countries tend to be in debt. While their governments build infrastructure and create jobs for the current generation, it is often the next generation that has to pay back the debt and becomes visibly worse off

Absence of property rights: Property rights give a sense of security, which is good for investment/borrowing and growth. However, developing countries lack some property rights.

Volatility of economic growth: Developing countries often experience overall economic instability (high inflation, unemployment, etc.)

Name and explain three economic factors that influence growth and development in the blank boxes.



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## 4.10: Strategies influencing growth and development

Explain the following market-orientated strategies of influencing growth and development: 'privatisation' and 'removal of regulation'

**Privatisation:**

**Microfinance schemes:**

- This is about providing small loans to poor people, who are unable to get loans from big banks due to the provision of collateral.
- Loans are given to poor people and repayment is guaranteed.
- This helps poor people escape poverty.

**Market mechanism of demand and supply affect growth and development**

**Market-orientated strategies**

**Floating exchange rate:**

Switching to a floating regime will demand that demand and supply will decide the value of the currency, which means the currency is likely to depreciate. Thus, imports become expensive while exports become cheap. Thus, local industries will flourish, leading to higher growth.

**Removal of regulation:**

**Foreign direct investment (FDI):**

- Creates jobs → more consumer spending → higher AD → higher growth
- Countries can benefit from expertise and technology of multinational corporations
- Foreign investment can lead to local infrastructure

**Trade liberalisation:**

- This is about reducing trade barriers
- Free trade promotes growth by creating jobs
- Free trade leads to greater allocative efficiency
- But this could reduce growth if a country is flooded with cheap imports

**Social enterprise:**

- A business that uses the market in order to achieve social or environmental goals, as well as profit.
- Encouraging social enterprises can maximise the social welfare of economic activity

**Aid:**

- Development aid: for humanitarian or economic purposes in order to invest in the development process.
- Developed nations may also choose to write off debts that developing countries owe in order to enable them to better manage their resources.

**Corruption:**

- Political and judicial reform designed to put structures and individuals who are enabling the corrupt capture of public resources.

**Other strategies**

**Women:**

- Empowering women through education and training

**Land rights:**

- The government should develop the land rights of citizens to ensure sustainable development

Identify three strengths of the market-based approach and three strengths of the interventionist approach

Market-orientated	Interventionist
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

**Import Substitution:**

**Trade strategies**

**Export Promotion:**

What is the difference between the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF)?

**Multilateral development**

**International Monetary Fund (IMF):**

**World Bank:**

**Official Development Assistance (ODA):** Targeted funding provided by the UK or other governments to aid development.

**NGOs:** Non-profit organisations that range in size and at any time concerned with social issues based on

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