



2015 specification
first exams in 2017 (2016 for AS)

Theme 2: UK Economy: Performance & Policies

Course Companion for AS and A Level Edexcel Economics A

Second Edition, 23rd June 2016, Endorsed for Edexcel

endorsed for
edexcel

zigzageducation.co.uk

**POD
5863**

Publish your own work... Write to a brief...
Register at **publishmenow.co.uk**

Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	ii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity.....	iii
Terms and Conditions of Use	iv
Teacher's Introduction	1
Introduction to Macroeconomics	2
Measures of Economic Performance (2.1).....	3
Economic Growth	3
Inflation	11
Employment and Unemployment	18
Balance of Payments	25
Questions: Measures of Economic Performance.....	28
Exam-style Questions 1: Measures of Economic Performance	30
Aggregate Demand (2.2)	32
Consumption (C)	34
Investment (I)	35
Government Expenditure (G)	37
Net Trade (X – M)	38
Questions: Aggregate Demand	40
Aggregate Supply (2.3)	41
Short Run and Long Run	41
AS Curves	44
Causes of Inflation	46
Questions: Aggregate Supply	49
Exam-style Questions 2: Aggregate Demand and Aggregate Supply	50
National Income (2.4).....	52
Injections and Withdrawals.....	53
The Multiplier	56
Questions: National Income	58
Economic Growth (2.5).....	59
Causes and Impacts of Growth	59
Trade (Business) Cycle and Output Gaps	61
Questions: Economic Growth.....	64
Macroeconomic Objectives and Policy (2.6).....	65
Possible Macroeconomic Objectives	65
Demand-side Policies	66
Supply-side Policies	72
Conflicts and Trade-offs between Objectives and Policies.....	74
Questions: Macroeconomic Objectives and Policy.....	76
Exam-style Questions 3: Macroeconomic Objectives and Policy.....	77
Answers	79
Measures of Economic Performance.....	79
Aggregate Demand (AD)	82
Aggregate Supply.....	85
National Income	87
Economic Growth	89
Macroeconomic Objectives and Policies.....	91
Answers to Exam-style Questions	94
Exam-style Questions 1.....	94
Exam-style Questions 2.....	95
Exam-style Questions 3.....	96
Glossary	97
Exam Tips!.....	99

Edexcel Economics A Theme 2 Course Companion: Marketing & People

A Note Regarding Endorsement

In order to ensure that this resource offers high-quality support for the associated Pearson qualification, it has been through a review process by the awarding body. This process confirms that; this resource fully covers the teaching and learning content of the specification or part of a specification at which it is aimed. It also confirms that it demonstrates an appropriate balance between the development of subject skills, knowledge and understanding, in addition to preparation for assessment.

Endorsement does not cover any guidance on assessment activities or processes (e.g. practice questions or advice on how to answer assessment questions), included in the resource nor does it prescribe any particular approach to the teaching or delivery of a related course.

While the publishers have made every attempt to ensure that advice on the qualification and its assessment is accurate, the official specification and associated assessment guidance materials are the only authoritative source of information and should always be referred to for definitive guidance.

Pearson examiners have not contributed to any sections in this resource relevant to examination papers for which they have responsibility.

Examiners will not use endorsed resources as a source of material for any assessment set by Pearson.

Endorsement of a resource does not mean that the resource is required to achieve this Pearson qualification, nor does it mean that it is the only suitable material available to support the qualification, and any resource lists produced by the awarding body shall include this and other appropriate resources.

All rights reserved © ZigZag Education
Unit 3 Greenway Business Centre
Doncaster Road
Bristol
BS10 5PY

www.zigzageducation.co.uk

Teacher's Introduction

This resource is designed to supplement and enhance your teaching of the 2015 linear Economics A Level. It has been written to cover every aspect of Theme 2 of the Edexcel Economics A course as well as options for further research and study for keen and interested students. As 15–20% of the exam will be quantitative, this resource has ensured all the relevant maths is covered; however, it is assumed the students have a basic GCSE-level understanding.

These notes can be given to students before a lesson (to allow students to read ahead in preparation) or after a lesson (as a revision tool to strengthen and build on current knowledge), or students can work through the resource in class.

At the **beginning** of every section is a list of content that the students will be learning. This is designed to prepare them for the lessons that follow and it can also be used as a checklist, either after learning the section or during revision, to remind students of the content they have studied and ensure they have learnt the points on the specification. Questions and answers are provided at the **end** of each section; these consolidate and develop pupils' learning.

Each specification point has complete notes with all the relevant diagrams clearly explained and examples given where possible to help students relate their theoretical knowledge to real-life situations. Any key terms are defined either at the beginning of a topic or in key-term boxes throughout.

Other boxes include:

- **Further Your Economic Knowledge:** These boxes are designed for students who may want to expand their studies and learn more about certain topics. The content in these boxes is relevant to the course and although not essential, they can be used in the exam to gain A* points.
- **Activity!** These boxes include a wide range of interactive or visual activities to secure and recap on knowledge, or provide materials for reading around the topic. These can be used to break up lessons and to support various types of learners.
- **Learn More!** These boxes provide links to extra materials such as articles and videos, which will enable students to read around a topic.
- **Evaluation Point** Edexcel will reward marks to students who exhibit AO3 and AO4 skills. These boxes provide tips to students that will allow them to analyse and evaluate topics.
- **Be careful!** These boxes highlight common mistakes that pupils make and explain why they often occur.
- **Link circles:** The exam board wants students to be able to make connections across themes and sections, for example using PPFs from Theme 1 to evaluate an economy when talking about migration in Theme 2. These circles link students forward to topics they will study or backwards to topics they have already studied that will relate to their current lessons. The numbering used relates to the specification numbering.



Specification note:

The order of the specification has been mirrored as much as practical, with just a few notable exceptions:

- 'Causes of inflation', 2.1.2e, is covered at the end of Aggregate Supply (2.3), after AD and AS have been introduced.
- Some sub-topics have been reordered within the larger specification topics in order to give what I hope is one logical teaching approach (for example, in 2.1 'Measures of Economics Performance', economic growth has been dealt with third rather than first).

The specification requires the students to have knowledge of the UK economy over the last 10 years. The main aim of this companion has been to provide student-friendly explanations of often-complicated theory. While up-to-date information about the UK economy has been provided in this companion, coverage of this element should be supplemented by further UK-based case studies and examples to consolidate learning.

July 2015

Second Edition, Endorsed for Edexcel, 26th April 2016

Minor corrections and additions to meet Edexcel endorsement standards:

- Page 3: Clarified that economic growth is growth in *real* GDP.
- Page 6 and 62: Added more recent UK data to the graphs.
- Page 16: Clarified that QS make up 20% of A Level exams and 15% of AS.



A webpage containing all the links listed in this resource is conveniently provided on ZigZag Education's website at zzed.uk/5863

Free Updates!

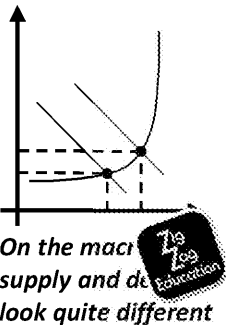
Register your email address to receive any future free updates* made to this resource or other Economics resources your school has purchased, and details of any promotions for your subject.

* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

Go to zzed.uk/freeupdates

Introduction to Macroeconomics

In Theme 1 we looked at *microeconomics* which focuses on individual markets. We thought about the supply and demand of goods and services: how much more will companies produce if they can get a higher price for their goods? How will consumers respond? We looked at decision making at the level of individual people and firms. Does the demand for apples change if pears become more expensive?



We now turn our attention to *macroeconomics* and take things. Macroeconomics examines the economy as a whole. Instead of a firm's output, we think about the *national* output of a country. Individual supply and demand becomes *aggregate* supply and *aggregate* demand, which are summed across the whole economy.

In microeconomics we looked at how the government might intervene to correct a failure in a single market. Macroeconomics considers the role of the government in the entire economic system. We think about what causes an economy to grow, why growth is important and the tools at the government's disposal to promote growth.



When looking at an entire economy we have to extend our thinking to other countries too. Most countries have open economies and trade with other nations. What's the balance between imports and exports? What happens if it changes?

Macroeconomics might seem more relevant; it considers the big issues such as inflation and GDP that politicians are invariably talking about on the news. However, it is important to remember that the microeconomic principles which underpin a lot of macroeconomic theory.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Measures of Economic Performance

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ **Economic Growth**
 - What is meant by interconnectedness of economies
 - Economic growth as a change in the rate of real GDP
 - The difference between value and volume, total and per capita, real and nominal
 - The purpose of purchasing power parities
 - National happiness
 - The limitations of GDP
- ✓ **Inflation**
 - Difference between inflation, deflation and disinflation
 - The effects of inflation on consumers, firms, the government and workers
 - How inflation is measured using CPI and RPI
- ✓ **Unemployment**
 - Difference between unemployment, underemployment and underemployment
 - The causes of unemployment
 - The effects of unemployment on consumers, firms, workers, the government and the economy
 - How unemployment is measured
 - The significance of migration
- ✓ **Balance of Payments**
 - The structure of the balance of payments
 - What is meant by a current account deficit and a current account surplus

Economic Growth

Economists and politicians alike are obsessed with growth. It's the fundamental question of economics: what is doing and arguably one of the most straightforward to interpret: growth means more money and it means a better standard of living in general. In this section, we will explore what growth is and how it can be measured.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Economic Growth

The most common measure of growth is 'real' gross domestic product (real GDP). GDP is the sum market value of all the goods and services produced in one economy in one year*. It can be calculated either by finding the sum value of the economy's income, or the sum value of the economy's expenditure. Remember the circular flow diagram! Every time somebody spends money (expenditure), a producer has earned that money (income), ergo expenditure should equal income.

Real GDP
when is
because
to have
have be
of mon

Did you know...?

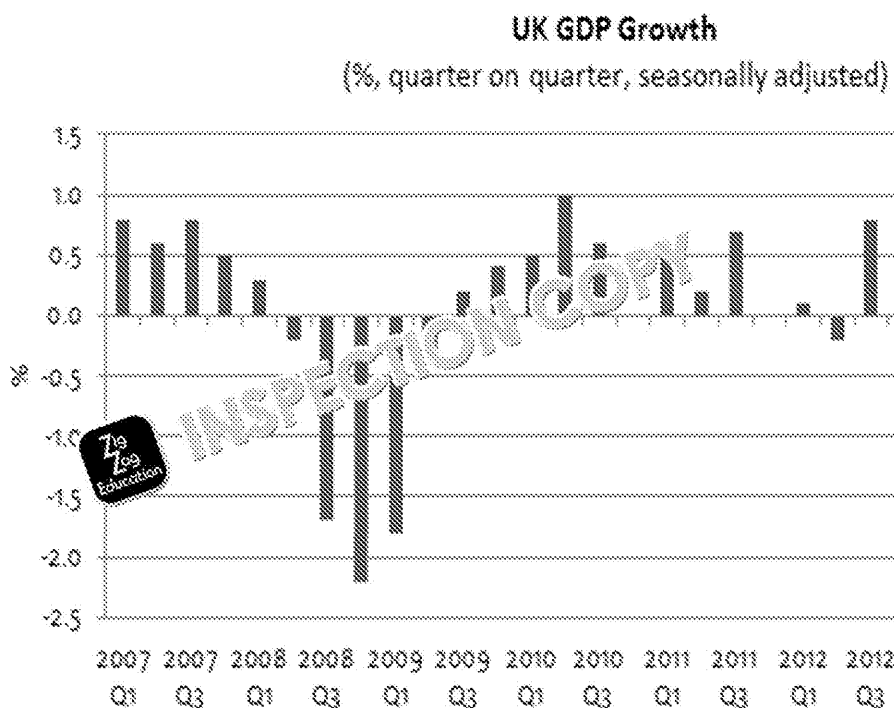
Small differences in growth rates can have big effects on the economy if maintained over long periods. The UK's average annual growth rate over the last 50 years is 2.6%. At a constant rate of 2.6% an economy will double in size every 27 years. If this is increased to 3.2% a year then the time it takes to double decreases to 22 years – 5 years sooner!

Because GDP shows the size of the economy, it shows the growth of the economy. Economic growth is the value of real GDP. This can be seen on a PPF. A PPF shows the maximum potential output of an economy, if all its resources were allocated. A shift outwards of the PPF shows an economy has a greater capability to produce goods and services and is more likely to increase its real GDP. There is economic growth.

* GDP can be measured using various time frames, such as every month, or even every day. However, otherwise, GDP values use one-year time periods.

ACTIVITY

The technical definition of a recession is *two consecutive quarters of* mind, think about the graph below which shows quarterly growth figures for the



QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

Percentage Change

In macroeconomics it's often useful to express changes in percentage terms. For example, UK GDP was £381,142,000,000 in 2005 (source: ONS). This rose to £396,566,000,000 in 2006. The increase is £15,424,000,000. On their own, these figures are hard to interpret – they are large!

A much simpler way of expressing the increase in growth is to look at *percentage change*. To calculate this is shown below:

$$\% \text{ change} = \frac{(\text{new value} - \text{old value})}{\text{old value}} \times 100$$

Putting our figures into this formula we get:

$$\% \text{ change} = \frac{15\,424\,000\,000}{381\,142\,000\,000} \times 100 = 4.05\%$$

So there was growth of 4.05% in 2006 over the course of the year. This is much easier to compare with other years and other economies. Make sure you're comfortable with calculating percentage changes – they're a key part of economics.

Volume versus Value

If GDP is the total value of products then the number of goods and services should be measured in terms of 'volume' of goods and services, but what is the value? Remember the function of money – to provide a comparable value; to compare the changes in the GDP, goods and services need to be measured in terms of such as prices! Therefore, we calculate the total price of all the goods and services produced in the monetary value of the economy – the GDP.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Real versus Nominal

One of the main reasons to measure economic growth is to allow for comparisons of how the economy compares to last year, the year before that – or even decades ago.

However, as mentioned in the section on inflation, prices change over time. A pound is worth as much as a pound today because inflation erodes the value away. Therefore, there is a distinction between **real** and **nominal** national income. **Nominal** national income measures the services produced that year *at that year's prices*. This means that comparisons will be of little meaning. Nominal national income growth will look higher than in reality because prices grow, price levels increase too.

To account for this, economists use **real** national income as a measure of an economy's growth. This accounts for rises in price levels by 'deflating' the nominal amounts by the inflation rate. This is a more meaningful comparison of values over time.

For example: an economy producing 100 socks at £1 each will have a nominal GDP of £100. If the economy produces 150 socks at £1.50 each then the economy's nominal GDP appears to have grown by 50%. However, in reality the economy has not grown at all because the price of socks has increased by 50%.



QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

Converting from money to real terms

Macroeconomists like to compare values over time to get a sense of the direction the economy is heading. How has growth changed? Have wages increased?

The trouble is that the value of money changes too as a result of inflation. A pound is worth as much as it is today.

Measurements of prices *from the time they were recorded* are known as **nominal** values. Nominal values over time will be exaggerated because it will capture both changes in the quantity of goods and increases in the price level due to inflation.

To truly compare values over time, therefore, we must convert to **real terms**. This involves adjusting for changes in the price level. To do this, we use a price index (such as CPI) to 'deflate' the nominal values.

For example, suppose that the median wage increases from £25,000 to £26,000 over a year, which is an increase in nominal terms of 4%. However, the price index shows that prices have increased over the same period of 1%.

We therefore construct a 'deflator' which is 100 divided by the index: $\frac{100}{101}$

This is then multiplied by the new value to give it in real terms:

$$\text{New real value} = \frac{100}{101} \times 26,000 = £25,743$$

So the new **real** median wage is £25,743. This is less than £26,000 because the effect of inflation has been removed.



We look at the 'real' change when comparing GDP over time – we need to look at the value of goods without the effect of rising prices (inflation). To do this we calculate the value of goods produced in a country in one year and give them this same value they would have had if prices were the same as in the year that is picked is called the 'base year' and it is the year that all subsequent measurements are compared to.

Real GDP growth is one of the key economic variables that politicians will use to justify their economic policies, and which may even make front-page news when growth plunges. It tells us the direction of the economy over the last period, giving everyone an indication of whether the economy is heading right now!

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

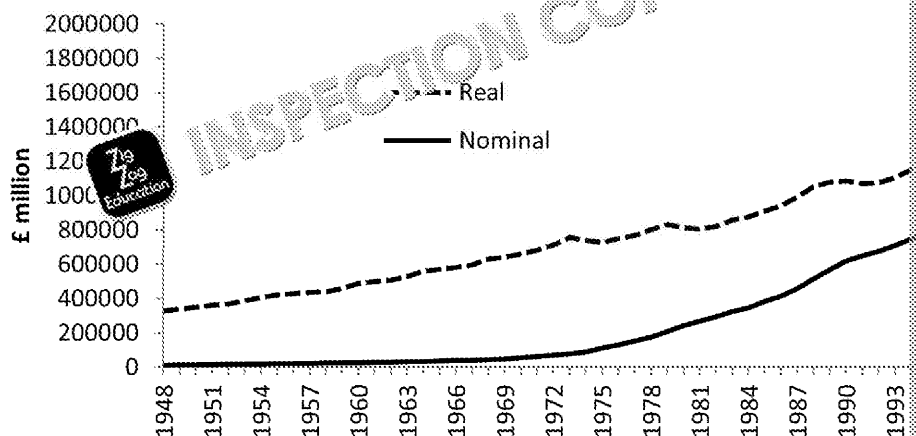


DATA

Let's look at an example which illustrates the idea of real and nominal growth. Below is a graph from the Bank of England. It shows real and nominal GDP in the UK between 1950 and 2006. The nominal GDP figures use market prices from each year. The real GDP figures, on the other hand, are in constant prices. So, in 1950 the national income was about £13,000 million. But in 2006 prices were about £30,000 million.

Note how nominal GDP looks as if it rises much faster. This is because prices are rising over time.

**Real vs Nominal GDP in the UK
(1948 - 2004)**



Total versus Per Capita

The USA is a large country, whereas somewhere like the UK is much smaller. The UK has less labour and fewer resources than the USA and will, therefore, be able to produce far fewer goods and services. Comparing GDP across countries is difficult because a large country may have much higher GDP levels than a smaller country, even though they are growing more slowly. Instead, economists may look at GDP per capita which is the GDP of the country (total GDP) divided by the population. It takes the GDP of the country (total GDP) and divides by the population to get GDP per capita.

$$\frac{\text{GDP}}{\text{Population}} = \text{GDP per Capita}$$

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY

Comparison of Growth Rates

Countries	GDP				2010
	(current US\$)				
	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Bhutan	1,585,396,256	1,840,841,618	1,883,654,335	2,245,673,032,354	2,245,673,032,354
Brazil	2,143,067,871,760	2,476,601,111,111	2,487,809,912,396	2,245,673,032,354	10,900,000,000,000
China	5,930,502,270,317	8,229,490,030,098	9,240,270,452,050	4,400,000,000,000	
Germany	3,328,435,111,111	3,628,110,015,053	3,425,956,470,874	3,634,822,579,319	40,400,000,000,000
Guatemala	47,654,789,735	50,388,454,861	53,796,711,129	2,800,000,000,000	
Guinea	47,654,789,735	50,388,454,861	53,796,711,129	400,000,000,000	
Iceland	12,564,705,489	14,042,801,904	13,586,123,061	14,619,848,414	39,500,000,000,000
India	1,708,458,876,830	1,880,100,141,185	1,858,744,737,180	1,876,797,199,133	1,400,000,000,000,000
Indonesia	709,190,823,320	845,931,645,399	876,709,347,689	868,345,645,449	2,900,000,000,000,000
Italy	2,055,355,252,805	2,196,336,800,620	2,013,265,404,946	2,071,306,890,125	34,600,000,000,000
Japan	5,495,387,182,996	590,563,087,455	5,937,766,585,288	4,901,529,519,266	43,100,000,000,000
Kenya	32,440,133,261	34,313,315,840	40,264,403,585	4,410,114,724	700,000,000,000
Mexico	1,051,627,949,327	1,170,085,556,896	1,186,460,890,130	1,260,914,660,977	8,900,000,000,000
New Zealand	143,466,535,135	163,841,041,662	171,461,480,706	185,787,428,717	32,800,000,000,000
Peru	148,509,857,547	170,563,949,736	192,636,058,714	22,295,635,536	5,000,000,000,000
Romania	164,792,252,746	182,610,666,616	169,396,051,335	19,638,162,013	8,100,000,000,000
Russian Fed.	1,524,916,112,079	1,904,793,021,649	2,096,777,030,571	10,700,000,000,000	
Sudan	65,632,237,471	67,320,000,000	66,029,562,337	66,547,789,474	1,400,000,000,000
Sweden	463,062,061,649	523,941,063,360	558,948,700,780	49,300,000,000,000	
Tunisia	44,054,000,000	45,951,129,422	45,238,491,581	47,128,700,683	4,100,000,000,000
UK	2,462,484,285,580	2,461,768,284,868	2,521,380,958,035	36,500,000,000,000	
USA	15,533,800,000,000	16,244,600,000,000	16,768,100,000,000	48,300,000,000,000	
Rep. Yemen	31,743,751,169	29,207,296,703	31,992,801,303	35,954,502,304	1,300,000,000,000
Zambia	16,190,196,832	19,201,691,493	20,596,424,325	22,383,715,315	1,200,000,000,000

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Purchasing Power Parities Theory

Purchasing power parity means that when the 'buying ability' of different currencies is equal across countries, then the foreign exchange market is in equilibrium. The theory of purchasing power parities states that any deviation from equilibrium is only temporary because in the long run the market will gravitate back towards equilibrium.

Imagine a good in two countries; let's say tables in the UK and Germany. The purchasing power parity suggests that equilibrium is met when the table costs the same in both the UK and Germany.

Learn More!

Look at the Big Mac Index created by *The Economist* in 1986.

<http://www.economist.com/content/big-mac-index>

between the two is £1 = €2, so the table costs £100 in the UK and €100 in Germany.

If the table's cost in Germany fell to €80, so the UK consumers would buy the table in Germany rather than the UK (ignoring transport costs). UK table producers would see their sales fall.

As the price of the table falls, UK table producers would find their demand rising. This would lead to an increase in the price of the table until the table prices across both countries equalised.

Purchasing power parities can highlight whether a currency is over- or undervalued. In the long run, unless, like China, something prevents it, an undervalued currency will return to equilibrium. The Chinese government deliberately keeps the value of the renminbi undervalued and their growth heavily relies on export sales and their trade surplus. An undervalued currency makes Chinese goods cheaper than foreign goods and encourages the sale of exports. However, an undervalued currency also makes import prices appear more expensive and Chinese companies that import goods find it more difficult to compete.

GDP, Living Standards and Happiness

Economic growth means that the total value of all goods and services in an economy is increasing. However, economic development is slightly different. It refers to an improvement in living standards, such as health, environment, education and infrastructure.

ACTIVITY

Once you've read this paragraph, make a list of all the drawbacks to using measures such as GDP, GNI and GNP.

Can you explain why economists still use variables such as GDP to measure living standards and happiness despite these limitations?

Increasing GDP and other measures are often used to show an increase in living standards and happiness. The idea is that as the economy grows, there are more goods and services available to meet people's wants and needs, which makes people happier and more prosperous. Also, as the economy grows, the government can spend more on public services. This means more houses, roads, schools, hospitals, etc. This means more houses can afford the goods and services.

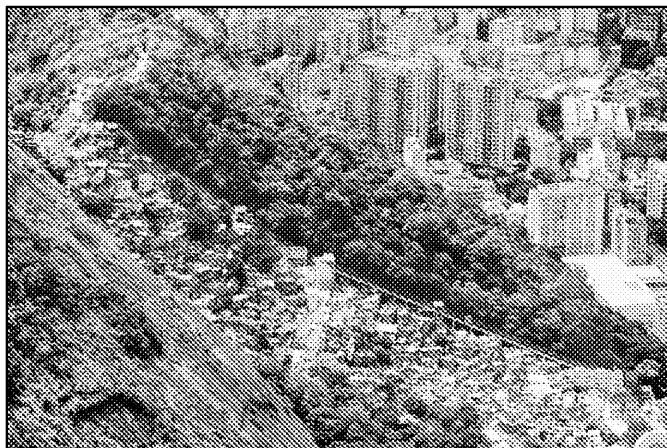
A growing economy will also have the opportunity for promotion and increasing income. As the economy grows, people will not need to work as hard to afford goods and services. The general idea is that as the economy grows, more money is generated, it can be reinvested in increasing living standards and happiness, such as education levels and providing greater opportunities to others within the economy. This is known as the "trickling down" economics. As the higher earners see their incomes increase with economic growth, this flows through the economic system and raises everybody's living standards.

However, economic growth does not always result in economic development and higher living standards. Barriers can prevent money trickling down to the poorest members of society and the economy can become even richer. There is no guarantee the money from economic growth is being invested in improving living standards or improve people's happiness. Increased GDP shows an increase in the production of goods and services, but it does not show how they were made or where the money went.

If population growth is greater than economic growth, then growth will not result in higher living standards. This is because although the economy is expanding, the greater demand of a large population for public services, such as hospitals and schools. In order for economic growth to result in higher living standards, the least, economic growth needs to be greater than population growth.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Another limitation of measures of economic growth is the use of averages. Averages can be misleading. Although the average person in a country (for example), there could be a small number of people who are earning far, far less than the average. This is a problem with income inequality, such as in South Africa. Countries that have high levels of gross domestic product (GDP) and little income inequality can be seen in Brazil where the rich towns are adjacent to the poor towns (see the photo). Any prosperity generated from economic growth is not distributed to benefit all.

So why is economic growth used to measure living standards? Economic variables are easier to measure than happiness. Economic variables are objective and happiness is subjective. Although it is not definite and the amount of increase by may not be proportionate, there is a general correlation between economic growth, happiness and development.

Learn More!

To find out more on the topic visit
<http://www.grossnationalhappiness.org/>

And watch
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZgZgZgZgZg>

National Happiness

The Gross National Happiness (GNH) Index attempts to steer policy objectives towards higher living standards by measuring happiness rather than production and incomes.

The GNH Index originated in Bhutan and is a more 'all-inclusive' approach to measuring an economy. Unlike the typical views of happiness, the GNH looks above and beyond that of a subjective understanding of happiness. The four pillars of GNH are good governance, sustainable socio-economic development, cultural preservation and environmental conservation.

Learn More!

Visit
<http://www.ons.gov.uk/g-national-well-being/g-national-well-being--in-society.html>

UK National Well-being

Well-being is the state of a person in terms of their satisfaction, health and happiness. The Office of National Statistics (ONS) has set up Well-being. Well-being has been set up by the Office of National Statistics (ONS), which has added to current economic statistics and current development statistics by including what matters to individuals and as a wider society. A debate was carried out between November 2010 and January 2011 where information was gathered across the country to determine what should be measured when observing national well-being. The result goes beyond economic figures and development statistics, including GNI, literacy rates and mortality rates, and includes social measures for relationships (with family or partner), education, financial situation, governance, the environment and health.

Real Income and Subjective Happiness

The relationship between real incomes and happiness is an interesting topic in economics. There is controversy over the exact relationship among many factors. 'Does money bring happiness?'

Research shows that generally countries with higher incomes have a happier population. Research has also shown this relationship exists within a country, i.e. the richer areas of a country are generally happier than those with less money within the same country. This is because a lack of money can create a struggle to meet basic needs, whereas having more money allows people to purchase the goods desired and countries with higher incomes can provide greater social services.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Some economists believe an increase in real incomes can mean a worker does not purchase the goods they want, thereby making them happier. Some believe an increase in real incomes has no effect on happiness, and some believe it can make a person less happy due to the related pressures. Another hypothesis states an increase in real incomes will increase subjective happiness until a point. This can be known as a 'saturation point', where any increase in real incomes above this point will make no difference to happiness. The true relationship is still unknown; however, there is continuous research surrounding this field of economics.

Why is Economic Growth a Measure of Economic Performance?

A well-performing economy increases, expands and grows. Economic growth can bring with it many jobs, which will help to lower unemployment and provide an income for people. Economic growth is closely linked to higher living standards and provides greater opportunity to an economy, although this is not always the case; nor is the benefit always evenly distributed across all economic agents.

ACTIVITY

Think about the

- If you move to a new country, the cost of living is unchanged, but the weather is different. How does this affect your happiness?
- The product of a country is used to cause illness. How does this affect the country's happiness?
- A country is extracting oil from the ground. How does this affect the country's happiness?

Inflation

Microeconomics talks about prices for individual goods in the context of individual goods. However, with macroeconomics the focus is on the 'price level' in the economy; that is, the average of prices for all goods in the economy. Economists are not concerned with the level of prices, but instead the rate of change of price level, i.e. by how much the prices have risen or fallen.

Country A's inflation rate was 3% in June, but in July its inflation was 2%. This would be disinflation because the rate has fallen but there is still a rise in general price.

Country B's inflation over a four-year period is shown below...

Year	Inflation
Year 1	2.0%
Year 2	1.4%
Year 3	0.3%
Year 4	-0.6%

For the first three years, country B experienced disinflation. It wasn't until year 4, when the inflation rate was -0.6%, that the country experienced deflating prices.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Causes of Inflation

Inflation has three main causes. However, this will be covered further in Topic 2.1. You have already learnt the relevant information. For those who like a very simplified and quick explanation, see the box below...

Can't wait...?

Remember the supply and demand diagram! If demand or supply changes, price changes. Price will rise if supply retracts or if demand increases.

Do not use the simple supply and demand diagram when discussing inflation because this is only a microeconomic concept – you will be marked down. Inflation looks at prices from a macro level. These changes should be a sum change of all the demand curves from all the consumers and all the supply curves for all the goods/services in the economy. A micro supply and demand diagram is not appropriate.

Effects of Inflation

There is a variety of problems that arise from price changes. Inflation can be associated with economic growth because, often, inflation follows growth. The other causes of inflation will be discussed in Topic 2.5.1. Deflation, therefore, is associated with negative economic growth. However, deflation can also cause negative growth rates. If prices are falling then firms and consumers know that if they wait, they can get a better deal because things will be cheaper. If people stop buying goods or investing their money, then the economy will stop expanding (think about the circular flow of income diagram). It is generally believed that inflation should be positive; however, high levels of inflation can still have undesirable effects.

- **Diminishes the Value of Savings**

Because inflation decreases purchasing power, money kept aside will lose value. Money is usually diminished by inflation. High enough interest rates (the money received on savings) can help mitigate the value-diminishing effects of inflation. Money is more susceptible to inflation for the same reason.

- **Shoe-leather Costs**

As a consumer, if you know roughly the relative prices of similar goods then a price is acceptable. Firms need knowledge of relative prices in order to determine a price before determining a price. Inflation means prices are changing, which means you need to know the price of a good. This idea of a 'shoe leather' cost comes from the notion of walking down from walking between various shops to gather knowledge of the prices.

Another effect of inflation that wears shoe leather comes from the first part of the circular flow of income. People need cash, i.e. they need to hold cash in its physical form. Holding money will lose its value because of inflation. For example, if you keep your money in a bank account hoping to reduce the effects of inflation, you will have to spend more time travelling to the bank to withdraw money. Travelling to and from the bank to withdraw money will wear down shoe leather.

- **Menu Costs**

Changing prices mean firms have to change their labels, print new menus, etc. Changing prices on machines is costly, such as on tills, vending machines, etc. This is most relevant when you experience extremely high inflation known as hyperinflation. Zimbabwe is a good example. At the peak of their hyperinflation problem prices were doubling every 24 hours. It was almost impossible to maintain price lists.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



- **Disposable Income**

If prices rise then the purchasing power of people's income falls. By this, it is meant that money doesn't go as far. Imagine you have £5; it costs £1 for a bus to school, lunch is £1.50 and at the end of the day you still have £2.50 to do with as you please. Maybe you buy a magazine at £2 and buy a 50p bag of crisps. Now, you still have £5 but inflation is at 20%. The bus to school is £1.20 and you only have £2 left to do with as you please. But the magazine is £2.40 and you are unable to purchase the same items as before. This is of particular concern for public-sector workers. Public-sector workers can find their wages are 'frozen' when they go back. A 'pay freeze' means wages are kept fixed at the same nominal value even though a pay cut as prices rise and purchasing power falls.

- **Costs of Living**

If prices increase then people's costs of living increase. This can be a problem for groups living on or close to the poverty line. For workers with low bargaining power, wage-rate determination, they may find themselves in a squeeze from rising costs as the cost of living does not increase at least with inflation.

- **Disorder**

Periods of high inflation have been known to start riots and revolts. If prices change too fast to incomes, people feel worse off.

- **Government Taxation**

If the government doesn't raise personal income tax allowance with inflation, the tax burden on society will be greater but the government will receive more tax revenue. The amount workers can earn before being taxed. Equally, if specific taxes on goods rise with inflation then the government will receive less tax revenue than it could.

- **Unemployment**

This relationship is discussed in detail in Topic 2.6.4. Phillips found an inverse relationship between unemployment and inflation. He found that as inflation increases, unemployment falls, vice versa.

- **International Competitiveness**

As UK prices rise, UK goods will appear more expensive on the global market. UK goods, ceteris paribus. Therefore, inflation can diminish UK competitiveness. UK services appear relatively expensive.

- **Anticipated Inflation**

If inflation is anticipated, firms and governments can include it in planning and mitigate its effects. Unanticipated inflation can throw off plans which will lead to problems. If inflation is anticipated, people can take steps to protect themselves. Unanticipated inflation can create uncertainty in business planning and investment.



Further Your Economic Knowledge...

Fiscal Drag

As incomes rise, people who were close to a tax-bracket boundary cross into the next bracket. This means more people will be paying the higher income tax rate. The government will receive more tax revenue without having changed fiscal policy and this is known as fiscal drag.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Measures of Inflation

Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a measure of inflation and is the measure used by the government. By its name, it is an index of prices and measures the percentage change in prices. A 1% increase in the CPI level is the inflation rate.

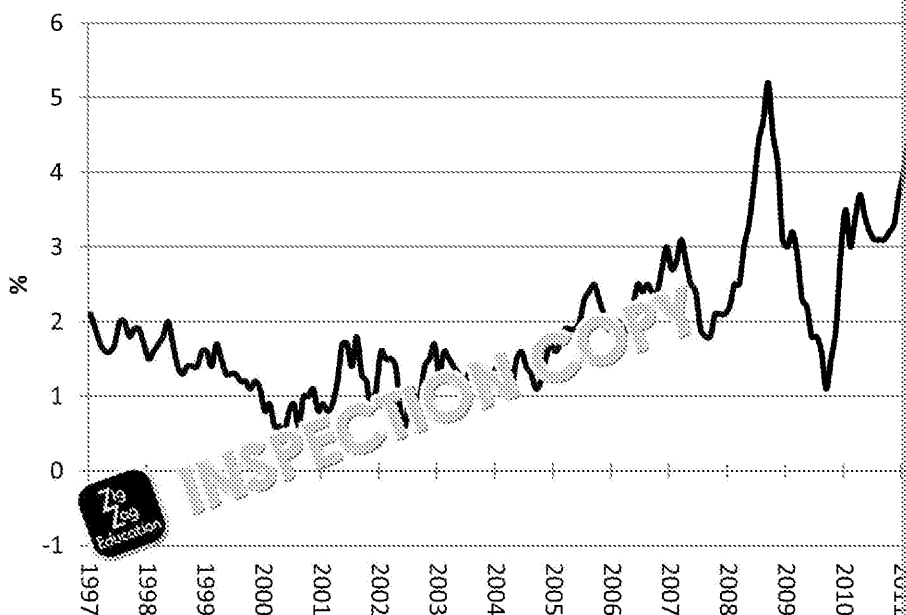
There are far too many goods and services in the UK produced by a variety of suppliers and sold at a variety of outlets to measure all of them. Instead, CPI measures the prices of a representative proportion of aggregate consumption, i.e. CPI measures the price change for over 700 goods and services that are typically bought by an average household. These goods/services are referred to as a 'basket of goods' and are found from the 'Living Costs' survey where households taking the survey record their expenditure for a month and this is used to determine the average household's spending pattern. The relative and changing price of this basket of goods is the average price level change (inflation). Prices can change, meaning the basket of goods in the survey is done regularly in order to keep the basket of goods revised and up to date.

The Living Costs survey has another use as well. Inflation on expensive goods has a greater impact on the economy than inflation on cheaper products. Equally, prices of essential goods such as energy and food, will have a more significant impact on the economy than prices of goods bought too often. For this reason, some goods need greater importance attached to them when calculating inflation. 'Weights' are given to items to account for their various impacts. These weights are determined by the Family Expenditure Survey.

DATA

Below is a chart of the CPI rates in the UK between 1997 and 2015. The Bank of England aims to keep inflation as stable as possible and targets a rate of 2%. You can see that prior to the 2008 financial crisis, the UK was doing quite well: inflation was just below 2% and quite constant. Since the crisis, it has become much more volatile, rising about 5% and even becoming slightly negative in early 2010.

CPI rates in the UK: 1997-2015



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Indexation and Measuring CPI

Let’s use an example to show how an index is calculated to show inflation.

Year	Goods		
	Good name	Price	Items bought as a percentage of total items bought (weight)
2013 (base year)	Good A	£25	10% (0.1)
	Good B	£1.50	65% (0.65)
	Good C	£5.00	15% (0.15)
	Good D	£7.50	10% (0.1)
2014	Good A	£25.50	10% (0.1)
	Good B	£1.60	65% (0.65)
	Good C	£5.50	20% (0.15)
	Good D	£7.50	5% (0.05)
2015	Good A	£26	10% (0.1)
	Good B	£1.60	60% (0.6)
	Good C	£5.50	20% (0.2)
	Good D	£7.50	5% (0.05)
	Good E	£7.00	5% (0.05)
2016	Good A	£27	10% (0.1)
	Good B	£1.60	60% (0.6)
	Good C	£5.60	15% (0.15)
	Good E	£7.50	15% (0.15)

- 1. First you need to select a base year. There may be particular reasons for a year but otherwise it can be any. In this example 2013 will be the base year because it has the most data for.
- 2. From the survey, the goods bought by most households and their weights for the survey. The goods and their weights may change slightly according to previous years.
- 3. The price level for each year is then found from the representative sample of each good by its weight and adding them together.

$$\text{Price Level}_{\text{Year}} = (\text{Price}_A \times \text{Weight}_A) + (\text{Price}_B \times \text{Weight}_B) + (\text{Price}_C \times \text{Weight}_C) + (\text{Price}_D \times \text{Weight}_D)$$
$$\text{Price Level}_{2013} = (£25 \times 0.1) + (£1.5 \times 0.65) + (£5 \times 0.15) + (£7.5 \times 0.1) = £4.98$$

This is done for all the years and is shown on the table.

- 4. Then the index value is found by $\left(\frac{\text{Price Value of Year}}{\text{Price Value of Base Year}} \right) \times 100$.
So the index for 2014 would be $\left(\frac{£5.02}{£4.98} \right) \times 100 = 101$
- 5. The base year is always 100 $\left[100 = \left(\frac{£4.98}{£4.98} \right) \times 100 \right]$. Any index above 100 shows a higher price level and therefore inflation, e.g. from 2013 to 2014 (index 101) there was 1% inflation and to 2015 (index 108) there was 8% inflation. If the index was 98 then there would be 2% deflation.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



6. To find the inflation between years, you first find the difference between the the base number. Inflation = $\left[\frac{(\text{Index}_B - \text{Index}_A)}{\text{Index}_{\text{Base}}} \right] \times 100$. So the inflation from $\left[\frac{(108 - 101)}{100} \right] \times 100$.

Because the base year is always 100, finding inflation from the base year can

Inflation = Difference between two years

QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

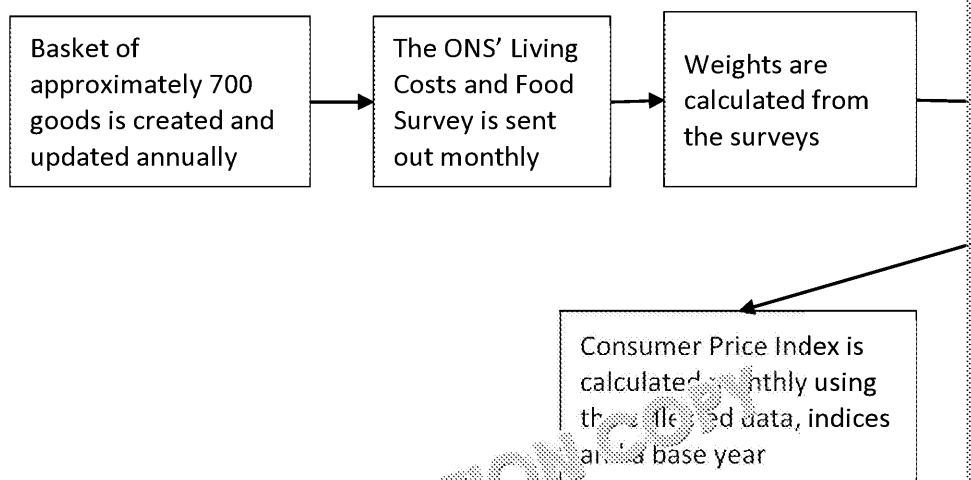
You need to know how to calculate and interpret index numbers as part of the quantitative element of the course. These skills account for up to 10% of the marks in the A Level. Make sure you're comfortable with the ideas and the calculation process.

Retail Price Index (RPI)

The RPI is another measure of inflation. CPI is used by the government but RPI is used by the private sector and there has been talk of swapping from measuring inflation using CPI to RPI measures.

Both measures use a representative proportion of aggregate household consumption (they both record their prices for a variety of goods/services, suppliers and retailers (both independent stores and large chains). They both use weighted prices and calculate the percentage price change from a base year.

The difference between the two measures is very complicated and does not need to be covered in detail. CPI uses a geometric average, whereas RPI uses an arithmetic average. But the main difference is that RPI includes housing costs and CPI includes energy costs which will show a bigger impact on inflation.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Inflation and Income

The rate at which wages increase can differ from inflation (the rate at which prices increase). If wages do not increase, then people will find their income cannot go as far and they will have to be paying their bills and weekly shop, etc. In some cases people may find they are unable to buy what they could buy beforehand and will have to cut back. This can have a severe social impact. If wages increase above inflation then overall they will be better off.

For example: If your income was £100, you spent £40 on the weekly shop for groceries. If inflation was 10%, you would have £10 to spend and/or save as you wish (that's 10% of your income). However, if your income stays the same. Groceries would rise to £44 and bills would be £55; you would have £1 to spend and/or save as you wish. There is then disinflation, but prices have still risen by 5%. Groceries would be £57.75; this equates to £103.95 but your income is still only £100.

However, if your income rose in line with inflation, then when bills and groceries rise to £110. You would have £11 to spend and/or save as you wish (that's 10% of your income). If bills and groceries rise to £125 your income would rise to £115.50 and you would have £1.50 to spend and/or save as you wish (that's 10% of your income).

If your income rises by more than inflation, then, although prices were rising, your income would exceed the marginal increase in your spending. Therefore, you would be better off.

Limitations of using CPI to measure inflation

- **Quality**

If the quality of a good/service increases, then its price will increase too. The increase in price will be recorded as inflation.

CPI has not accounted for the quality increase even though this may improve lives. For example, cars are much more advanced than they were in the past. The development of features such as air conditioning, parking assistance and cruise control have become more expensive because these features cost money – but they also make cars more comfortable and faster.

- **Shocks**

Shocks may cause a temporary price change and this may give misleading information. Natural disasters overseas may interrupt trading which can cause shortages.

- **Differing Measures**

CPI generally gives a higher inflation level than RPI. Using different inflation measures can give different results and so it is important to policymakers, budgeters and business planners to know which they use.

- **Unrepresentative**

A problem of using CPI to measure inflation comes from the maths. Average inflation is calculated which could have potential importance. For example, inflation will be different for different people not just because everybody is different, but because each household consists of different people, different genders and different income and wealth levels. Inflation may be different for different groups. You may find instead that the average prices have increased by 6%. Varying household inflation is calculated using the Living Costs and Food Survey.

- **Substitution**

If the price of a good increases, then people are likely to swap to a cheaper alternative. This is not represented clearly in the measures of inflation. Equally, CPI may overstate inflation if people may shop at 'discount' shops because they will pay lower prices than those measured by CPI.

Economic change is the degree to which the economy changes over time. It is measured by the change in the price level of a basket of goods and services outside the economy.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Why is Inflation a Measure of Economic Performance?

Inflation can bring with it a variety of problems, as discussed above, and deflation can also be a problem. Low inflation can lead to slow growth, causing the economy to become stagnant. High levels of inflation are disruptive and indicate a volatile market. Maintaining price stability can help maintain stability in the economy.

Employment and Unemployment

Unemployment is a crucial economic indicator. If lots of people want to work but that the economy isn't functioning as well as it could. In this section we will look at definitions of unemployment, as well as what causes it. Let's start with distinguishing unemployment and underemployment.

Employment: the name given to a used resource; a worker who has a job and is earning

Unemployment: the name given to an unused resource; a worker who is economically

Underemployment: a worker is employed, but this differs from employment because the human capital

Underemployment occurs when a firm uses less of a worker than the worker is able or willing to provide. Part-time or reduced hours when the worker wishes to do more hours, or the requirements of a job are less than the skillset or education level a worker possesses. Underemployment in an economy can mean the economy is producing within its production possibility frontier (PPF) because, even if all resources are used, they are not used most efficiently. Recent university graduates are often

underemployed as financial struggles can cause

them to take jobs that are below their skillsets.

ACTIVITY

The ONS define underemployment as those who are working fewer hours than they wish to work. Research the effects of the 2008 global financial crisis on underemployment.

Employment does not fall just because unemployment has risen; they are independently of each other. For example, the number of people who are economically active and in jobs, then the level of employment has risen and remained the same.

Causes of Unemployment

- **Structural Unemployment**

When the demand for labour is low and doesn't meet the supply of labour then people will find they are unemployed. This can happen in a variety of ways and is caused by the immobility and inflexibility in labour. As economists, we assume the resources in an economy can shift between markets to react to price change. We assume there are no barriers to factor mobility. However, when industries decline, workers are unable to adapt to rising industries because of a mismatch in skills. Structural unemployment can also exist because the supply and demand of labour is distributed unevenly across the country and mismatched.

- **Frictional Unemployment**

While moving from one job to another there is a period of unemployment. It refers to people who are 'between jobs'. Most economists see frictional unemployment as a problem.

- **Seasonal Unemployment**

Workers in tourist-reliant industries tend to suffer from seasonal unemployment. They will find they are out of work during certain periods. Generally, seasonal unemployment is high in summer and low in winter.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

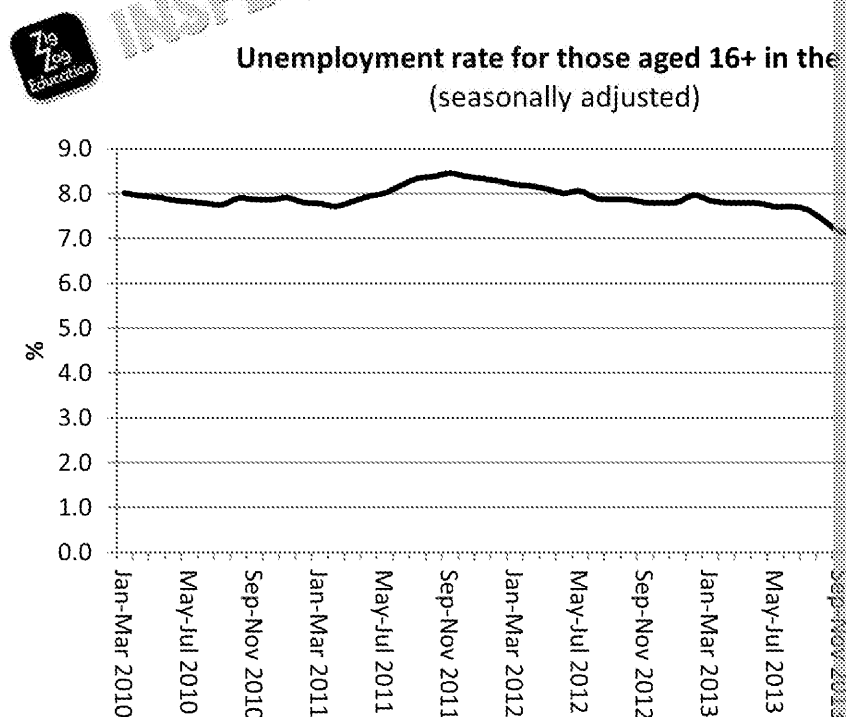


• **Demand Deficiency and Cyclical Unemployment**

Unemployment occurs when an economy is in recession. Recessions and booms but for now, recessions are when the economy shrinks and has falling GDP. When production and reduce costs, firms will reduce of resources they use; one of which is people. People will lose their jobs and the level of unemployment will rise. This is likely to fall, whether in a recession or not, because firms will restrict supply by making less (as labour) in order to meet the lower demand levels.

DATA

Below is a graph showing the recent history of unemployment in the UK. Observe the high of over 8% following the financial crisis to about 5.5% at the start of 2015. The data has been seasonally adjusted so any seasonal variations (as explained above) has been smoothed out. A rate of about 5% is quite good. There will never be 0% unemployment because there is always slack – perhaps people prefer leisure to working, or are ‘between jobs’. The lowest rate ever in the UK was 3.4% in 1973.



• **Real-wage Inflexibility**

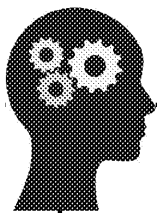
If the actual wage rate exceeds the market equilibrium wage rate then there will be an excess supply of labour. More people would be willing to supply labour than people would be willing to purchase labour. This excess supply of labour represents unemployed labour.

If the actual wage rate fell because demand for labour fell, for example, the actual wage rate may remain at the same point rather than falling. This is because the labour market is inflexible to changes and wages are ‘sticky’. Sticky wages are explained again later in Topic 2.3.3, but for now, sticky wages are wages that do not change or are slow to change. This happens because workers do not accept falling wages because they are lower than their expectations. If they did, then it would follow the equilibrium more closely and unemployment would be lower.

Human Capital: A worker, such as a university graduate, has experience and skills that are human capital. Human capital is the knowledge and skills that a worker has. It increases the productivity of a worker and is the return to education.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Further Your Economic Knowledge...

Natural Rate of Unemployment

The natural rate of unemployment is the level of unemployment that the labour market is in equilibrium. Any attempts to decrease unemployment will be temporary as the economy will gravitate towards this level in the long run. It is the level of unemployment where the number of those who want a job at the wage level and those who are willing and able to supply labour are equal. This means it includes frictional and structural unemployment. It does not include cyclical unemployment. Those who are unemployed at the natural rate have a job at the current wage rate but are not working because they are waiting for a job or do not have matching skills to the current structure.

Inflation will increase if unemployment is below its natural rate. Equilibrium unemployment is greater than its natural rate. For this reason the natural rate is also called the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment.

Effects of Unemployment

Workers

- Unemployed workers are not receiving an income and will find they are less able to afford services.
- Workers out of work will find their human capital falling as they forget skills and knowledge.
- Those who are unemployed for a long period of time will find it harder to acquire new skills for two reasons. Firstly, their human capital has fallen. Secondly, employers are reluctant to shortlist candidates because they take the stance that 'if other employers are not shortlisting them, would they waste time coming to the same conclusions?'.
- Claiming unemployment benefits has a stigma attached to it. Unemployed workers may experience a loss of esteem and higher levels of depression.

Consumers

- Consumers will reduce their spending if their income falls.

Firms

- Falling incomes and falling spending will mean firms will find demand falls for their products and revenue.
- However, if firms did want to increase supply there would be a pool of unused capacity. Firms may flatten their supply curves (make supply more elastic).

The Government

- Higher levels of unemployment mean there are more people claiming Jobseeker's Allowance, so government spending will increase.
- Lower employment means fewer people are receiving an income and the government will receive less revenue from incomes and national insurance, for example.
- Falling incomes and falling consumption mean the government will receive less revenue from goods and services.
- Falling revenue and increased government spending will mean the government will run a budget deficit which may lead to higher levels of national debt.

The Economy and Society

- High unemployment can cause people to lose confidence in the economy.
- Falling incomes means living standards will fall.
- Because government spending is made possible by the collection of taxes, increased government spending on benefits is likely to be followed by higher taxes in the future.
- Higher levels of national debt are likely to cause higher taxes.
- Research has found that higher levels of unemployment can lead to increased crime and social problems.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- Communities can become run down if there are high levels of unemployment. This can cause both local shops to close and a fall in living standards.
- Higher levels of unemployment can increase inequality and strengthen an underclass. Those without jobs lose their incomes and potentially fall into poverty.
- Unemployment, however, can have some advantages to it. Structural unemployment is improving and evolving as resources are being reshuffled to more productive uses.
- If there is lots of unemployed labour in the market, this means firms can expand more easily because there is a pool of readily available workers. Equally, there will be no inflation as the cost of production remains relatively low.

The Benefits of Employment

If somebody becomes employed then they will gain an income. This increase in income makes it easier to buy the goods and services that they need, which will improve living standards. It also allows them to purchase the goods that make them happy, which will also increase living standards. Finally, it is that with increased incomes comes increased spending, which will benefit firms and the economy as a whole.

If more people are earning an income and firms are making more profits from the sale of their goods, the government will gain more revenue from taxes. This in turn will go back into the economy through spending on roads or hospitals, for example. Equally, as employment rises, there is less need for unemployment benefits so the government can reduce its spending on unemployment benefits.

If people have jobs then it gives them a chance to improve their skillset and increase their productivity. This benefits the worker but the overall economy will benefit from increased human capital being available. An increase in human capital will improve efficiency and allow the economy to increase its output.

Measures of Unemployment

There are two main measures of unemployment: ILO unemployment rate and claimant count. These two measures tend to differ by a greater amount when the economy is successfully growing than when the economy is declining.

ILO Unemployment Rate

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines unemployment as 'those who are without work, available for work and seeking work but have not yet found it'. To identify the level of unemployment, the ILO conducts a survey of a sample of households. The survey asks whether people are in or out of work, whether they are seeking or not seeking work. From the sample an estimated unemployment rate can be calculated for the economy.

Claimant Count

This measures unemployment by counting the number of people who have registered as 'unemployed' and are claiming Jobseeker's Allowance. To be eligible to claim Jobseeker's Allowance, a person must be, of course, out of work but also economically active (i.e. able to work and willing to work). The claimant count is quite a broad measure of unemployment as it counts all those who are claiming Jobseeker's Allowance rather than just a sample of people. However, it is inaccurate at measuring the level of unemployment in the economy because it does not include people who are economically inactive, i.e. those who are not seeking work. The claimant count generally underestimates the level of unemployment as it only counts those who are claiming; there are many who are unemployed but do not claim Jobseeker's Allowance. For many there is a stigma attached to 'being on the dole' and they prefer to look for a new job.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



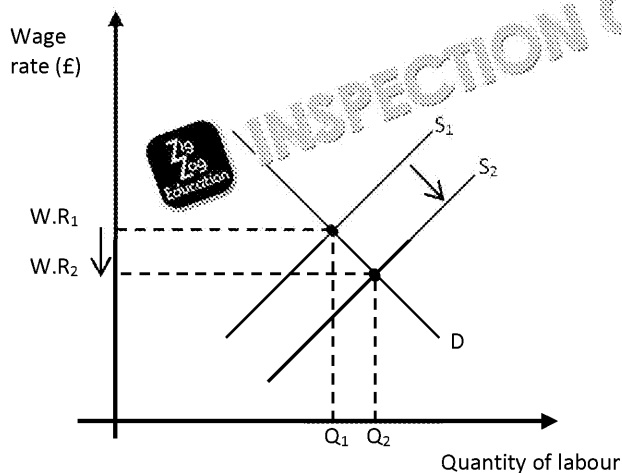
Migration and Employment

Immigration: an inward flow of people (people moving to a country)

Emigration: an outward flow of people (people moving away from a country)

Migration: movement of people between countries

Migration occurs for a variety of reasons and its effects differ depending on these reasons. Some may migrate to find work or for a specific job, such as a foreign company headhunting a worker, or migrate because a company may help set up a new firm in a foreign market. Some may migrate in order to escape oppression in their home countries. Others may migrate for greater opportunities or for education, such as a student moving to another country.



Those who immigrate to find work will not affect employment levels. The number of people unemployed will not be affected. Those who immigrate for a specific job will increase employment. Those who are unemployed will not be affected. Immigration can fill short-term vacancies and increase levels of employment.

It can be argued that immigration increases the labour supply curve, which causes the wage rate of labour to fall. It should be noted that there is a minimum wage in the economy, so the wage rate will not fall below this level whatever the number of immigrants.

Effect of Migration on the Economy

Increased immigration will increase demand in the economy, which will cause the economy to grow and create more jobs. Aggregate demand is discussed later in Topic 2.2. Economic growth can also occur from immigration because the resources available to an economy have increased. If the volume of labour resource available has increased then the economy can increase its maximum production (PPFs). Working immigrants will pay income taxes which means the government will have more revenue.

Migration will carry human capital. Countries with high levels of immigration will find there is an influx of skills and education. Economies with high levels of emigration, on the other hand, may find themselves in a 'brain drain' with their most skilled and educated workers leaving to work abroad. Some worry that the perfect mobility of labour will damage developing countries by enabling exploitation of their resources as workers migrate, leaving the country drained of human capital.

Learn More
Read Key
2003 on
<http://www.brain-drain.org>



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY

Why is Unemployment a Measure of Economic Performance?

Low levels of unemployment are generally associated with economic growth because as the economy grows and expands, new industries, markets and firms are created which bring with them more jobs. More jobs means more people are employed and so low levels of unemployment can indicate the economy is expanding.

Unemployment can also indicate high levels of poverty. This is because those without jobs have no income. The economy is performing well if the standard of living is high (relative or absolute) and more people are able to afford the goods or services they need.

Most relevantly, unemployment means there are unused resources within an economy. High levels of unemployment indicate the economy is not producing its maximum productive potential and is well below its production possibility frontier, leaving room for improvement.

Learn More
Search for
Latest on
the most



ACTIVITY

Research the Great Depression and the effects unemployment had during this period. The two links below are a good place to start...

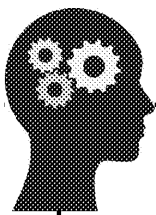
- <http://thegreatdepressioncauses.com/unemployment/>
- <http://bigmateo0.tripod.com/id2.html>

INSPECTION COPY



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Further Your Economic Knowledge...

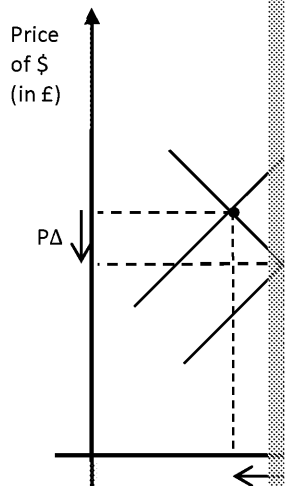
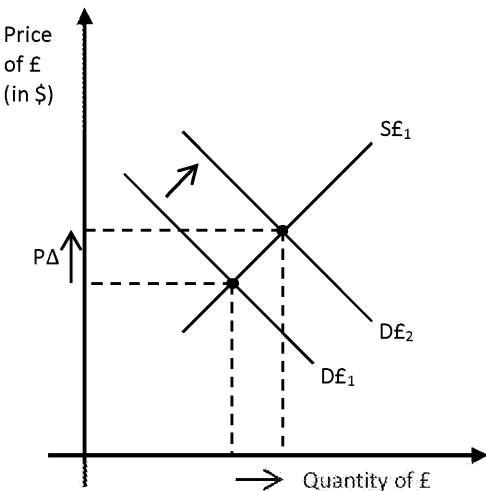
The Exchange Rate

When a good is bought, an amount of money is given over 'in exchange' for the good. The amount of money swapped for it. The exchange rate of one currency can be swapped (exchanged) for another currency, or, the value of one currency in terms of another currency (e.g. \$).

If a US consumer decides to buy a British good then they will need to have British currency (£) because the good is valued in £.

Let's look at the exchange rate of £ and \$ and how this transaction works. The graph on the left shows the quantity of £ in the global economy is shown on the x-axis, 'quantity of £' on the y-axis, and the price of £ is shown in \$ as we want to know how many \$ we can get for £. The graph on the right shows the demand and supply of \$: the quantity of \$ is shown on the x-axis, 'quantity of \$' on the y-axis, and the price of \$ is shown in £ as we want to know how many £ we can get for \$.

As the American wishes to buy £, the demand for £ increases from DE_1 to DE_2 . The value of the £ in \$ has increased by $P\Delta$. The value of the £ has appreciated; this means the ability of the £ to buy \$ has increased; the £ can buy more \$ than before. The supply of \$ increases from $S\$1$ to $S\$2$ and the price of \$ decreases by $P\Delta$. The value of the \$ has decreased so its purchasing power is fewer £s.

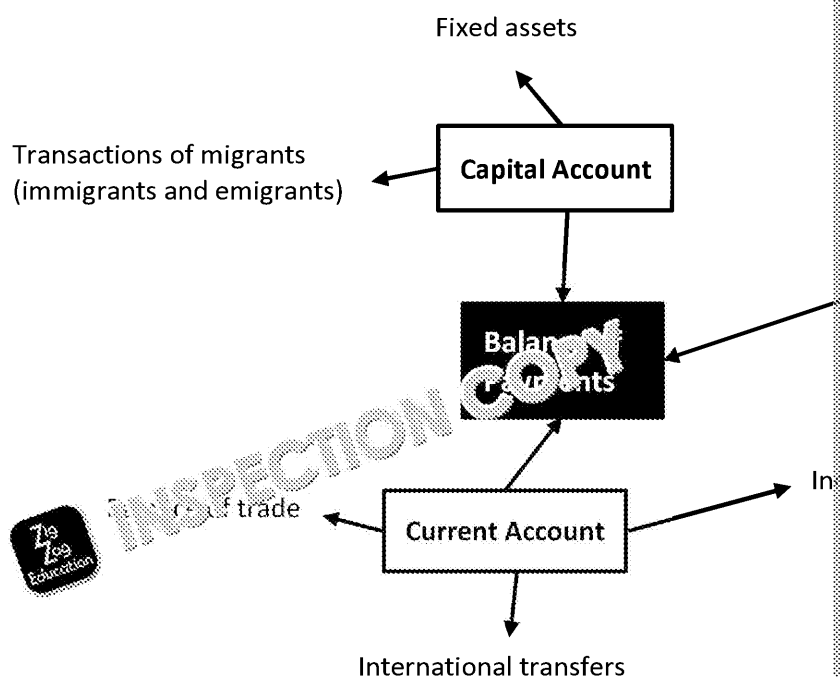


INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Balance of Payments



The balance of payments is a record of the international trade between one economy and the rest of the world. The balance of payments is made up of three accounts which are responsible for various types of transactions. You will only need to know about one of these: the current account.

The current account records three aspects of trade. **International transfers** refer to payments between governments and international organisations. **Income payments** encompass employment income, profits, dividends and interest from overseas assets owned by nationals. The **balance of trade** is the difference between exports and imports. The **balance of payments** is the sum of the current account and the capital account. You will study the current account in most depth.

The Current Account Balance of Trade



This looks at the proportion of exports compared to the proportion of imports. Topic 2.4 discussed how an import is a flow of money **OUT** of the economy. Therefore, an import appears as a negative on the current account. An export is a flow of money **INTO** the economy and, therefore, appears as a positive on the current account.

If exports > imports then there would be more money flowing **into** the economy; the '+' would be greater than the '-'. This would be a current account **surplus**.

If imports > exports then there would be more money flowing **out** of the economy; the '-' would be greater than the '+'. This would be a current account **deficit**.

There are many things that affect the current account trade balance by affecting imports (M) and exports (X). Relative prices of goods in the global market, just the price of a good in the UK market, affect the demand and supply of a good. If there is high inflation in the UK, UK goods are **'relatively'** more expensive than eurozone goods. This means the number of UK consumers will fall, and the demand from UK consumers for imports (goods from other countries) will rise. If UK consumers swap from buying the relatively expensive UK goods to the relatively cheap imports, exports fall and UK imports rise there will be a current account deficit, a worsening of the current account. If there is an improvement in a current account surplus.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Be careful when talking about the trade balance. If exports increase and imports increase, exports are now bigger than imports. Imagine three different companies who export and import. Assume that the goods they trade have an equal monetary value. With all these changes, what will increase and their imports decrease; what will happen to their trade balance?

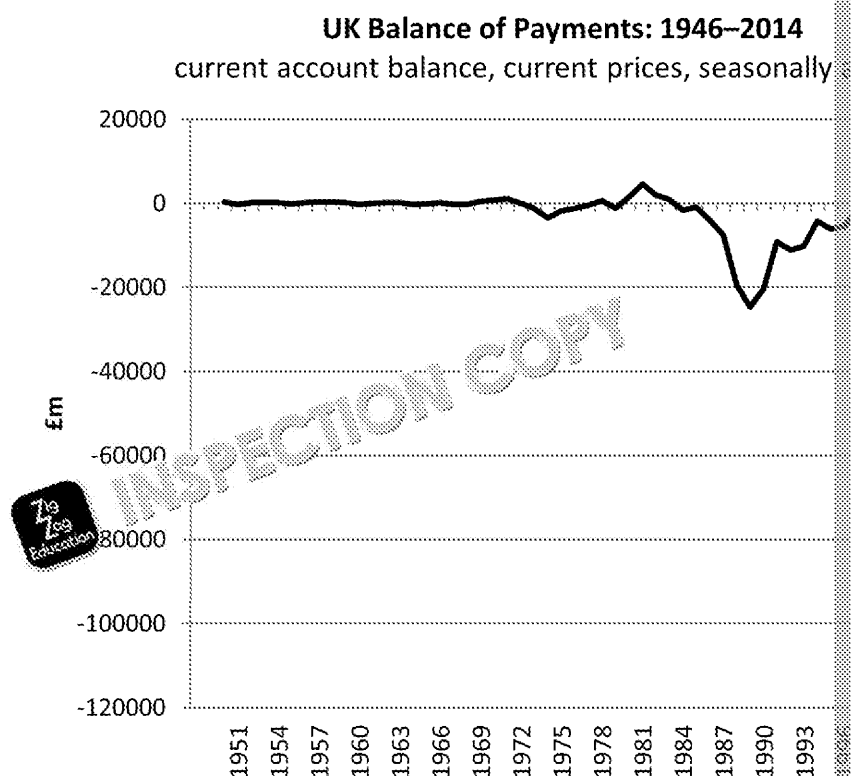
1. If **company 1** exported 100 fridges but imported 200 TVs, they would have a trade deficit. If their exports increased by 30 and their imports decreased by 40, they would export 130 fridges and import 160 TVs. Company 1 would still have a trade deficit because, although exports have risen, imports are still greater than exports. Their trade deficit has improved.
2. Imagine **company 2** export 150 office desks but import 100 dining room tables. If their exports increase by 20 desks and imports decrease by 20 tables, the change in exports and imports has resulted in a worsening of the trade surplus. Company 2 now exports 170 desks and import 80 dining room tables.
3. Imagine **company 3** export 90 lawnmowers and import 100 spades – a trade deficit. If their exports increase to 120 and their imports fall to 75, they have now gone from a trade deficit to a trade surplus.

The point of this example is that a change in imports and exports cannot tell you whether a country has a deficit or surplus without further information, i.e. without knowing their original trade balance. It is much better to say 'this will either worsen a trade surplus or improve a trade deficit', or 'this will either worsen a trade surplus or improve a trade deficit'. The UK typically has a current account deficit and so you can explain the results of a change in exports and imports by describing their effects as worsening or improving a deficit.

Remember this, because exports and imports are important later for aggregate demand and supply. Surpluses and deficits will be discussed in Topic 2.6.

DATA

The diagram below shows the UK Balance of Payments on the current account from 1946 to 2014. The UK has consistently run a deficit on the current account balance in recent years. This is not unusual for a developed economy.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Balancing the Balance of Payments

The balance of payments must always equal 0; it must always balance. Any surplus is offset by a deficit (–) in the other accounts. In UK history over the last few decades, the current account deficit, usually due to the balance of trade ($M > X$). This may be balanced by a surplus in the financial account by selling UK assets overseas.

There is a balancing element to account for inaccurate data. This is called the ‘net errors and omissions’ which attempts to offset any errors in data collection and entry.

Interconnectedness of Economies

The buying of goods and services from abroad and the selling of our goods and services (international trade) can affect the domestic economy. This means the consumption of goods and services by consumers will affect our economy just as the consumption of goods and services by consumers in other countries will affect their economy. This highlights a ‘mutual cause and effect’ between countries’ economies. This ‘interconnectedness’ or ‘interdependence’ of economies and means that countries are connected; they are mutually susceptible to and supported by each other.

Because one country’s imports are another country’s exports, their balance of trade is the opposite of each other. Theoretically the sum of all the trade balances across the world should equal zero.

Why is the Balance of Payments a Measure of Economic Performance?

The balance of payments can be used as a measure of economic performance as it shows the flow of money into and out of an economy. An economy with a large deficit means more money is going out than coming in, which can lead to a deflation. This can be funded by a surplus in another account, such as the financial account. However, large deficits or surpluses are unsustainable.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Questions: Measures of Economic Performance

1. What is the difference between inflation, deflation and disinflation?
2.
 - a) List and explain four effects of inflation.
 - b) Despite these effects, why is deflation worse?
3. What is a basket of goods?
4. These questions refer to measuring inflation.
 - a) How is inflation measured using the CPI?
 - b) What is another measure of inflation?
 - c) What are the limitations of measuring inflation?
 - d) Using the information in the table below:
 - i) Fill in the missing columns.
 - ii) What is the rate of inflation in Year 1, Year 2 and Year 3?
 - iii) Using inflation, deflation and disinflation, can you describe the years?

Year	Goods			
	Good name	Price	Items bought as a percentage of total items bought (weight)	
Year 1 (base year)	Good A	£5.00	20%	0.20
	Good B	£3.00	15%	0.15
	Good C	£0.50	35%	0.35
	Good D	£9.50	30%	0.30
Year 2	Good A	£5.25	21%	0.21
	Good B	£3.50	15%	0.15
	Good C	£0.65	35%	0.35
	Good D	£9.60	29%	0.29
Year 3	Good A	£5.75	21%	0.21
	Good B	£3.75	16%	0.16
	Good C	£0.75	35%	0.35
	Good D	£10.00	28%	0.28
Year 4	Good A	£5.75	18%	0.18
	Good B	£3.75	14%	0.14
	Good C	£0.75	35%	0.35
	Good D	£10.00	27%	0.27
	Good E	£2.00	6%	0.06

5. What is the difference between employment, unemployment and underemployment?
6.
 - a) What are the five main causes of unemployment?
 - b) Can you explain these causes?
7. List and explain four effects of unemployment.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



8. These questions refer to the measures of unemployment.
- What are the two main measures of unemployment?
 - How do these measures attempt to quantify unemployment?
 - How accurate are these measures?
9. What is the difference between immigration, emigration and net migration?
10. Can you explain some effects of positive net migration on the economy?
11. a) What is GDP?
b) How effective is GDP in measuring living standards and living standards?
c) How do real and nominal GDP differ?
d) How can GDP be adjusted to account for population size?
12. According to the theory of purchasing power parity, when is equilibrium reached?
13. What is meant when economists say there is a current account deficit?
14. What is meant by the interconnectedness of economies?
15. Why are inflation, economic growth, the balance of payments and the current account considered key measures for economic performance?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-style Questions 1: Measures of Economic Growth

INSPECTION COPY

1. Describe the difference between real GDP and nominal GDP.

.....

.....

.....

2. Which **one** of the following is correct?
- A In the case of constant prices (0% inflation), real GDP will rise faster than nominal GDP.
 - B Real GDP is adjusted using the unemployment rate.
 - C Nominal GDP adjusts all years relative to a base year.
 - D If inflation is positive, nominal GDP will rise faster than real GDP.

3. Define the term 'disinflation'.



.....

.....

.....

4. Explain **one** limitation of using GDP as a measure of growth.

.....

.....

.....

5. Name and explain briefly **three** different effects of inflation.

1.

.....

.....

2.

.....

.....

3.

.....

.....



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



6. Describe the process of creating an index for inflation.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

The table below shows the claimant count measure of unemployment for England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and the UK as a whole, in March 2015.



	Total level of workforce (thousands)	Claimant count (thousands)	
		Total level (thousands)	Percentage of workforce
England	28,678	625.5	2.18
Wales	1,432	44.8	3.13
Scotland	2,704	78.1	2.89
Northern Ireland	843	43.4	5.15
United Kingdom	33,673	791.8	2.35

7. Define the claimant count measure of unemployment.

.....

.....

.....

8. Which **one** of the following **cannot** be inferred from the information in the table?

- A More people were unemployed in England than in Wales.
- B A higher proportion of people in Northern Ireland were unemployed than in Scotland or Wales.
- C England has more people in its workforce than Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland.
- D A higher proportion of Scottish people were unemployed than Welsh people.



9. Which **one** of the following is correct?

- A The CPI method of recording inflation aggregates price changes for all goods and services in the economy.
- B CPI and RPI are identical measures.
- C Some goods are given more importance than others when calculating the CPI.
- D CPI is always positive.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Aggregate Demand (2.)

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ The aggregate demand function (the components of aggregate demand)
- ✓ The relationship between savings and consumption
- ✓ Factors that affect the levels of consumption and their wider effects on aggregate demand
- ✓ The difference between net and gross investment
- ✓ Factors that affect the levels of investment and their wider effects on aggregate demand
- ✓ Factors that affect the levels of government spending and their wider effects on aggregate demand
- ✓ Factors that affect the levels of exports and imports (net trade) and their wider effects on aggregate demand

In the last theme we looked at demand; in this topic we look at aggregate demand in the economy. Every individual person's demand curve and each demand curve for a good/service come together to create the aggregate demand curve:



$$AD = C + I + G + (X - M)$$

60% 15% 25% 1%

The components of AD are consumption (C), investment (I), government spending (G), and net exports (X - M), also known as net exports (NX). These are explained further in each section. In the aggregate demand curve, there is a difference between **movements along** and **shifts in** the curve. A movement along the curve occurs when you move to a different point on the curve, whereas a shift occurs when the curve moves to another position. Shifts occur when the components of AD change.

Each component has a relative importance to aggregate demand. Consumption makes up 60% of aggregate demand, whereas investment only makes up 15%. An equal change in each component will have a disproportionate change in aggregate demand; for example, a 10% change in consumption will have a far bigger effect on aggregate demand than a 10% change in net exports.

The Aggregate Demand Curve (AD)

A movement along the AD curve occurs because of a change in the price level and the economy simply moves to another point on the same curve. A shift in the curve occurs when there is a change in the components of aggregate demand and the whole curve moves either inwards or outwards.

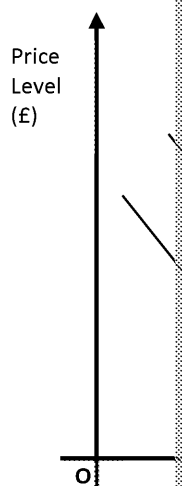
There are two reasons why the aggregate demand curve slopes downwards.

• Real-balance Effect

As the price level increases, the purchasing power of people's incomes falls. If people's incomes fall, they will buy fewer items with their money. If they will purchase fewer items, the aggregate demand in the economy will be lower. As price level rises, aggregate demand falls.

• International Competitiveness

As UK prices rise, UK goods will appear more expensive in relation to other countries. Fewer people will demand UK exports, and more domestic consumers will demand foreign goods. If demand for exports increases and demand for imports decreases, then aggregate demand will increase.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



X-axis: Economic Growth (GDP)

In theme one, the x-axis was the quantity of goods produced. In macro we look at and so we look at the total goods and services that were produced in an economy. Domestic Product (real GDP) is the total amount of goods and services produced in what is used for the x-axis.

Some AS/AD diagrams may have National Income (Y) on the x-axis; this is because income. Remember Topic 2.4; it measures the income households receive from production. Real GDP includes exports and imports so is a more intricate measure of the circular flow diagram. A rise in real GDP means an economy has increased the amount of services it produces; this indicates economic growth. This will be covered further in

Inflation: a sustained rise in the general price level

Deflation: a sustained fall in the general price level

Disinflation: a fall in inflation, i.e. a fall in the rate of increase of general price level

Y-axis: Price Level/Inflation

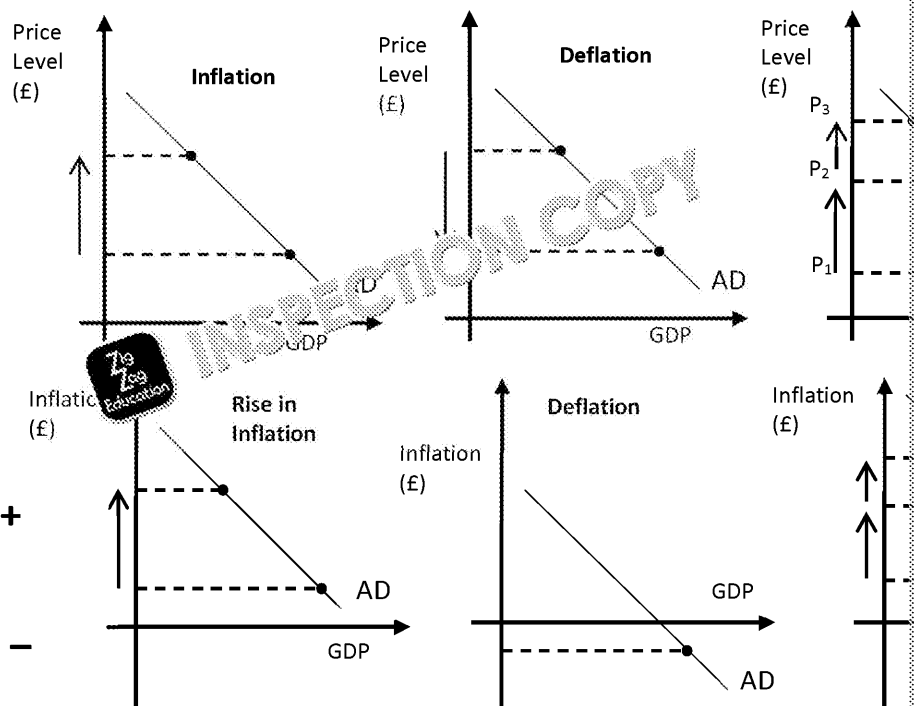
Microeconomics talks about prices for individual businesses or markets. However, the focus is on the 'price level' in the economy, which is the average of the prices for all goods in the economy. It is not the value, but instead the rate of change of the price level it has risen or fallen by.

The y-axis can be labelled 'Inflation' or 'Price Level'. At A Level standard, it is most common for you to label the axis as 'Price Level'. You may come across some diagrams labelled as 'Inflation' and you will need to distinguish between inflation, deflation and disinflation when presented with data in written, graphical, tabular and numerical forms. So, remember to think about the axis label before explaining the effects. To see the difference between the three in graphical form, see below.

Be careful!

If it is labelled 'Price Level', and the equilibrium level rises, this means there is inflation. If the equilibrium level falls, this means there is deflation. Disinflation is when price level rises (inflation) but at a slower rate than previously.

However, if it is labelled 'Inflation', any point on the positive side of the y-axis would show inflation. Any point on the negative side of the y-axis would show deflation. If the equilibrium is on the negative side of the y-axis, this means there is deflation.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Consumption (C)

When people buy goods/services, they are demanding goods/services just like we do. Consumption is the total amount of spending by households, individuals and companies. If people go out and consume more goods, this means consumption has increased, which means aggregate demand goes up and push the AD curve outwards. On the other hand, if consumption falls, aggregate demand goes down and the curve shifts inwards. Consumption makes up the biggest proportion of aggregate demand and is the most influential component.

The Main Influences on the Level of Consumption

- **Disposable Income**

Disposable income is the proportion of their income that people actually have left over once taxes have been subtracted and any benefits have been added. If disposable income increases, people will spend more money. Thus, if incomes increase, it is likely consumption will increase by a proportional amount which will push up aggregate demand and push out the AD curve.

- **Marginal Propensity to Consume**

Marginal propensity to consume (MPC) is the proportion of extra income that an individual spends on consumption. If incomes increase by £1,000 per annum, consumption will increase but it is unlikely to increase by £1,000. People don't tend to spend all their marginal income (all their extra bit of income). They may wish to save or invest a proportion of their marginal income. MPC is the amount of their extra income they will use for consumption.

Marginal propensity to consume (MPC) is the proportion of extra income that an individual spends on consumption.

For example: The marginal propensity to consume is 0.3. This means that 30% of any increase in income will be used for increased consumption. For every £1,000 increase in incomes, consumption will increase by £300.

$$\text{Consumption Increase} = \text{Marginal Propensity to Consume} \times \text{Increase in Income}$$

- **Interest Rates**

In order to buy expensive goods such as houses or cars, people may have to borrow money. Borrowing money is expensive because not only do you have to pay back the money you borrow, you also have to pay back the interest which can be thought of as the cost of borrowing money. If interest rates go up, borrowing becomes more expensive because you will have to pay back more. Equally, the interest rate on savings also goes up, which makes saving more attractive.

Consumption is likely to fall if interest rates go up. This is because it costs more to borrow money, so borrowing becomes more expensive. Higher interest rates deter people from borrowing and buying expensive goods so consumption falls. People will also be more tempted to save their money rather than spending it, thus reducing consumption. Aggregate demand falls so the AD curve shifts inwards.

Equally, if interest rates fall, saving becomes less attractive and borrowing becomes cheaper, so consumption goes up, aggregate demand goes up, and the AD curve shifts outwards.

The wealth effect also comes into play with interest rates...

- **Wealth Effect**

Remember the difference between wealth and income. We've already spoken about income on consumption. Wealth, the stock of money somebody holds, for example, the value of a house. If house prices increase then people feel wealthier because their houses are worth more and they now have more wealth. If people feel wealthier, they are more likely to spend money. If people feel wealthier, consumption goes up, aggregate demand goes up and the AD curve shifts outwards.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



If interest rates decrease and borrowing becomes cheaper, then the demand for houses could grow because people are more able to afford them. This will cause house prices to fall and thus make people feel less wealthy.

Investment means the ability to increase consumption.

Investment capacity is the ability to increase profits.

• Consumer Confidence

Consumer confidence refers to the level of confidence people have in the economy. If consumer confidence is low, then people have little faith in the economy; they believe the economy is not doing so well. If people believe the economy is unstable they are more likely to use a 'safety net'. They are less likely to spend their money if the future economy's consumption will fall if confidence is low, and so aggregate demand will fall and shift inwards.

If consumer confidence is high, then people believe the economy is doing well and are safe spending their money because they believe the economy is stable. This increases consumption in the short run, aggregate demand increases and the AD curve is pushed outwards.

Relationship of Savings and Consumption

There are only two things that a person can do with their income: they can either consume or save. That influence consumption can also influence savings. For example, if consumer confidence is low, people will save their money because savings provide a 'safety net' during rough times. If the return on saving rises and so the opportunity cost of spending (rather than saving) rises, then savings rates rise.

The savings ratio is the amount the average household saves in the UK. It is calculated as the amount saved from their disposable income. The UK has a savings ratio of around 5%; this is much lower than China which has a savings ratio of 30–40%.

Investment (I)

Investment is like consumption for firms. Firms invest money either to increase the output they produce or to replace their old machines. If investment increases then this is an increase in aggregate demand. Aggregate demand increases if investment increases and this will push the AD curve outwards.

Distinction between Gross and Net Investment

Investment is made either to buy more capital and increase production, or to replace worn-out capital (production stays the same). **Gross investment** is the total amount spent on investment in new capital or buy additional capital. **Net investment** is the additional gains of capital after replacing worn-out capital. Imagine a company had 50 machines originally and invested 10 to replace broken machines. They would now have 60 machines; they would have a gross investment of 10 but their net investment would be 10 (20 - 10). If net investment is greater than zero, it shows an expansion and is the more closely related with economic growth.

ACTIVITY

Read about the accelerator theory.
<http://www.economicshelp.org/blog/glossary/accelerator-effect/>

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Main Influences on the Level of Investment

• Rate of Economic Growth

The level of investment depends on the demand for the good. If people find that they are likely to spend more. This means the demand for a product will increase. This increase in demand, a firm will undertake net investment in order to increase production. The rate of economic growth can influence the level of investment because as incomes increase and employment increases, leading to increasing demand a firm will need to invest in order to keep up.

• Business Expectation and Confidence: Keynes' Animal Spirits

This is similar to consumer confidence. Investing money means firms are unable to see the future but the reward is more money in the future, or so is the plan. Firms are less likely to invest if there is low confidence or low expectations of the economy because firms are uncertain about the future and back their spending on investment. If the economy crashes or there is a sudden drop in demand, firms will lose profits and those firms that have invested may be unable to cover their costs. Firms' investment (stored money for future use) is usually made up of things such as past profits) and they will not invest if their expectations of the future are high, or firms have confidence in the future. If they are uncertain about investing their money as they do not feel they will not be able to cover their costs with less 'safety-net' money in order to receive bigger returns in the future.

Keynes coined the term 'animal spirits' to explain economic agents' behaviour. It is a mix of psychology teamed with economics in order to account for irrational behaviour. Firms may take on risky ventures despite logic or maths because of their irrational instinct or confidence. Firms may avoid investing if they are hesitant, even if the maths shows it is a good investment. Firms may be irrational or even reckless; animal spirits attempts to calculate and explain the factors that influence investment decisions firms make.

• Exports

There is a variety of factors that increase the level of exports, as will be discussed in more detail later. If demand for exports increases then firms producing exported goods will need to increase production to meet demand. Increasing exports will boost the economy; this will lead to incomes rising and will increase their demand. Firms will have to increase production via net investment.

• Interest Rates

Firms may need to borrow money in order to invest. Interest rates determine how much extra money a firm pays back when it borrows money. If interest rates go up, the cost of borrowing increases and firms are less likely to invest. Equally, investing money has an opportunity cost. A firm gets from investing needs to outweigh the interest the firm would receive from saving. Because interest rates affect the amount of money a firm gains from saving, the return on investment is twofold. If interest rates go up, investing becomes more expensive and the return on investment also increases, therefore investment levels fall. As investment falls, aggregate demand falls and the economy slows down. Remember the Keynesian marginal efficiency of capital curve (Topic 2.4.3)!

There is a relationship between interest rates and the level of investment.

• Access to Credit

In order to make an investment, a firm needs money. If a firm does not have enough money, it will need to borrow. The condition it will pay it back in the future. This is why interest rates are important; it is the cost of borrowing; it is money available to firms. If firms have easy access to credit, they are more likely to invest. If there is a credit crunch, investment will fall and aggregate demand will shift inwards because firms will not have the funds they need to invest.

• Influence of Government and Regulation

Because the government has a large influence on the economy and can change the rules of the game, it can determine the outcome of an investment. If the government creates regulations that make it difficult to invest in particular investment then firms are less likely to invest. Equally, if government encourages investment then firms are more likely to invest.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Government Expenditure (G)

Government spending is mostly autonomous, i.e. it is unaffected by other variables such as interest rates or confidence.

Government expenditure is determined by the government.

The Main Influences on the Level of Government Expenditure

- **Trade Cycle** (Further explanation in Topic 2.5)

As the economy goes into recession, people lose their jobs and firms find their revenues falling. This means there is less tax revenue for the government and the injection chokes.

Equally, as people become unemployed, governments spend more on unemployment benefits. There will be a budget deficit as the government spends more than it receives. It is likely to lead to (increasing) government debt to cover its expenditure.



As the economy goes into a boom, there will be more jobs for people, so unemployed people will increase their spending. Firms will find their revenues rise and receive more tax revenue as there are more firms and employed workers paying taxes. Unemployment benefits expenditure will fall as there is less unemployment. There will be a budget surplus as the government receives more tax than it spends.

The Golden Rule justifies government debt as long as over the business cycle (boom and recession) the debt build-up in the recession is cancelled out by the budget surplus in the boom.

- **Fiscal Policy** (further explained in Topic 2.6.2)

The government can directly change the amount it spends in the economy and, as the interest rate is determined by monetary policy, the level of taxation and government spending is determined by fiscal policy. Both policies are used to control, stabilise and manipulate the economy; if the government decides to change its fiscal approach, government expenditure in the economy will change.

If net trade is in surplus, this does not mean the country is in a trade surplus. It could be that exports are much higher than imports, but the country is still in a trade deficit compared to the rest of the world.

It is better to have a trade deficit than a trade surplus. A trade deficit will decrease the value of the pound, which will lead to a trade surplus.

INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Net Trade ($X - M$)

Net trade is the sum total of income flowing out of the economy from imports and flowing into the economy from exports. If exports increase and/or imports fall, net trade increases which increases aggregate demand. If there is more money coming into the economy (if exports are greater than imports) then there is a trade surplus. This was discussed in Topic 2.1.4. If imports are greater than exports then there is a trade deficit. The amount of imports bought not only depends on their price, but also the price of foreign goods. If domestic goods are cheaper relative to foreign goods then we would say 'UK goods are more competitive'. If foreign demand for UK exports would increase (as foreign consumers would switch from domestic goods to UK goods) demand for imports would fall (as domestic consumers would switch from foreign goods to domestic goods). Exports would increase, imports would decrease, net trade would increase and there would be a trade surplus ($X > M$), aggregate demand would increase and the AD curve would shift outwards.

The Main Determinants of the (Net) Trade Balance

Just like with the domestic market, prices can play a big factor in the global market. People are more likely to choose the good that is cheaper. The important part to remember about this sentence is: it is the good that appears cheaper **relative** to other goods. There are many things that can affect the relative prices of goods on the global market, as will be discussed in a minute. One assumption we make as economists is that there are no transport costs. A good produced in the UK is cheaper than a good produced in France, but once the costs of posting have been added, it is more expensive than the French good.

- **Real Income**

Normal goods are goods that increase in demand by a normal amount when real income rises. If real income rises, therefore as UK real incomes rise, the demand for imports rises and the UK trade deficit increases.

- **Exchange Rates**

If the £ appreciates, then UK goods will appear more expensive in comparison to foreign goods (assuming their currency stays the same; *ceteris paribus*). This means demand for UK goods will fall and demand for foreign goods will rise; demand for UK exports will fall and demand for imports will rise. Exports will decrease, imports will increase and so net trade and aggregate demand will decrease. If net trade falls and imports rise this could lead to a trade deficit.

If the £ depreciates, UK goods appear cheaper in comparison to foreign goods. Demand for UK goods will rise, and domestic consumers will switch away from buying imports so the demand for exports will rise and imports fall which means net trade rises and aggregate demand does shift outwards.

- **State of the World Economy**

A recession usually results in falling price level (disinflation and potentially deflation). A recession in the world economy is likely to have more competitive goods. Also, in a recession there is a fall in consumption of both foreign and domestic goods.

If the world economy is in recession then domestic consumers will buy fewer domestic goods (consumption of domestic goods falling) and foreign consumers will buy fewer foreign goods (consumption of foreign goods falling). The balance is unknown, i.e. whether imports fall more than exports leading to a trade surplus or whether exports fall more than imports, because exports and imports have fallen, net trade falls and aggregate demand decreases.

If taxes decrease, government spending may go into a deficit. This depends on the size of the deficit and taxes, but it can lead to a budget deficit.

Instead it is a decision whether it is either a decision to run a budget deficit or a budget surplus.

Price levels rise, the cost of living rises, and the demand for goods rises.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



If France is in a recession, but the UK is not, the UK will see exports to France as incomes have fallen. Equally, French goods will probably appear cheaper and French imports. With decreasing exports and increasing imports there is likely to be a trade deficit.

• Degree of Protectionism

Governments may put in place protectionism in order to protect the domestic market from foreign competition. They do this by distorting the price of UK goods and/or the price of imports.

By giving subsidies, the government can reduce the price of UK goods; demand for exports will increase and the demand for imports will fall as domestic consumers switch to buying UK goods. Exports increase, meaning overall net trade increases and so too does demand.

By taxing imports, governments can increase the price of foreign goods relative to domestic goods. Consumers will switch to domestic goods and the demand for imports will fall. Exports will increase too will aggregate demand.

• Non-price factors

The sale of a homogeneous commodity would depend on its price because it is a homogeneous good. However, some countries may sell heterogeneous goods and therefore the sale of these goods would depend on factors other than the price: 'non-price factors'. Countries may sell specialised equipment that has been patented. The result of this is that no other country or firm can make it, and therefore the export or import of this good will depend on countries' need to carry out the specialised task the machine is designed for and the machine's

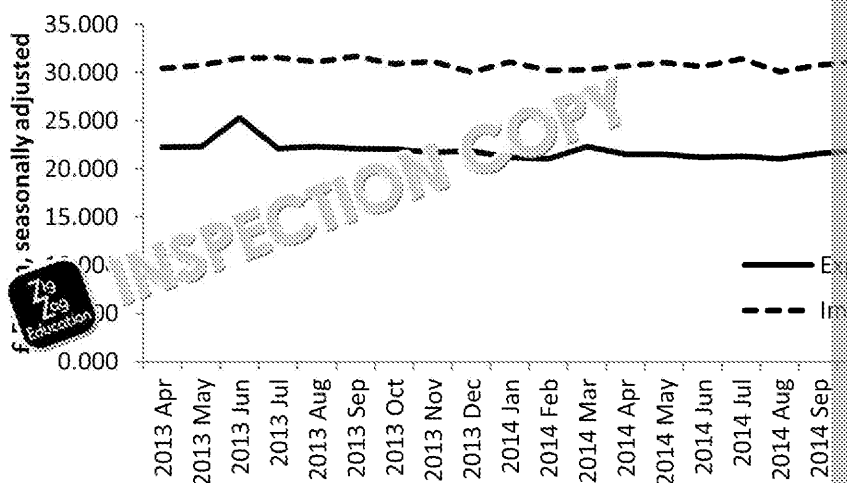
Commodity: A good that has little difference between examples. For example, a farmer is very similar to another farmer, so their products are very similar. Goods that can be differentiated are called 'heterogeneous'.

Goods that can be differentiated are called 'heterogeneous'. For example, smartphones can be differentiated because each smartphone has a different system, design, tariff, camera, etc.

ACTIVITY

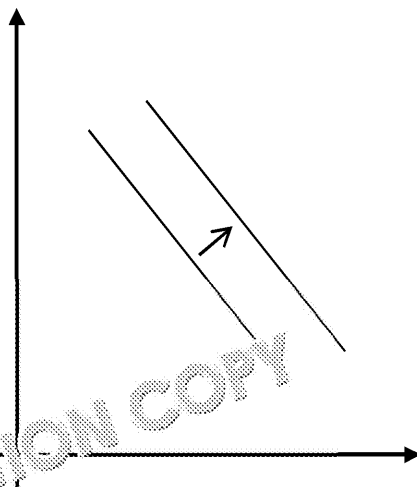
The chart below shows the recent history of the UK's volume of trade in goods. The UK has consistently exported less than it imports in recent years; it has a negative trade balance. Consider the effects of this disparity with reference to the ideas mentioned above.



Value of UK trade in goods April 2013 – April 2014



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





1.  Complete this diagram showing aggregate demand by labelling the axes.
 - a) What has happened to this curve?
 - b) i) What four main factors can shift the AD curve?
ii) For each factor, explain 2–3 reasons why the curve was shifted.
2. Explain how rising interest rates can affect aggregate demand.
3. What is the wealth effect?
4. a) What is the relationship between savings and consumption?
b) What is meant by the marginal propensity to consume?
5. a) How does net investment differ from gross investment?
b) A firm has five machines; three of them are old and the firm replaces them. The firm has invested in five more machines.
 - i) What is the firm's net investment?
 - ii) What is the firm's gross investment?
6. What does Keynes' idea of animal spirits refer to?
7. What is the Golden Rule?
8. Draw a graph for the relationship between consumption and income (with income on the x-axis).
9.  If income is represented by being on the y-axis, draw a graph to show the relationship between
 - a) Consumption
 - b) Investment
10. If Marcy's income rose from £25,000 per annum to £30,000 per annum and her saving for the year increased from £9,000 to £11,000:
 - a) What is her marginal propensity to consume?
 - b) If her marginal propensity to consume was instead 0.5, what would her consumption be?

Aggregate Supply (2.3)

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ The distinction between movements along and shifts of the AS curve
- ✓ The difference between short run and long run
- ✓ The factors that influence short-run aggregate supply
- ✓ The factors that influence long-run aggregate supply
- ✓ The different-shaped long-run aggregate supply curves
- ✓ Different causes of inflation
 - Demand-pull
 - Cost-push
- ✓ Why the money supply grows

In the last theme we looked at supply; in this topic we look at aggregate supply within the economy. Just like the supply curve, there is a difference between *movements along* a curve and a *movement along* occurs when you move to a different point on the curve, whereas a *curve movement* occurs when the curve shifts.

Aggregate supply is the sum total of all the supply curves for every firm, every market. In the short run, if demand increases, firms would switch to producing the goods with the greatest price. However, in the long run, firms switching from one industry to another makes up the overall supply from the economy. Aggregate supply links with Topic 1.1.4 where the maximum productive potential were discussed.

There are various schools of thought within economics and some have conflicting views. In this exam you need to be able to differentiate between the Keynesian AS curve and the classical AS curve. Both schools have different-shaped AS curves. Firstly, in this topic you need to understand the difference between short-run and long-run aggregate supply.

Short Run and Long Run

Short run: at least one factor of production is fixed, they are not all variable

Long run: all factors of production are variable

! Be careful! Long run and short run do not have a set length of time. They are instead the names given to periods with differing variables.

Keynes said that the idea of the *long run* was famously explaining that 'in the long run, we serve a purpose to us, as economists, to distinguish the short run. Let's consider an example:

For example... Mr Smith has a fishing rod in his garden (land) and, of course, himself ('labour'). All the people in his village have rods. The price of fish has increased.

The fisherman decides to increase his supply of fish. He buys more bait: one factor of production has changed; capital, land and labour are still constant; this is the **short run**.

He buys a better fishing rod that allows him to catch bigger fish: another factor of production has changed; capital and labour are still constant; this is the **short run**.

He buys more fishing rods and asks his children to help him catch more fish: two factors of production have changed (labour has changed and capital has changed again); land is still constant; this is the **long run**.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The river also runs through his neighbour's garden. He decides to buy some of his neighbour's fish. This will increase the amount of river that he can fish from. Now, all the factors of production are in place for the long run.

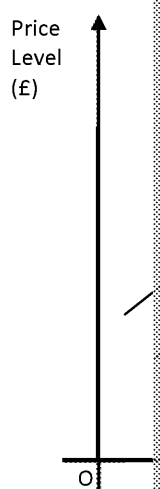
Short-run aggregate supply is the total amount of goods and services supplied in the short run. Firms are able to change most of their factors of production to react to price changes. The short-run aggregate supply curve shows the total amount of goods and services supplied in the economy in the **short run**. Firms are able to change most of their factors of production to react to price change. If all factors of production can be changed, the economy is able to increase aggregate supply to meet its maximum productive potential. A perfectly elastic supply (LRAS) curve means the economy is producing at its maximum productive potential.

Factors that Influence the Short-run Aggregate Supply (SRAS)

These influences will affect firms in the short run where they can change some of their factors of production. Short-run aggregate supply can easily be increased or decreased to react to changes in the economy.

The short-run aggregate supply (SRAS) curve is upward sloping because all individual supply curves for all the firms in the economy are upwards sloping and when they all come together to create the aggregate supply curve, it creates an overall upward-sloping curve. In the short run, as output increases, firms' costs increase. This is because firms will have to pay extra (premium prices) to get workers to stay overtime and increase their order of raw materials. These increased costs are passed on to consumers in the form of higher prices.

The SRAS curve can be shifted up or down as shown in the diagram to the right. Shifts in the SRAS curve can be caused by various factors:



Raw Materials and Energy

If the price of the raw materials used in the production of a good/service increases, the short-run aggregate supply will increase. Firms will reduce supply at each and every price level. The short-run aggregate supply curve shifts inwards if the costs of the raw materials increased.

Energy is an influential cost within the economy because all firms need energy to produce goods and services. Factories and offices need electricity to light and heat rooms, and for capital such as computers, for example. If energy prices increase, firms may cut back on supply. This will see the aggregate supply curve shift inwards.

Exchange Rates

The exchange rate will affect the prices of exports and imports and goods that are imported. A table-making company may import the timber. If the exchange rate changes so that the pound becomes weaker, then aggregate supply will fall as the firm will not be able to produce the same number of tables at the same price level.



The government may change the tax rate on certain goods or add tax on certain goods. Topic 1.2.9; increasing a tax will increase the costs of production and reduce the short-run aggregate supply.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Factors that Influence the Long-run Aggregate Supply (LRAS)

In the long run all factors of production will be changed. Therefore only factors that affect the productive potential of the economy affect long-run aggregate supply.

Technological Advances

Technological advances tend to mean there is an improvement in technology and more productive capital means output per unit is greater, and therefore the maximum output of the economy is greater and long-run aggregate supply will increase.

Relative Productivity

Productivity refers to the amount of output a single unit of a resource could produce. If a worker can produce five units of a good in one working day, but through either training or new machinery the worker could now produce eight units of a good in one working day, the worker's productivity has increased. If the resources in an economy become more productive, i.e. they can produce more output per unit of input, the economy's long-run aggregate supply will increase.

Education (Skill and Human Capital)

The ability of the workforce is a constant variable and can only really be improved through education. The ability of the workforce is a constant variable and can only really be improved through education, such as school leaving age. If the workforce is more educated or obtains more skills, they will be more productive. A more productive workforce will be able to produce more goods and services, so the long-run aggregate supply curve will increase.

Government Regulation

The government can add or remove regulations that will affect the efficiency of firms. If the government increases the level of health and safety in order to protect workers, then this could slow down production processes, making them less efficient, or stop potentially quick but unsafe processes, reducing the number of goods produced.

Demographic and Migration

The labour supply available to an economy is often fixed. If all workers are employed, the labour supply determines the goods an economy can produce. Migration allows the supply of labour to increase or decrease long-run aggregate supply respectively. The age of the population is 18 to 65 by UK standards, and so if migration or simply time means the economy has more people above working age, then this will cause little increase to the maximum productive capacity. However, if migration, either from a previous baby boom or immigration, is likely to increase long-run aggregate supply because this has increased the supply of workers.

Competition Policy

If there is greater competition within markets then firms will have to attract more customers, which may lead to lower prices that are cheaper and/or better than their rivals. This will drive firms to find more efficient ways of producing in order to cut costs to obtain lower prices. Policies that increase competition encourage productivity gains and thereby increase long-run aggregate supply.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



AS Curves

How do Classical Economists and Keynesians Differ?

Classical economists believe that in the long run markets will always find equilibrium. In the labour market a fall in demand for labour (D_L) would lead to a fall in the wage rate and employment; the market adjusts. The diagram shows the demand and supply for the labour market with wage rates (price of labour) on the y-axis and employment (quantity of labour used) on the x-axis. If the demand for labour falls, the D_L curve shifts into D_{L2} , and employment falls as fewer firms are willing to pay this wage rate for workers. There is an excess of supply of workers and unemployed workers

Sticky Wages: This is the idea that wage rates will not change. It is difficult to lower wage expectations because workers are used to higher wages.

Other things, such as trade unions or minimum wages, can also prevent wages from falling.

will adjust their 'wage expectations' to accept jobs with lower wages and employment rises again as these new (lower) wages for workers are at the same level, but there is no unemployment as workers are not willing to supply labour at lower wages.

Keynesians instead believe that

falls to D_{L2} , workers will not adjust their wage expectations and the wage rate will stay at the same level. The excess supply of labour remains (unemployment) and will only shrink if demand rises.

These two schools of thought and their differing assumptions create two different curves (LRAS).

Classical LRAS Curve (C.LRAS)

Classical economists believe that aggregate supply is fixed. If all resources are being used efficiently, then the economy is on the PPF curve and it is not possible to produce any more goods. At this point aggregate supply is price inelastic. The economy cannot produce any more goods/services and so aggregate supply will not change with change in price. If aggregate demand goes up but aggregate supply cannot increase to meet this, then the rationing function of the market comes into play (Topic 1.2.7). If demand increases then more people will buy goods; supply can't increase so there will be a shortage of goods. Some consumers would be willing to pay higher prices to ensure they get the goods. Firms, assuming perfect knowledge, will increase prices but their supply won't change.

The diagram shows that any increase in AD will only result in price-level changes and not output. The equilibrium point is always at full employment (when the economy is being used efficiently) and the market will always revert back to full employment. The curve is vertical because classical economists believe the economy to be working at full employment. Some Keynesians believe the economy to be working at some unemployment exists. So, the explanation of the natural rate of unemployment

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Keynesian LRAS Curve (K.LRAS)

John Maynard Keynes built a new long-run aggregate supply curve, which could explain a market that had reached equilibrium but was below full employment. The Keynesian AS curve assumes wages are sticky.

Section A of the curve shows an inelastic aggregate supply. At any point on this curve, the economy is at full employment (aka the economy is at full capacity) and any increase in AD will only result in increasing price and no increase in output. This is because, in order to increase output, firms must offer higher wages than existing wages to encourage workers to leave their jobs and work for them instead. Overall, output will not rise because a resource has simply moved from producing one good to producing another, but prices have gone up.

Section B shows a more elastic aggregate supply. Here the economy is likely to be deep in recession with many unemployed. At this point there is spare capacity to grow. Output can increase without increasing prices. This is because there is no competition for resources and a firm can gain more. Overall output of the economy will increase but price level will not.

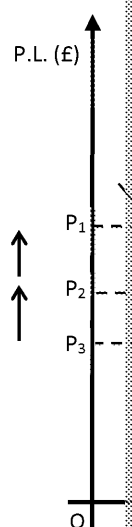
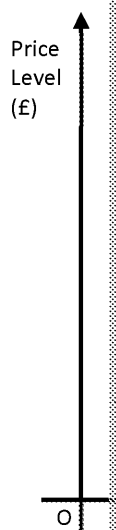
Section C, the middle section, is the part that brings the two extremes together. It shows a trade-off between increased GDP and higher price level. This is a well-known relationship called the Phillips Curve. Inflation will increase if there is economic growth. This will be discussed later in the course.

Classical economists believe equilibrium would always gravitate towards full employment. They believe everything will adapt to the changes, such as workers accepting lower wages. Keynes believed there were frictions within the market that would prevent it from adjusting. This meant that the market could be in equilibrium (where AD meets AS), but this could be at a level below full employment. Unemployed workers won't accept lower-paying jobs and so remain unemployed. Firms are unlikely to increase their consumption and AD is unlikely to move. Prices stay low, costs of production are low, and there is no increasing demand to meet, so firms are unlikely to change their supply. They have spare resources.

LRAS and SAS Curves (Adapted Classical)

Classical economists believe the market will gravitate towards equilibrium at full employment. They believe this will happen straight away. Some classical economists believe there may be a lag before the market will find equilibrium. Friedman is a famous economist from the monetarist school who did not agree with Keynes and created this model as a response.

The classical model can be adapted to include a short-run aggregate supply (SRAS) curve to explain the market even when it is temporarily out of equilibrium and not on the LRAS curve. This can explain the market not only when it is below full employment, but also when it is producing above full employment (outside the PPF). If aggregate demand increases and shifts the AD curve out, then the economy moves along the SRAS curve so that more goods are produced to meet this increase of demand (Y_e to Y_1). Production is above full employment. This can be done temporarily by, for example, paying overtime to workers to encourage them to work more hours. However, overtime pay for 'out-of-hours work' is more expensive and it is unlikely firms will stay at this point. Workers will increase their wage expectations and the wage rate will increase. This means the costs of production will increase and the SRAS curve will shift back in until it meets the equilibrium point C on the LRAS curve.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Causes of Inflation

Now that you have learnt about the AS and AD curve, it is possible to explain the AS/AD diagrams (see overleaf). Factors that cause inflation can be separated into those that affect aggregate demand and those that affect aggregate supply.

Demand-pull Inflation

Demand-pull inflation occurs when aggregate demand increases and pulls up the price level. In diagram 1 where AD_1 shifts out to AD_2 and prices rise from P_1 to P_2 . This happens when demand increases. If supply is fixed, producers will find they are running into shortages. In order to ration the goods, prices are pulled upwards with demand. It is more prominent when the economy is near full employment. When people have an income and can therefore go out and spend more.

Demand-pull inflation occurs when any of the factors of aggregate demand increase. For example, if income tax falls, then consumption will increase and the AD curve shifts outwards. If confidence in the economy is high then firms and consumers are more likely to spend and invest, which will push the AD curve outwards and pull up price level.

Cost-push inflation

Cost-push inflation occurs when aggregate supply decreases and the price level rises. In diagram 2 where AS_1 shifts into AS_2 and prices rise from P_1 to P_2 . This happens when costs increase. In order to cover these new costs, firms will push the costs on to the consumer, leading to higher prices.

Cost-push inflation occurs when any of the factors of production increase in cost. For example, materials such as oil are one of the most common sources of cost-push inflation. Wages – perhaps due to trade union pressure – which increase firms' costs and push up the price level. Tax rises can also cause cost-push inflation if firms have to pass the tax onto consumers.

Growth in Money Supply

Another cause of inflation is an increase in the supply of money. This causes inflation through demand or supply. Remember the circular flow of income diagram; if there was an increase in the money supply, the economy would inflate.

If the money supply increases then there is more money around to purchase goods. If the money supply exceeds the number of goods and services in the economy then this can cause inflation. 'there was too much money chasing too few goods'. By this, it is meant that if there are more goods and services available to purchase, consumers will end up offering more money to ensure they can have them. Firms will then rise their prices to meet their increased demand (to meet increased demand). Also, the demand for labour will increase as firms attempt to meet this increased ability to purchase goods and services. This will cause a rise in the costs of production.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Diagram 1: Demand-pull inflation

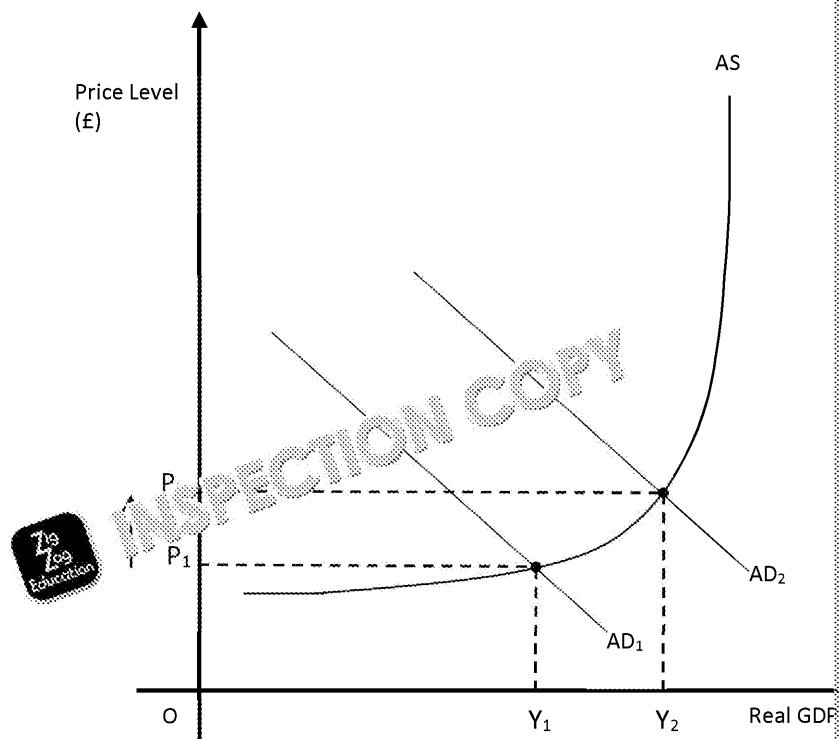
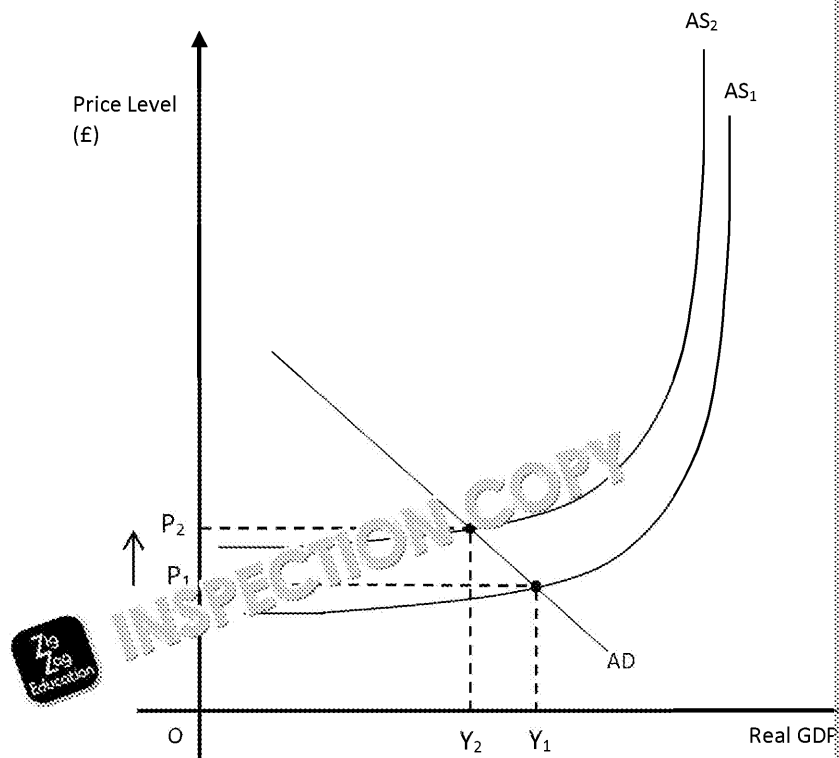


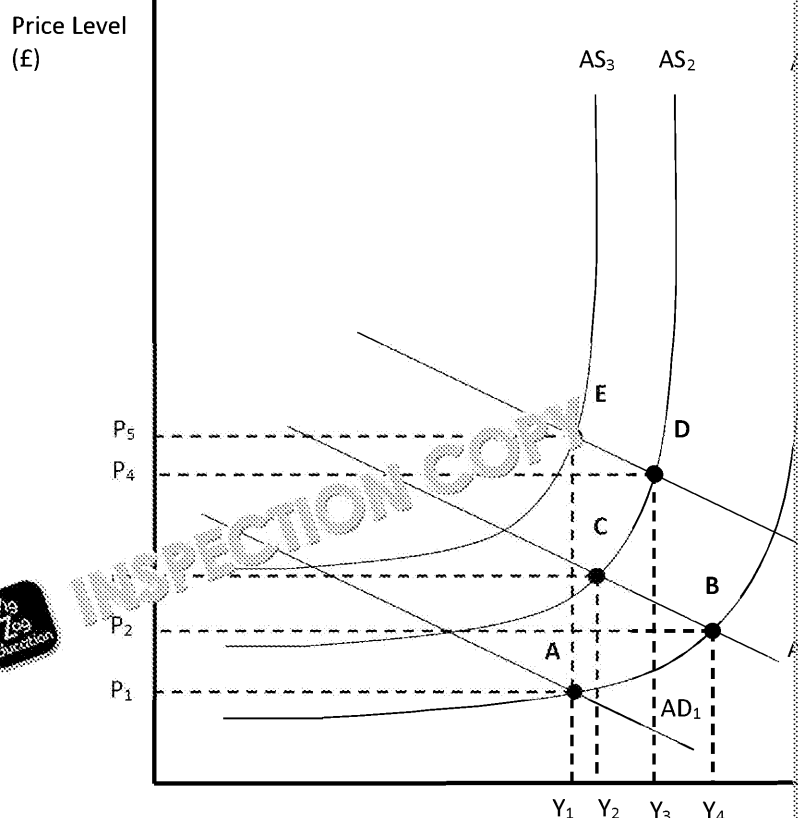
Diagram 2: Cost-push Inflation



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

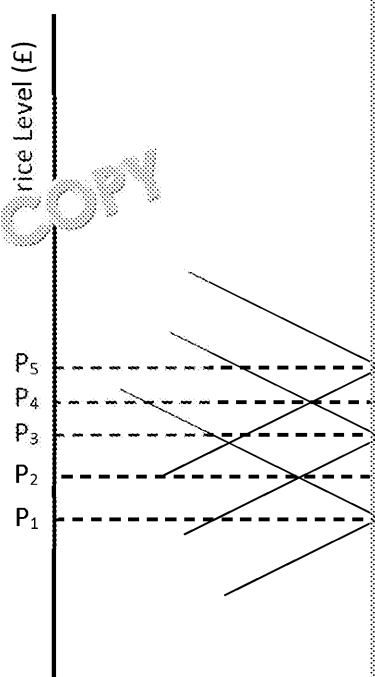




Further Your Economic Knowledge

Wage-price Spiral

The wage-price spiral is a process that occurs when demand-pull and cost-push inflation occur in tandem. Let's start at **Point A**. Here, prices are at P_1 . Demand in the economy increases for whatever reason and so the aggregate demand curve shifts from AD_1 to AD_2 . At **Point B** and prices have risen to P_2 . The cost of living has gone up and so workers demand higher wages from the employers. The aggregate supply curve now shifts into AS_3 . At **Point C** and there has been cost-push inflation, prices have risen to P_3 . Because workers have more money from their increased income, they can increase their consumption. The aggregate demand curve pushes out again to AD_3 . Now the economy is producing at **Point D**. This is demand-pull inflation, prices have risen again to P_4 . To cover these rising prices, workers will demand higher wages, causing the aggregate supply curve to shift into AS_3 . Now the economy is producing at **Point E** and there has been cost-push inflation, pushing the price level up again to P_5 . This cycle can occur again and again. This is shown graphically above using a Keynesian AS/AD curve (above) and a classical AS/AD curve (below).



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Questions: Aggregate Supply

1.
 - a) When is a firm in the long run and the short run?
 - b) What factors could affect long-run aggregate supply?
 - c) What factors could affect short-run aggregate supply?
2.
 - a) How do Keynesian and classical assumptions in the labour market differ?
 - b)
 - i) Draw a classical aggregate supply diagram.
 - ii) Explain what the curves show.
 - c)
 - i) Draw a Keynesian aggregate supply diagram.
 - ii) Explain what the curves show.
3.
 - a) What are the three causes of inflation?
 - b) Using the Phillips Curve, explain these causes.



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Exam-style Questions 2: Aggregate Demand and

1. Define the term 'disposable income'.

.....

.....

.....

2. An individual receives a windfall of £1,600. Their marginal propensity to consume is 0.75. **Calculate** how much of the extra income the individual will use for consumption.

.....

.....

.....

3. Suppose that the individual chooses to save all of the extra income and the MPC be?

.....

.....

.....

4. Explain **one** factor that may influence the level of aggregate investment.

.....

.....

.....

5. Define the term 'aggregate supply'.

.....

.....

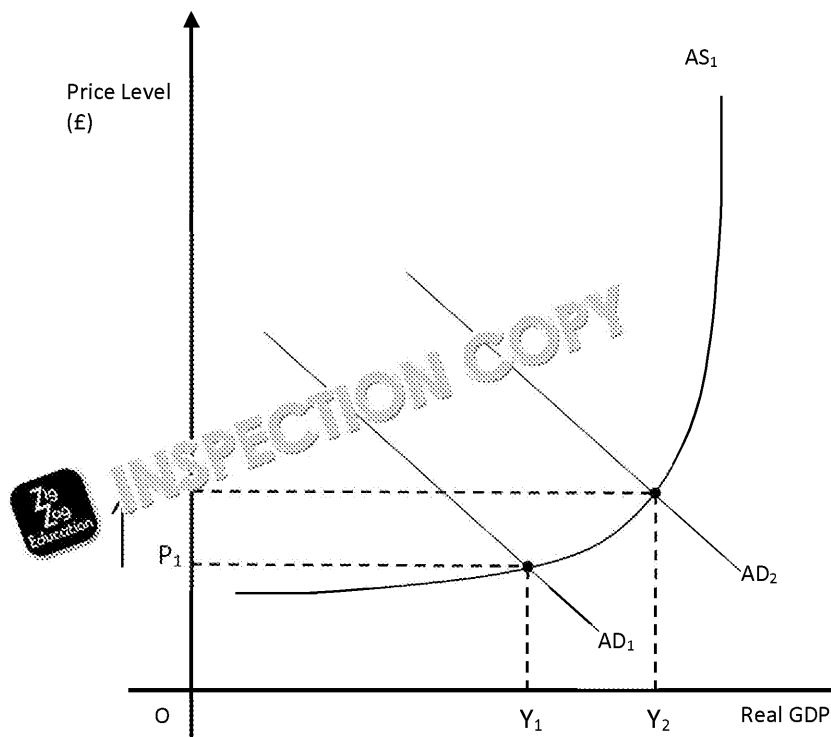
.....

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



6. What type of inflation is shown by the diagram below?



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



National Income (2.4)

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ The multiplier
- ✓ The idea of real national output
- ✓ The difference between wealth and income
- ✓ The circular flow diagram
- ✓ The difference between an injection and a withdrawal
- ✓ The three injections and three withdrawals

One of the most important ideas that you will cover in macroeconomics is the concept of national output. In short, it is the final total output of all goods and services produced in one year in a country. This is a concept in depth. When starting to think about the idea, it is important to distinguish between the two boxes below.

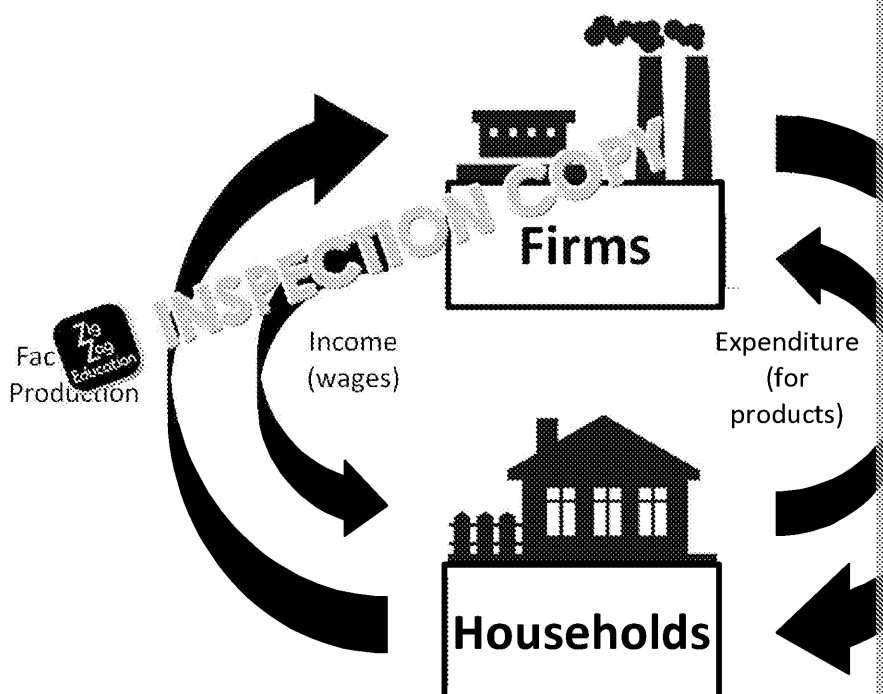
Income is the money that a person receives in exchange for their work, e.g. wages from labour or the rent from owning a property. It moves from one agent to another; it is seen as a flow of money.

Wealth is the money that a person has saved up, e.g. from wages or investment returns. It is seen as a stock as it is money that is held in savings accounts or items such as property.

Remember: National income is the total amount of income flowing around the economy. It can be used to purchase goods and services, national income can also be used to show the total amount of output.

Wealth can create income; the money and items stored can generate a flow of money. For example, to think of is a house. The house is wealth, it is a stock/store of wealth, but if you rent it out to other people you can receive an income back from it in the form of rent.

With this in mind, let's look at the diagram that shows the circular flow of income. This diagram assumes a very simple economy (remember the importance of assumptions in Topic 2.1). In a simple economy, there are only households and firms. By households, we mean people of any amount, one individual or a family. Households receive income from firms and spend this income buying the goods and services produced by firms. Firms receive income from households as labour, from households and produce goods and services that are bought by households. The circular flow of income and round the economy from firms to households.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Injections and Withdrawals

This is a very simplified model of the economy. In reality, firms do much more than produce goods; similarly, consumers do more than spend their wages on goods. It is not that that may intervene and we do interact with other economies.

Think of the circular flow of income diagram as a circular flow of water. Waters flow in the system, but you can 'inject' more water into the system and the system will grow. If you take water from the system and the system will shrink. If the total sum of injections is equal to the total sum of withdrawals, then more money will be flowing into the economy and so it will grow. If the total sum of withdrawals is bigger than the total sum of injections, then more money will be flowing out of the economy so it will shrink.

Withdrawals are things that economic agents (in the system) do with their incomes that result in money leaving the circular flow. By taking money out of the circular flow it is no longer going around.

Injections are things that outside economic agents do with their incomes that result in money entering the circular flow. There is now more money going around the system.

Injections and withdrawals can be grouped together into opposite pairs:

- **Savings and Investments**

Savings are a withdrawal because instead of spending income and keeping it in the economy, people may instead put it into a savings account. This takes it out of the economy. However, investments are injections because they put money into the economy in order to start production. The level of savings and investments can be influenced indirectly by interest rates. If interest rates go up, people are more likely to save because the return on their savings account is higher. If interest rates go up, investment is likely to fall because the cost of borrowing is higher. To further your knowledge and understanding of the marginal efficiency of capital curve that follows later.

- **Taxes and Government Spending**

These injections and withdrawals can be directly influenced by the government. Taxes are a withdrawal because instead of letting income flow around the economy, a proportion of it is taken out of the system and given to the government. Government spending is an injection because the government puts money into the economy in order to provide things such as schools and hospitals.

- **Imports and Exports**

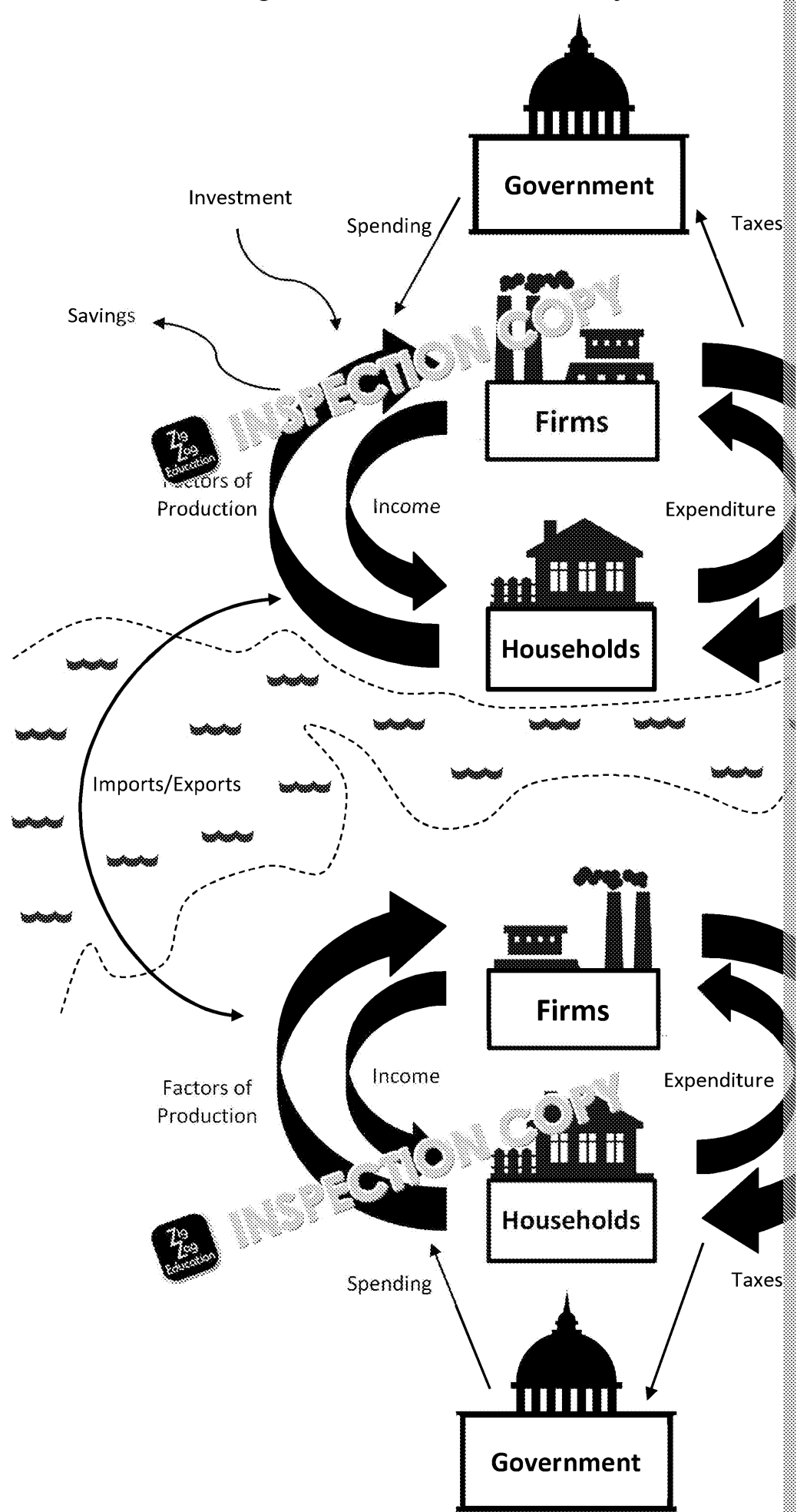
In reality our economy does interact with other economies. When we buy foreign goods we send money from our economy to the other economy and receive a good from their economy into ours. The good is an imported good but the money for it is a withdrawal. We may also export a good that is bought by an economic agent in another country. In this instance our economy receives money from the other economy and our good is exported to their economy.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



A circular flow diagram of two economies with injections and withdrawals



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Real National Output

Using diagrams 1 and 2, this section will explain how changes in aggregate demand and supply will change the national output in an economy. This concept is similar to the micro demand and supply diagram.

ACTIV

causes
diagram

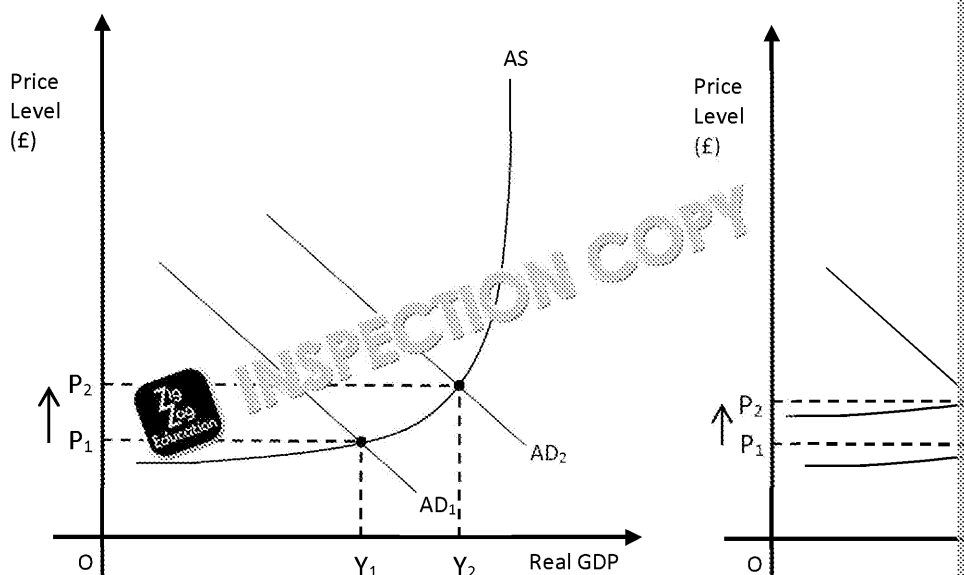


Diagram 1

Real national output is the output of the economy once inflation has been accounted for. It is the value of the total number of goods and services produced, even including inflation. An increase in real national output indicates an increase in amount of goods and services produced, i.e. economic growth.

Equilibrium levels of real national output occur when planned aggregate demand equals aggregate supply and the two curves intersect. A change in aggregate demand or aggregate supply will move the equilibrium level of real national output.

If aggregate demand has increased from AD_1 to AD_2 , then firms within the economy will produce more goods to meet this new demand for their goods. This results in a movement along the AS curve to the point where the new AD curve intersects it. At this point the market is in equilibrium again and real national output has increased.

If aggregate demand falls from AD_2 to AD_1 , then firms within the economy will produce fewer goods because they would be left with from the lack of demand. This results in a movement along the AS curve until it meets the point where the new AD curve intersects it. At this point the market is in equilibrium again and real national output has decreased.

If aggregate supply increases, perhaps because tax rates have been cut or technology has improved, then firms will be able to supply goods at a cheaper price. This is more likely to happen in a market as the increase in customers may increase the price level. Firms will produce more goods as more consumers are willing to buy the good, which results in a movement along the AD curve until it reaches the new AS curve. The market is in equilibrium again and real national output has increased.

If aggregate supply decreases, perhaps because a natural disaster has damaged production, then costs of production will increase and as a response firms will increase prices. This results in a movement along the AD curve until it reaches the new AS curve. The market is in equilibrium again and real national output has decreased.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Multiplier

Let’s start with an example to illustrate the idea of the multiplier:

The government decides to build more colleges and sixth forms to encourage education. They have £20 million that they give to various building contractors. £20 million into the economy. The economy grows by £20 million. The contractors pay their builders in return for their labour. The income flows from firms to households. Households will then spend their incomes on bills to buy electricity for their homes. The income flows from households to firms.

As the money goes round and round, it generates more and more income. The economy absorbs the original injection and grows. The income then flows around the economy and the economy grows again.

The multiplier effect means the economy will keep growing and multiplying until all the money has been withdrawn.

The money may be saved, it may be spent, or it may be spent on imports instead of domestic goods. As firms and households receive the income, it will be taxed. The multiplier effect means the economy will keep growing and multiplying until all the money has been withdrawn.

The size of the multiplier depends on two things: the amount of income that is injected into the economy and the amount of income that is withdrawn each time. If injections are large, then the economy will grow by a large amount. If withdrawals are large then the economy won’t grow by much each time. This creates the multiplier effect. The multiplier effect is the relationship between leakages and withdrawals and the proportions of each.

A formula for the multiplier can be derived to give policymakers an idea of how much the economy will grow with an injection. Something multiplied by 1 equals the same amount. The multiplier is always less than 1 but by a little less than the original amount because some income has been leaked out of the economy. The multiplier is 1 divided by the amount of income that is likely to be withdrawn. This is shown below.

Multiplier = 1 / marginal propensity to withdraw

Marginal propensity to withdraw (MPW) is the proportion of income that will be withdrawn from the economy. The income withdrawn from the economy will be spent differently on each withdrawal. The higher these marginal propensities, the more income is withdrawn from the economy. The multiplier will be smaller and the economy won’t grow by as much.

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

The marginal propensity to tax (MPT) = the proportion of income that will be leaked out of the economy by taxation.

The marginal propensity to import (MPM) = the proportion of income that will be leaked out of the economy by importing.

Above are the marginal propensities to withdraw. Adding these marginal propensities together gives the marginal propensity to withdraw (MPW = MPS + MPT + MPM). The marginal propensity to withdraw is the proportion of income that will be withdrawn from the economy. The multiplier is 1 divided by the marginal propensity to withdraw. MPC is the proportion of income that will be spent on domestic goods and services – the proportion of income that will be spent on domestic goods and services. If MPC is the proportion of income that will be spent on domestic goods and services, then what is left will be the proportion of income that is withdrawn from the economy through either taxing, saving or importing.

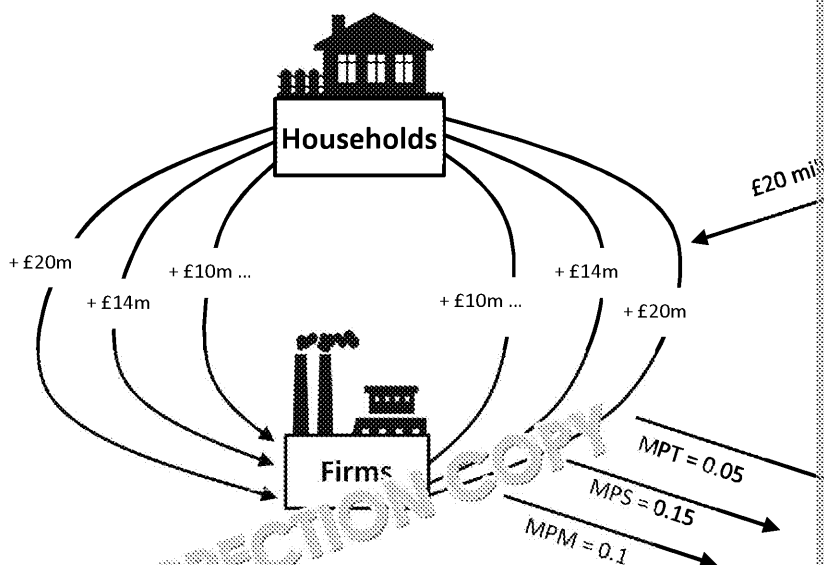
Below are the two formulas you need to know for your exam to work out the multiplier effect. The multiplier effect is the amount the economy will grow by from an injection.

MPW = 1 - MPC = MPS + MPT + MPM
Multiplier = 1 / MPW = 1 / (1 - MPC)

INSPECTION COPY

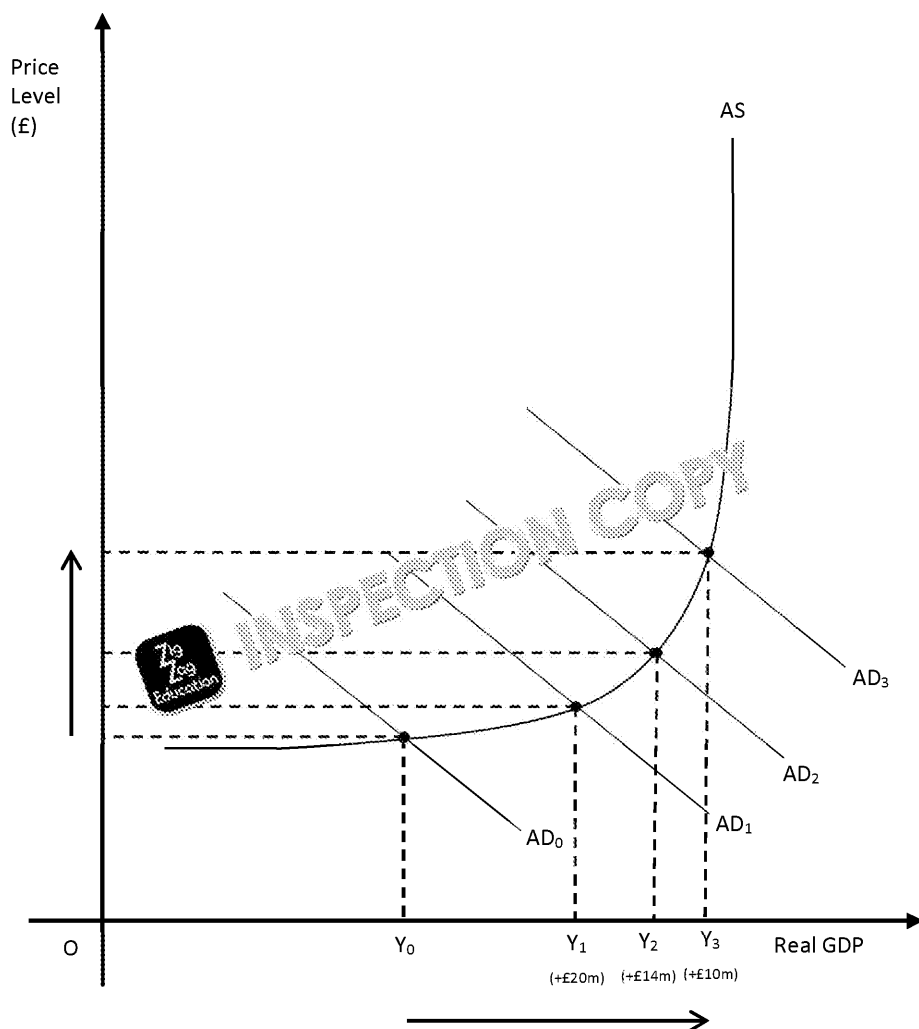
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





If, in the example given at the beginning, MPT was 0.05, MPS was 0.15 and MPM was 0.3 and the multiplier would be about 3. The economy would increase output by £60 million. £20 million would go round the economy and for every £1, 5p would be saved and 10p would be spent on imports. So 30% of the £20 million would be lost leaving £14 million to be circulated round the next time. Then 30% of the £14 million would be lost leaving about only £10 million to circulate round the next time. This goes on and on until the economy would have grown by £60 million.

So how does this link with aggregate demand? Every time the income flows around the economy, the aggregate demand curve is shifted out. Using the same example, the Keynesian AS/AD diagram



The aggregate demand curve shifts right from AD₀ to AD₃ by £20m, £14m, and £10m. This is because the multiplier effect increases the total demand in the economy.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Questions: National Income

1. What is the difference between wealth and income?
2.
 - a) What is an injection and what is a withdrawal?
 - b) List and explain the six injections and withdrawals.
3.
 - a) Draw a circular flow diagram with all the injections and withdrawals.
 - b) Explain how income flows around the economy.
 - c) What would happen if injections were bigger than withdrawals?
 - d) What would happen if the government increased the tax rate?
4. What is the multiplier?
5. What is affected by the marginal propensity to...
 - a) consumption?
 - b) tax?
 - c) import?
6. If the marginal propensity to save was 0.1 and the marginal propensity to consume was 0.9...
 - a) What would the marginal propensity to tax be if the marginal propensity to consume was 0.5?
 - b) What would the multiplier be?
 - c) If the government injected £10 million into the economy...
 - i) How much would the economy grow by?
 - ii) Draw a circular flow diagram to show the path of this £10 million through the economy.
 - iii) Show this using an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Economic Growth (2.5)

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ The factors that cause economic growth
- ✓ The distinction between actual and potential growth
- ✓ The distinction between actual growth rates and long-term trends in growth rates
- ✓ The effects of economic growth on consumers, firms, the government and living standards
- ✓ The positive output gap
 - Where this is on the trade cycle
 - How this can be illustrated on an AS/AD diagram
 - How this can be illustrated on a PPF
 - The characteristics of a boom
- ✓ The negative output gap
 - Where this is on the trade cycle
 - How this can be illustrated on an AS/AD diagram
 - How this can be illustrated on a PPF
 - The characteristics of a recession



Causes and Impacts of Growth

We have already introduced the idea of growth and national income, and how it is measured. In this section we will think about *changes* in growth rates. Growth is not constant. It varies from consecutive quarters, let alone years. We will talk about the general pattern that we observe over time and offer explanations for the variations that we observe.

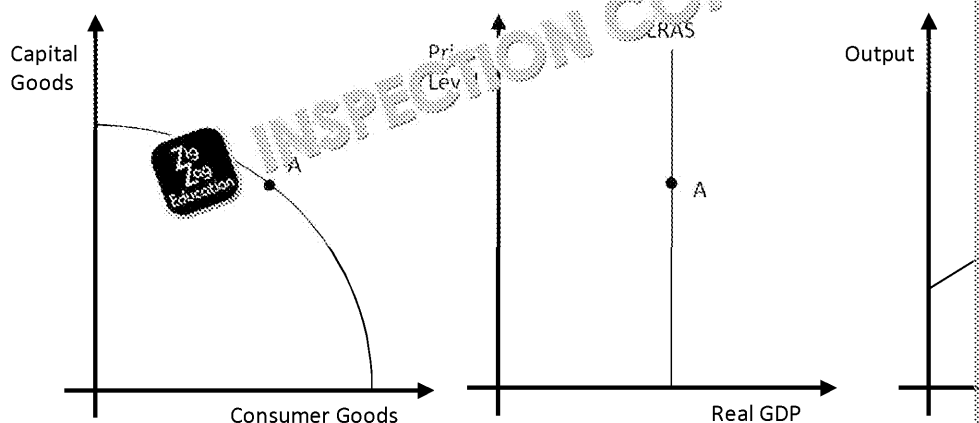
Actual growth is the true amount of growth that is observed in real life.

Potential growth is the predicted growth of the economy in the long run, observing its previous trend. The potential growth of an economy is shown by the 'trend growth rate' line on the diagram.

Actual growth rates are the rate at which an economy is growing in a given period.

Long-term trends in growth are the long-term trend of growth of an economy over a long period. The long-term trend is shown by the 'trend growth rate' line on the diagram.

Potential growth is also shown on a PPF diagram and the classical economic view. Because the PPF shows the maximum productive potential of an economy, when it shifts outwards it shows the economy has changed all factors of production (is in the long run) in order to use its resources available to produce as many goods/services as it possibly can and hence achieve maximum potential growth.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY

Factors that Cause Growth

Factors that cause the long-run aggregate supply to change or shift the PPF will cause economic growth to change in a similar fashion. All these factors are summarised below. In a nutshell, however, anything that increases the number of goods and services in an economy or improves the ability of factors of production will cause economic growth.

The level of growth from an increase depends on the position of the diagram. If the economy is at full capacity, a growth in a large increase in resources will lead to a large increase in real GDP.

- **Technological Advances**

If technology improves, it improves the ability of factors of production. This improves an economy's productive potential to grow as it can produce more goods and services from the resources available.

- **Education and Skills**

This is an investment in human capital and will create a more productive economy to grow and produce more goods and services in the long run.

- **Government Intervention**

By introducing laws and legislations, a government can affect the efficiency in production or promote competition and innovation which will improve production or create new goods that need fewer inputs. This will allow an economy to grow by providing more services, bringing the potential to grow economically.

- **Demographic and Migration**

Migration and changing the demographic of an economy will change the economy. Generally, populations grow over time and so the economy will grow.

- **Investment**

Positive net investment will create economic growth, whereas gross investment is the maximum amount an economy can produce. This highlights the criterion for growth-related investment. Investment in research and development, however, will increase the efficiency in resources.

- **Natural Disasters or War**

Natural disasters and war will cause an economy to lose resources as they are taken out of production and instead used for war.

- **Export-led Growth**

For some countries, such as China, the high levels of exports are what fuel their growth, called export-led growth. For these countries, international trade is high and the income from their foreign trading partners is what boosts their economy. If the injections would cease and the economy would not grow.

Effects of Economic Growth

Consumers and Workers

- Increased growth means the economy is expanding and there will be a rise in income. People will have incomes and the negativity associated with unemployment will be reduced.
- Increased incomes mean people can increase their savings and increase their consumption.
- Increased incomes mean people can consume more goods they desire.
- Economic growth means more firms will enter the market or increase their production. This means more goods and services for consumers with the potential of new goods they can buy.

Firms

- Economic growth indicates firms have increased production or new firms have entered the market.
- With increased production, firms will gain more revenue and higher profits.
- Firms will have taken and are more likely to invest in improving and increasing production.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Government and Economy

- High employment means expenditure on benefits has fallen.
- The government will also receive more tax revenue from income tax.
- High levels of consumption mean the government will receive more tax revenue from VAT on goods and services.
- More firms or increased production means the government will receive more tax revenue from corporation tax.
- Expectations and confidence will be higher.
- Higher expectations and higher confidence will increase investment and consumption.
- Economic growth usually entails inflation. This means UK prices will appear higher than foreign prices. UK exports will fall and imports will rise; this is likely to worsen the current account.

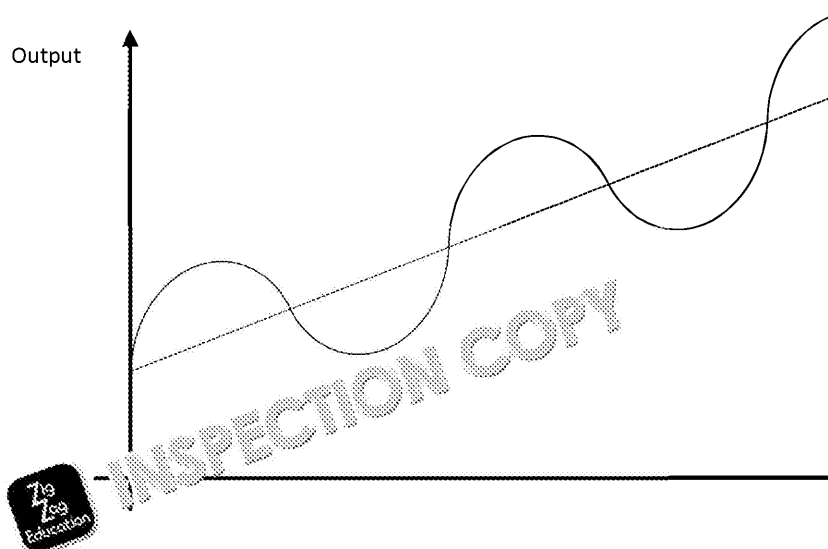
Living Standards

- Economic growth indicates higher employment, which should decrease the unemployment rate in an economy.
- If more people have higher incomes, this should reduce income inequality.
- Economic growth is associated with increased living standards, although this is not always the case.

Trade (Business) Cycle and Output Gaps

In order to follow the trend growth rate, an economy needs to have economic stability. If the measures of macroeconomic performance remain steady and there should be no significant fluctuations in price, unemployment, growth and balance of payments. The economy should have reached a long-run equilibrium. However, in reality it is difficult to keep these variables unwavering. The economy will swing above and below this trend rate.

The diagram below shows this idea, known as the trade cycle or business cycle, in which the long-run average, or trend, growth is a 'line of best fit' through the middle of the wave:

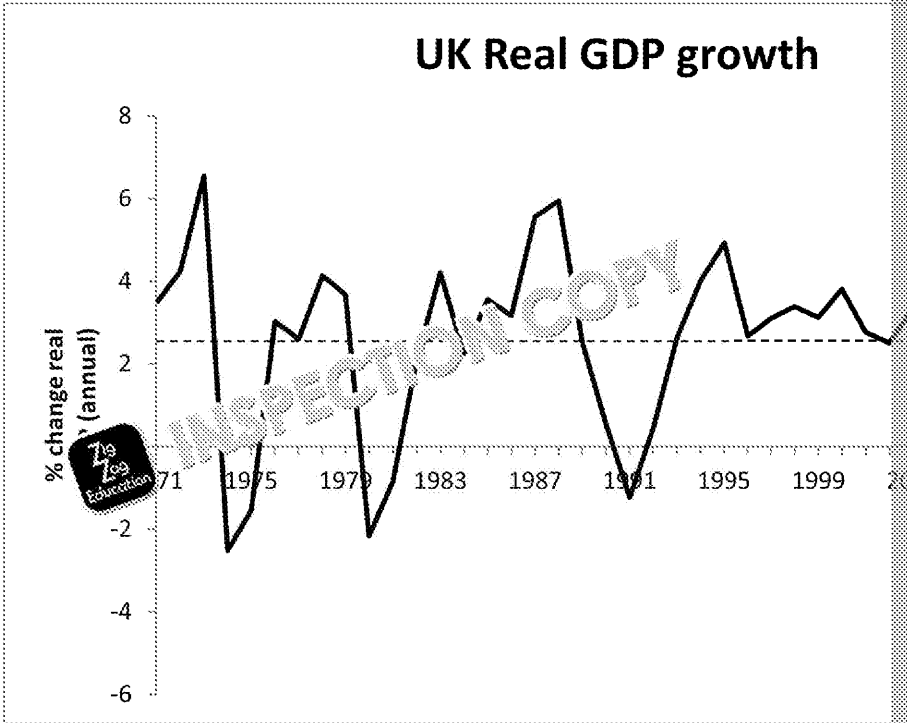


**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



ACTIVITY

Compare the diagram of the trade cycle with the real observed pattern between 1971 and 2014: (the dotted line shows the average annual growth rate)



The table below summarises the effect of each stage of the cycle on various economic indicators

	In Recovery	In a Boom	In Recession
Confidence and Expectation	Remain low, but begin to rise	High	Remain high but begin to fall
Unemployment	Starts to fall	Barely any	Starts to rise
Inflation	Remains low, but begins to rise	High inflation	Disinflation
Exports and Imports		UK prices are high, exports fall and imports rise	
Gov. Spending on Benefits	Begins to fall as employment rises	Low	Begins to fall as people are redundant
Taxation	Begins to rise as consumption, investment and job creation increase	High	Begins to fall as people stop spending and investing and incomes fall

INSPECTION COPY

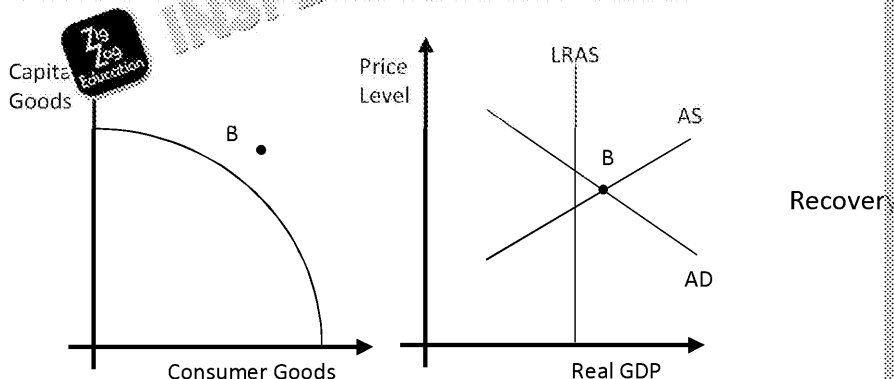
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



An output gap occurs whenever there is a difference between trend growth and a measure these output gaps for a variety of reasons. Firstly, measuring actual growth is a difficult task. Topic 2.1.2 to remind yourself of the difficulties of measuring economic growth. Secondly, the output gap is a theoretical concept and much like the AS and AD curve, they are hard to place in the real world. Thirdly, equations have been constructed to eliminate the fluctuations in actual growth in the short run. Some equations attempt to count the number of resources that exist in the country and the level of productivity in order to find an economy's maximum productive potential. However, measuring the output of every individual resource, the results can only be an estimate. Therefore, it is complex to collect accurate figures.

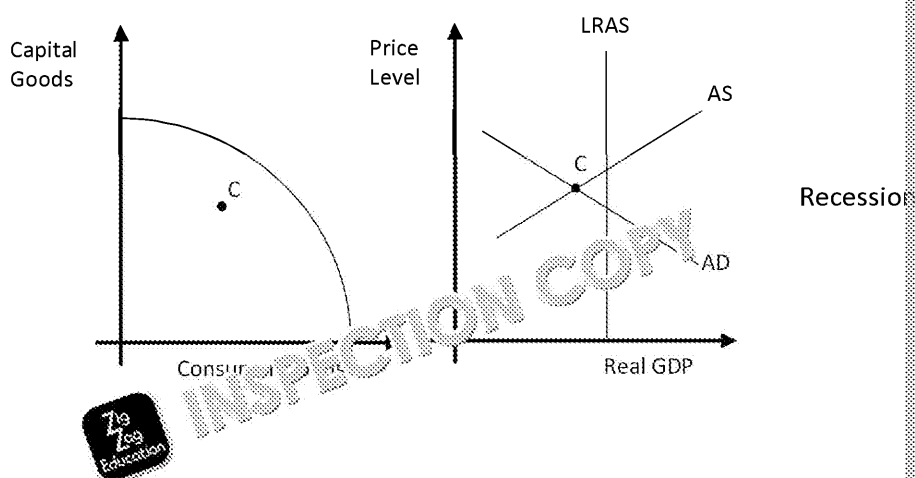
Booms: Positive Output Gaps

A positive output gap is when the economy is producing beyond its long-trend growth rate. The economy is producing beyond its PPF, i.e. it is using more resources than it currently has. An economy can do this in the short run, for example, by employing workers who are not currently employed. This is often associated with high levels of inflation but low levels of unemployment. This is because resources are being used and there is high demand from increased incomes.



Recessions: Negative Output Gaps

A negative output gap is when the economy is producing below its long-trend growth rate. The economy is producing within its PPF, i.e. there are unemployed resources within the economy. Recessions are often associated with low levels of inflation but high levels of unemployment. This is because resources are not being used and confidence is low.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Questions: Economic Growth

1. Distinguish actual and potential growth.
2. What factors cause economic growth?
3. Why is international trade important for countries with an export-led economy?
4. Draw a business (trade) cycle diagram.
 - a) i) Label the positive output gap(s).
 - ii) Illustrate this gap using an AS/AD diagram.
 - iii) Using the concept of capacity, explain what is happening to inflation, unemployment, confidence and the budget throughout the output gap?
 - b) i) Label the negative output gap(s).
 - ii) Illustrate this gap using an AS/AD diagram.
 - iii) Using the concept of capacity, explain what is happening to inflation, unemployment, confidence and the budget throughout the output gap?
5. What are the effects of economic growth on consumers, firms, and the environment?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Macroeconomic Objectives and

By the end of this topic, you should understand...

- ✓ The seven macroeconomic objectives of the government
- ✓ Monetary policy
 - The monetary instruments used
 - The Bank of England as the operator of monetary policy
- ✓ Fiscal policy
 - The fiscal instruments used
 - What is meant by fiscal deficit and surplus
- ✓ The USA's response to the Great Depression
- ✓ The UK's response to the global financial crisis of 2008
- ✓ The difference between market-based and interventionist methods
- ✓ Various supply-side policies that are used
- ✓ How the policies can be illustrated on the AD-AS diagram
- ✓ The strengths and weaknesses of demand-side and supply-side policies
- ✓ The conflicts and tensions that may exist between objectives and policies
- ✓ The short-run aggregate supply curve

First and foremost policymakers strive for growth; they want the country to be well off. We will look at how governments aim to achieve this objective, and others, and what tools they use when the economy starts to shrink.

Possible Macroeconomic Objectives

The government is tasked with steering the economy with the aim of making the country well off and raising living standards. Higher growth and stability are the keys to this but there are many other factors too. The main objectives of government economic policy can be summarised as follows:

1. Economic growth

Economic growth indicates more jobs, increased income and greater opportunities. It is a sustainable level of economic growth.

2. Low unemployment (less than 5%)

The government aims to have full employment because this indicates the economy is using its productive potential. In the UK, 5% is considered the natural rate of unemployment. Below this level the government aims for.

3. Low and stable rate of inflation (less than 2%)

Price stability is important for economic agents to function properly. As discussed in the previous chapter, high inflation can create a stagnant and potentially diminishing market; therefore the government aims to keep levels of inflation at around 2%.

4. Balance of payments current account equilibrium

A balanced current account means there is a balance of injections and withdrawals. If there is a surplus or deficit then the country can boom above or deflate below its potential.

5. Balanced government budget (tax revenue = spending)

The government budget refers to the levels of government spending compared to tax revenue. High deficits are unsustainable for a government and can lead to financial crisis. The 2008 recession has highlighted. In order to have sustainable government finances, the government needs to equal spending.

6. Protect the environment

In order to meet growing demand from infinite wants and population growth, resources are used up, leading us to a bottleneck. Without a healthy environment, the economy will cease to function, whereas a healthy environment is beneficial for well-being. Therefore it is imperative to protect and maintain it.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

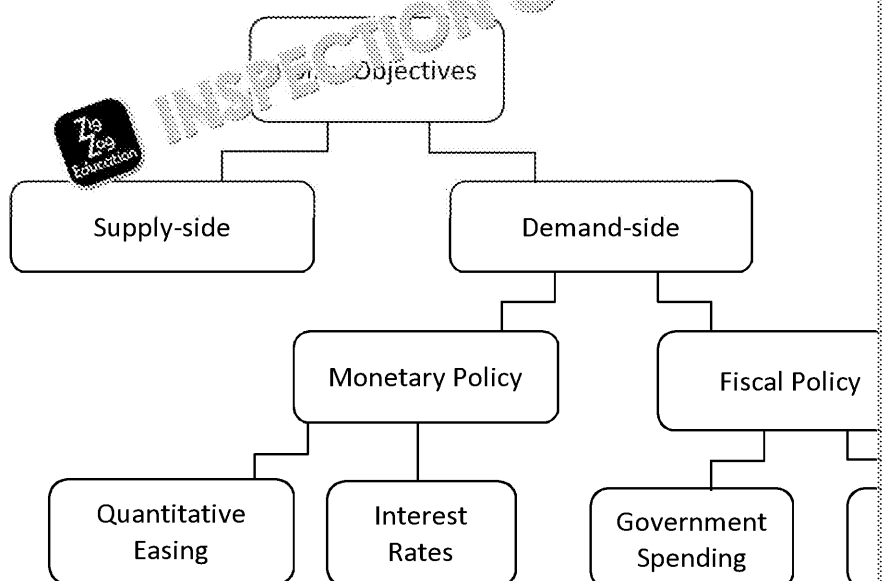


7. Greater income equality

A more equal distribution of income creates a fairer economy and allows the economy to more efficiently increase living standards; however, a gap is still needed in income. Reducing relative poverty will create greater income equality.

The main government objectives can be achieved using various policies. Each policy has its own 'instruments'; this means variables that the government can control in order to meet and achieve the various policy objectives. These instruments control the economy by influencing demand or aggregate supply.

Policies that use instruments to influence aggregate supply are called 'supply-side policies'. Instruments to influence aggregate demand are called 'demand-side policies'. The two main policies: monetary policy and fiscal policy. These will be discussed in the subsequent chapters.



Demand-side Policies

Fiscal Policy

Government spending is an injection into the economy and taxation is a withdrawal from the economy. These two instruments work in a balance and come together to create an expenditure ratio. The government can directly control tax at a different level or choosing to spend a different amount.

Fiscal Instruments: Government Spending and Taxation

Deflationary fiscal policy is where the government tries to 'deflate' or reduce the economy towards or currently in a boom. To deflate the economy, the government will reduce government spending and increase taxation. This will decrease the AD curve from AD_2 to AD_1 ; price level has fallen (deflation).

Expansionary fiscal policy is where the government tries to 'inflate' or boost the economy out of a recession. To inflate the economy, the government will increase government spending and decrease taxation. This will increase the AD curve from AD_1 to AD_2 . GDP has risen but there is also inflation.

Indirect Taxation

Indirect taxes are taxes that are imposed on an economic agent but are not paid directly by them. They are imposed on a producer but are passed on to a consumer. The tax is indirectly paid by the consumer. The party does not have to pay the tax, i.e. they can choose not to buy the product that has the tax on it. Taxes on fuel, or other goods and services, are indirect taxes; VAT is an indirect tax because there are very few goods/services the tax doesn't apply to.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Direct Taxation

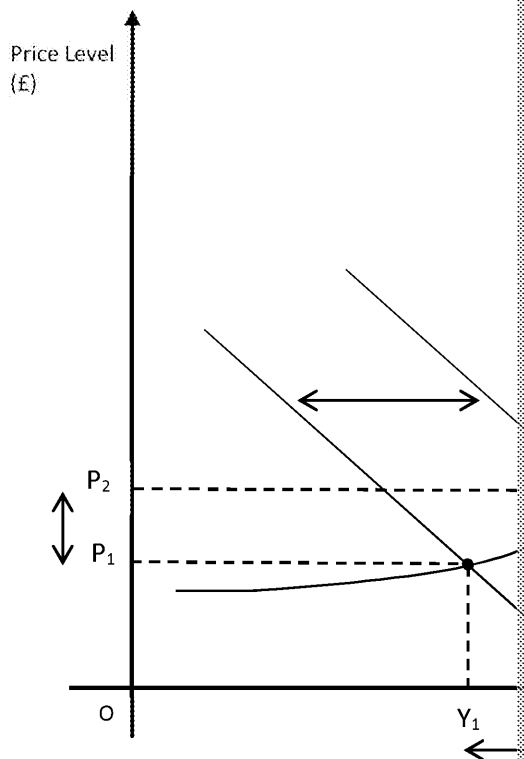
Direct taxes are paid directly by the economic agent that they are imposed upon. Inheritance tax, student loans or poll tax are imposed on an agent and are paid directly to the government. These taxes cannot be avoided through consumption choice.

Government Budget (Fiscal) Deficit is when the money coming into the government is less than the money going out in the form of tax revenue and government spending. A fiscal deficit is not the same thing as a balance of payments deficit. The idea of stocks and flows. The overall debt is a stock, or the total amount of money owed by the government at a variable amount measured over a period of time. A government will need to borrow money to cover a deficit. A government that runs a deficit over time creates debt.

Government Budget (Fiscal) Surplus is when the money coming into the government is more than the money going out in the form of tax revenue and government spending. A fiscal surplus is not the same thing as a balance of payments surplus. The idea of stocks and flows. The overall debt is a stock, or the total amount of money owed by the government at a variable amount measured over a period of time. A government will need to borrow money to cover a deficit. A government that runs a deficit over time creates debt.

There is a number of things that affect the effectiveness of fiscal policy; it is a good idea to mention some of these as you will gain 'evaluation' marks in the exam.

- The size of the multiplier will determine how effective fiscal policy is because it will 'amplify' any changes made by the government. A large multiplier means the government needs only make small changes in order to have large effects, whereas a small multiplier will not bolster changes to tax or spending and therefore larger changes are needed.
- The economy is complex and hard to measure. It is difficult to determine whereabouts the economy is on the business cycle and where the AS and AD curves are. Therefore, there is a risk of making incorrect information or misjudge by how much you should cut/increase spending. The government could over- or under-shoot by incorrectly using fiscal policy and create problems.
- Expansionary fiscal policy will worsen the budget deficit because tax revenue will fall and spending will rise. Although this doesn't determine the effectiveness of fiscal policy and can create issues in the future.
- The principal problem with fiscal policy is that there are time lags between the decision to implement the policy and the actual implementation of the policy because it takes time to pass legislation through the bureaucracy and to hire more public workers. However, once implemented, the effects are felt pretty quickly. This time lag is problematic because the government can't respond to a fluctuating market regardless of its severity. Equally, even if the government changed their instruments in accordance with the economy, there is no telling what the future holds. External shocks that occur after policy implementation can cause the government to have to change policy predictions or the remnants of the policy and the new state of the economy. This can lead to further failures, especially if the government's attempts are slow to correct the economy.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



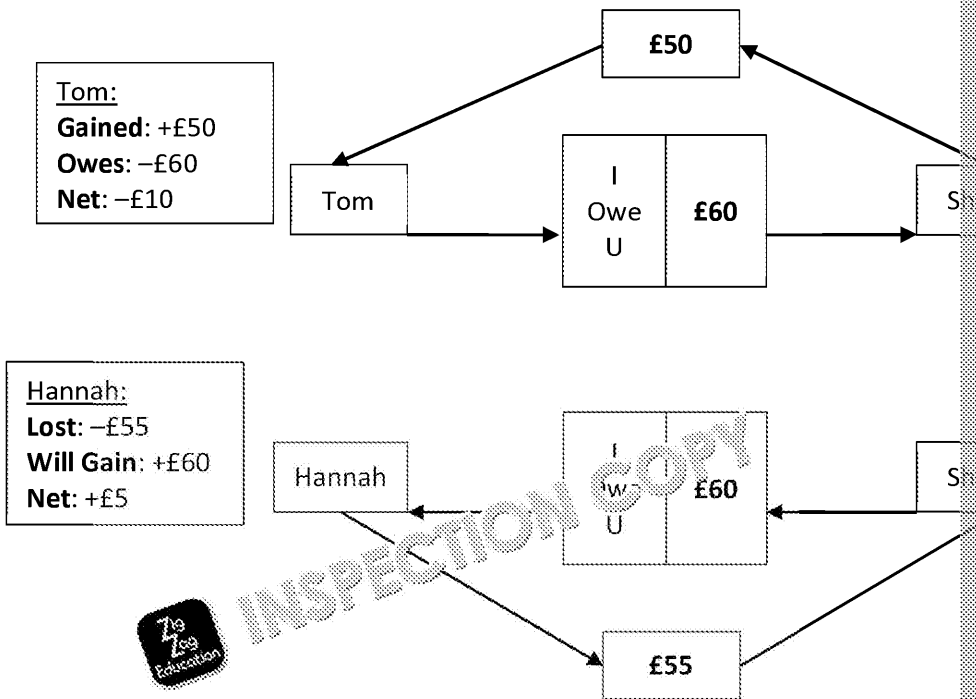
Monetary Policy

Quick Explanation of the Finance Market

Banks lend to others because, although the borrower is currently without money, they will pay back this money plus interest. Therefore the lender (the bank) will make money in the long run.

If the lender needs money, they of course can't use their own because they have lent it out. They must then find money elsewhere; rather than borrowing themselves, they will 'sell' the loan. For example, Shannon lends Tom £50; in return Tom will pay Shannon £60 next month. If Shannon needs money now and cannot wait until next month. She tells Hannah that Tom owes her £60. Hannah will have earned £5 from lending Shannon £55. This can be repeated again. The financial system is complicated and with numerous transactions, it can be hard to track who owes whom, especially when the borrower cannot pay back the loan (defaults on their loan).

Cash (notes and coins), banknotes, etc. Liquidity is the ease with which something can be turned into cash. Cash is the most liquid; you can get cash from them quickly from a cashpoint or go to a pawnshop and exchange it for cash; however, there is difficulty in finding a pawnshop, the hours and finding a shop who will buy the ring. A house is more illiquid than a ring. It is difficult to find someone to buy a house since people need longer to make a decision on a house. Bureaucratic procedures that slow down the sale of a house. Loans can be turned into cash when she sold the loan to Hannah. Some loans are more liquid than others. Government bonds are fairly liquid. When a government needs to borrow money, it will sell a bond that says 'I, the government, owe you £££'. Say Tom was the government and Shannon was the lender. She has sold a government bond to Shannon for £50, with the bond stating that Tom will pay the owner of this bond £60 next month. The UK government, for example, is a very trustworthy borrower and is unlikely to default on its loan. Therefore, being a low-risk loan, the bond would be sold at a price of £50.



Monetary policy is set in a different way to fiscal policy and this is mainly because it is not directly controlled by the government. As discussed before, interest rates affect investment; however, there are a few more steps in between.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Further your economic knowledge...

The responsibility for setting interest rates was passed from the government in 1997 under the leadership of Gordon Brown as Chancellor and Tony Blair as Prime Minister to the Bank of England.

Previously, there was the suspicion that governments had been manipulating interest rates for political purposes. By reducing the rate close to elections, aggregate demand would increase and the economy would boom. This would increase the chances of re-election – but also increase the peaks and troughs of the **economic cycle**, leading to greater uncertainty and deeper recessions.

Now the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) of the Bank of England sets interest rates, independent of political pressures and to achieve the optimal rate to support growth in the country.

Tight (deflationary) monetary policy is implemented when inflation is expected to rise above the target. It is implemented by attempting to reduce aggregate demand by increasing interest rates and/or decreasing the money supply. This will cause the AD curve to shift inwards from AD_2 to AD_1 ; price level has fallen and so has GDP.

Loose (expansionary) monetary policy is when inflation is expected to fall below target. It is implemented by decreasing interest rates and/or increasing money supply. This will cause the AD curve to shift outwards to AD_2 ; price level has risen and so has GDP.

ACTIVITY

Read the recent letters from the Governor explaining why the 2% inflation target has been missed.

www.bankofengland.co.uk/monetarypolicy/Pages/letters.aspx

Firstly, you need to understand the role of a central bank. The tasks a central bank can have, including controlling the money supply, reserves, maintaining the exchange rate, and inflation control. The Bank of England is the central bank of the UK. It is to maintain the exchange rate but in 1992 it was removed from the rate market. It still holds the stock of foreign reserves (via the Royal Mint). Its main role is to control inflation (inflation control), which is done by setting interest rates.

The base interest rate is the rate of interest the Bank of England charges to commercial banks. Commercial banks are those that you see on the high street; they are the businesses use to borrow money from and store their savings. If the Bank of England increases the base interest rate then commercial banks are likely to raise their interest rates to cover their increased costs. This then means the cost of borrowing for businesses and consumers will increase and this will reduce their spending and investment.

The Bank of England was given the role of inflation targeting because the government wanted to avoid manipulating interest rates during times of election in order to boost voter confidence and prevent democratic disruption to the economy, inflation targeting was given to an independent Bank of England, specifically the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC). If the Bank of England misses its targets, then it must report to the government with an explanation as to why.

ACTIVITY

Read about the Bank of Japan. It was the first to use a program of quantitative easing in the early 2000s. Research why this was necessary: read about Japan's 'Lost Decade'.

The Bank of England may also use 'quantitative easing' to lend money and create greater ease of borrowing. It does this by effectively printing more money. By creating physical money, it assumes it has more money to lend. The Bank of England is able to buy corporate bonds from commercial banks. This means banks will get cash for the transaction rather than exchange of physical money. The gain from their sale of bonds means they can lend more money.

Quantitative easing is used when there is a lack of demand in the economy.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Monetary policy is seen as a blunter policy than fiscal policy because it targets the whole economy. However, interest rates can be changed much more quickly than tax rates.

- Commercial banks may not pass the change in the base rates on to consumer credit rates. Therefore, effectively, the interest rate has not changed and the activity is not affected.
- If confidence or expectations are out of sync with the economy, then economic agents may not respond in the same way regardless of the changing instruments.
- There can be time lags between when monetary policy is implemented and when it affects the economy because it may take economic agents time to adjust their consumption and investment decisions.
- There may be a credit crunch if commercial banks may not have the funds to lend to businesses and consumers.



Demand-side Policies (Monetary and Fiscal)

Similarities and Differences

	Monetary	Fiscal
Policymaker	Bank of England's Monetary Policy Committee	Government
Instruments	Interest Rates and Quantitative Easing	Government Spending and Taxation
Time lags	6–12 months due to adjustment in habits and expectations	Up to 18 months due to implementation of new policies
Trade Cycle	Better in... worse in...	Better in... worse in...

History of the Use of Demand-side Policies

To boost an economy, the government should reduce interest rates (monetary policy) or increase government spending on infrastructure (fiscal policy). The money that is in the economy could be used for investment; if there is a low supply of money, then little can be lent for investment. The level of investment is determined by the interest rate because savings are determined by the interest rate. If more people saved their money in banks, banks could lend more money to invest. Increasing the money supply to boost the economy would work during normal times but not during a depression.

Great Depression in the 1930s

United States of America

During the Depression, US exports fell heavily as foreign trading partners also fell into depression and were unable to afford US goods. In response, the USA added the Smoot–Hawley tariff, which raised taxes on agricultural and industrial items. The aim was to support and protect domestic production and thereby shifting domestic consumption from foreign goods to domestic goods. This was a 'tit-for-tat' retaliation from the countries that imposed a tax on US imported goods. Between the USA and Europe. Equally, Europe owed reparation money to the USA to help them recover from the war. Europe found they were losing revenue, because US consumers were not buying their goods, and they were now unable to pay their reparations. This meant a fall in the inflow of income and the economy was becoming stagnant. The US government started projects such as road building. This was not only an attempt to inject money into the economy but also an attempt to tackle the high unemployment problem by providing jobs. The effectiveness of this injection is debated; some believe it helped end the Great Depression, whereas others believe that production from World War II was the main contributor.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Although the job-creation policy was more successful than the import taxing, it was still slow and gave very little improvement. Their monetary approach was equally unsuccessful. Interest rates were already close to 0 and this did not seem to boost aggregate demand. The government provided \$2 billion to the banks in order to promote consumption and investment which would trickle down through the economy to jobs and wages. The outcome of this is controversial; some believed it helped the economy but the money was mainly lent to large businesses who didn't spend it on plans that would create jobs. During the Depression people were not spending or investing their money, but they were not depositing their money into bank accounts. This created a liquidity preference trap. Roosevelt decided to insure the wealth people stored in their bank accounts, which gave them confidence in the banks and encouraged them to put their money back into accounts rather than hoarding cash. This solved the liquidity problem and banks now had funds to lend for investment and consumption.

United Kingdom

In the UK, the government took deflationary measures and looked at cutting the unemployment benefits and the creator pay by 10% and increased income tax (by 2.5%). This reduced the purchasing power in the economy and only made the depression worse. The UK imposed a tariff on imported goods. The tariff rate was at 10% and only affected countries that were not in the British Empire.

The abandoning of the gold standard in the early 1930s improved UK competitiveness to fall by 25% to its natural position. This increase in international competitiveness helped to increase aggregate demand. On top of this, the Bank of England decreased the interest rate which helped to recover the UK economy.

Global Financial Crisis of 2008

The 2008 global financial crash was the worst recession the world has seen since 1930. It was triggered by the sub-prime mortgage crisis in the USA. The sub-prime mortgage companies began issuing mortgages to high-risk household owners (homeowners that were not creditworthy). These high-risk mortgages were then split up and mixed with other loans that were creditworthy to create a 'mixed bag' of various parts of different loans, so that as an average, they were creditworthy. When the risky borrowers started defaulting on their loans, nobody could track which loans were risky. The financial system started to unravel, especially as speculation meant people became more willing to take risks. The financial system dried up, lots of people lost a lot of money and it left a massive interest on customers' savings accounts. As in the 1930s, the global economy foundered and monetary policy became ineffective.

United States

At the start of the crisis in 2008, the USA followed an expansionary fiscal policy. The government increased spending to promote aggregate demand. Later, in 2009, the economy was still in a recession so the US government opted for an approach that was spread over a longer period. The USA spent a larger \$787 billion in the economy.

The USA also used quantitative easing in an attempt to increase the money supply. The effectiveness of this policy is much debated and no one really knows the true impact. The Federal Reserve reduced the interest rate from 5.25% in 2007 to almost 0% by mid-2009.

United Kingdom

The UK reduced taxes in an expansionary fiscal policy movement and reduced VAT. The government spent £3 billion on investment in the economy to boost it out of recession. Tax cuts and spending caused a severe budget deficit. By 2010 the UK government attempted to reduce it.

The Bank of England reduced its interest rates from 5.75% at the start of the crisis to 0.5% in 2009. This had little effect and by the following year the Bank of England had reduced the interest rate to a record low. Despite having rates close to 0, there was little change in borrowing. To compensate, the UK government tried quantitative easing of around £200 billion to give banks the liquidity to lend again.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Strengths

- Although demand-side policies have a time lag of about a year, they are demand-side policies and are therefore used to respond to changes in the economy.

Weaknesses

- Classical economists believe any increase in aggregate demand will only cause inflation.
- Although the government can manipulate the economy, the global market is not under government control. The government policy is weak to external shocks.
- Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information provided to government is often inaccurate but also out of date, causing the government to react slowly and inappropriately.

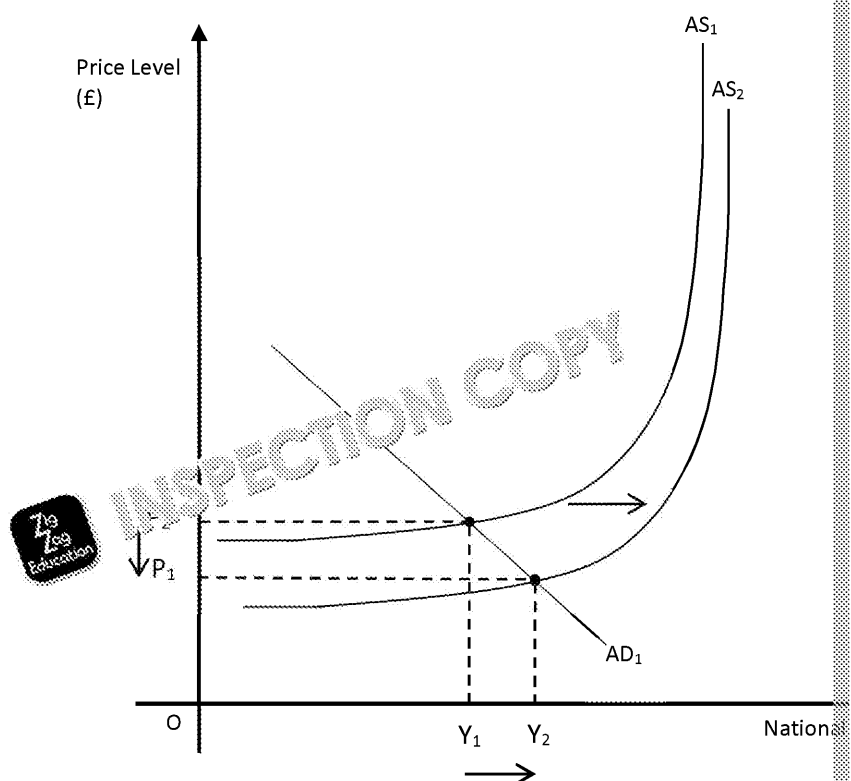
Supply-side Policies

Market-based Policies: These involve little government intervention with market-based policies is to rely on the forces of the free market to increase efficiency, productivity and growth. Market-based policies try to boost aggregate supply by improving the ability of the free market to overcome any barriers.

Interventionist Policies: Interventionist policies are the opposite of market-based policies. They take quite an active role within the economy. Its role is to intervene in order to correct any failures and to guide an economy to a better equilibrium.

There is a wide range of things that affect the aggregate supply, none of which the government has as much level of control over as it does with demand-side policy instruments. The main way to affect aggregate supply is through spending on supply-affecting investments or by changing the cost of production.

Let's remind ourselves of AS/AD analysis. If aggregate supply shifts outward then the price level and output will be equal:



Below are some conditions that affect aggregate supply and explanations of how government policies to affect those conditions.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- **Promote Competition**

If there are lots of producers in a market, then there is more competition. This will give producers an incentive to find ways to cut production costs because they can sell their goods at a lower price, thereby gaining more customers. To do this the government can encourage competition by giving loans to start-up companies, reduce barriers to entry (obstacles that may prevent a firm from entering a market'), or enforce laws that prevent monopolies (large firms that others find it difficult to compete with). By reducing taxes on imports or subsidies for domestic firms, there will be an increase in competition. By both reducing taxes on imports and providing subsidies to domestic firms, an economy can encourage competition. By allowing domestic firms to remain. This will boost LRAS because domestic firms will not be replaced with foreign production, but the competition drives the firms to produce more, thereby pushing out the LRAS curve. Privatisation can also boost competition. If a firm is worried about increasing revenues or cutting costs to boost profits, there will be more competition. By giving the business to the private sector, it will increase competition and will compete against other firms in the market.

- **Reform the Labour Market**

Reform of the labour market refers to the quantity and quality of labour and the freedom of labour to move freely within this market. Structural unemployment is a result of a mismatch between the skills of the labour force and the needs of the economy. Trade unions are another barrier to the free market system. Trade unions represent an individual worker by uniting them together as one large body. This gives workers more power when it comes to wage and working conditions negotiations. By opening up the market to competition, firms can gain workers and thereby increase its ability to produce goods. Because this is a demand-side policy, around migration are supply-side policies. By increasing minimum wage, more people will be encouraged to work. Equally, by reducing unemployment benefits, this would disincentivise people from claiming benefit and encourage them to work. However, unemployment benefits are a safety net for people and so there is a trade-off between protection and incentive.

- **Quality of Workforce (Skills and Education)**

If the government invested in schools by, for example, buying new learning resources, this would have a better education system, creating a more productive workforce. Education can also provide financial assistance for pupils to continue into further education. The Educational Maintenance Allowance (EMA) was granted to students from 16 to 19 years old but has now been scrapped in England. Investing in training courses for workers can also improve the human capital of an economy. This is particularly useful if there are structural changes in the economy because it will help the mobility of workers between markets.

- **Infrastructure**

Spending on infrastructure means investing to improve the physical conditions or organisation of the economy – for example, investing in transport systems such as railways and roads, or investing in buildings for factories, offices or houses. By improving these factors, society will be happier and the economy will function more smoothly. If there were adequate housing, then the workforce would be happier; if the roads were smoother and straighter, then the lorries could move between factories more easily.

Learn

To see how the government spends the economy, visit <https://www.gov.uk/government>

- **Quality of Capital and Production Processes**

Investment into research and development will create a technological advance. If new machines are invented and more efficient methods of production are created, the LRAS curve will shift out because a more productive and efficient economy can produce more. A positive net investment will indicate increased capital stock. Greater quantity of capital means there is the possibility for more production.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Strengths

- Shifting the aggregate supply curve outwards will not cause inflation as it lowers prices through competition and improvements to production.
- Increasing aggregate supply is an increase in production, as long as it is matched by an increase in demand (movement along the AD curve). This indicates a rate of economic growth as resources are generally improved or increased in the long term.
- Increasing production and economic growth will mean there is job creation and a lower level of unemployment.
- By improving the productive capacity of an economy and reducing the cost of production, the country will become more competitive in the global market. This will mean export growth and a reduction in trade deficit.

Weaknesses

- Supply-side policies have long time lags. Improving the quality of the workforce through education can take 13 years, as children start aged 4–5 and finish aged 17.
- These policies can be very costly, which would have a negative impact on the current account.
- Although the government can manipulate the economy, the global market is not under its control. The government policy is weak to external shocks.
- Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information provided to government is often inaccurate but also out of date, causing the government to react slowly and inappropriately.

Conflicts and Trade-offs between Objectives and Policies

Macroeconomic Objectives

There may be conflicts between macroeconomic objectives, i.e. in the process of improving one objective, another objective is impaired. The most famous trade-off is the one that is shown by the Phillips Curve. This trade-off to be explained because your syllabus requires more in-depth knowledge.

Economic Growth versus Inflation

Economic growth usually results from an increase in aggregate demand. An increase in aggregate demand only increases growth but also increases the price level. Therefore, as an economy grows, it also experiences growing rates of inflation too. One way to increase growth without increasing price levels is to increase aggregate supply; classical economists believe this is the only way to create economic growth. On the short-run aggregate supply (SRAS) curve, any increase in aggregate demand will only result in price increases in the short run.

Economic Growth versus the Current Account

As the economy grows and people's incomes rise, people will spend more on imports and exports will worsen a trade deficit (or improve a surplus). Equally, as the economy grows and the price level rises, exports will appear more expensive in relation to foreign goods. This means exports will fall and imports could create a negative current account (deficit).

Economic Growth versus Environment

Pollution and environmental damage is a social cost. Remember negative externalities are not accounted for in the market system. Economies that grow, produce more goods and services, use up more of the finite resources. With more production comes more pollution, more fuels, and with the expansion of new factories, offices, hospitals, etc. comes the need for more land. The environment may currently be inhabited by nature. China is a clear example of the trade-off between economic growth and their low rates of clean air and healthy environment. Countries often neglect the environment during their industrialisation stage, where environmental concerns are secondary to the rapid rise in growth rates, and countries switch to more capital-intensive forms of production.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Inflation versus Unemployment (Phillips Curve)

In 1958, Bill Phillips hypothesised a relationship between unemployment and inflation. He believed that if there was high unemployment in an economy (spare resources), then firms could offer relatively low wages as most people would be without an income. Another way to look at this is in terms of competition; there was very little competition within the labour market as the supply of jobs was low relative to the supply of available workers. On the other hand, when the economy was near full employment, attempting to expand would be more costly because firms would have to offer wages that were much higher than the market equilibrium in order to tempt already employed workers away from their current jobs. So, as unemployment fell, expanding production would become more costly and prices would increase to compensate.

Long-run and Short-run Phillips Curve

The economy went through a period of stagflation in the 1970s that seemed to disprove the Phillips curve trade-off. Stagflation is when the economy has low growth, and high levels of both inflation and unemployment. It was instead theorised that expectations had adjusted to the high levels of inflation and these new expectations of inflation were incorporated into wage negotiations. Equally, the strong union power in the UK at the time meant the market was restricted from adjusting to the market equilibrium, resulting in high unemployment (remember the Keynesian idea of sticky wages).

With this idea the theory of the short-run Phillips curve was created. The relationship is true to Phillips' relationship; the curve may simply shift in the short run so that demand shocks result in increasing inflation but at high or low levels. In the long run, however, the relationship disappears and the Phillips curve is a straight line. It is the long-run Phillips curve lies at the natural rate of unemployment.

Macroeconomic Policy

Fiscal Policy Conflicts

Increased government spending may help to boost an economy out of a recession but it will be likely to result in increased taxes in the future. This tax increase not only could be a disincentive to work, but will reduce incentives to work and could worsen income distribution if the tax is implemented.

Reducing government spending may mean cutting benefits or reducing investment in infrastructure, which can have a negative impact on the living standards within an economy. After the 1970s, the government shifted focus to reduce government debt by cutting spending. However, this was unpopular, particularly among those who feared losing the NHS and the adverse effect on education quality. Cutting benefits could worsen income distribution and disproportionately affect those who may need the benefits the most.

Monetary Policy Conflicts

The Bank of England has independent control over the interest rates in order to manage the economy. Increasing interest rates can be damaging to some people; for example, new home buyers will have to pay a mortgage. This could worsen wealth distribution. Monetary policy can also be used to encourage investment. If interest rates are high then this will discourage new start-up businesses and reduce the growth of the market.

Supply-side Policy Conflicts

Supply-side policies that improve infrastructure will improve the efficiency of the economy and reduce the damage the environment. Areas of forests, for example, may be cut down in order to build roads. Supply-side investments will come out of the government's budget which may conflict with fiscal policy.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Questions: Macroeconomic Objectives and Policy

1.
 - a) What are the economic objectives of the government?
 - b) Why are these the objectives of the government?
2.
 - a) What are the three macroeconomic policies?
 - b) What are the demand-side policy tools and how can each of them manipulate the economy?
 - c) Who is in charge of the three policies?
3. What is meant by a fiscal deficit and why is this problematic?
4. What is the difference between direct and indirect taxes?
5. What is the role of the Bank of England?
6. *'Supply-side policies are better for the economy than demand-side policies as demand-side policy not used is because the time lags mean politicians won't see results in time.'* To what extent do you agree with this statement?
7. How does fiscal policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?
8. How does monetary policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?
9. How do supply-side policies conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?
10. What are market-based policies?
11. What are interventionist policies?
12.
 - a) Draw a short-run Phillips curve.
 - b) What does the Phillips curve show in terms of meeting all the government's objectives?
 - c) Draw a diagram to show how the Phillips curve might look in the long run.
 - d) Name and explain four other conflicts that might arise in the short run.

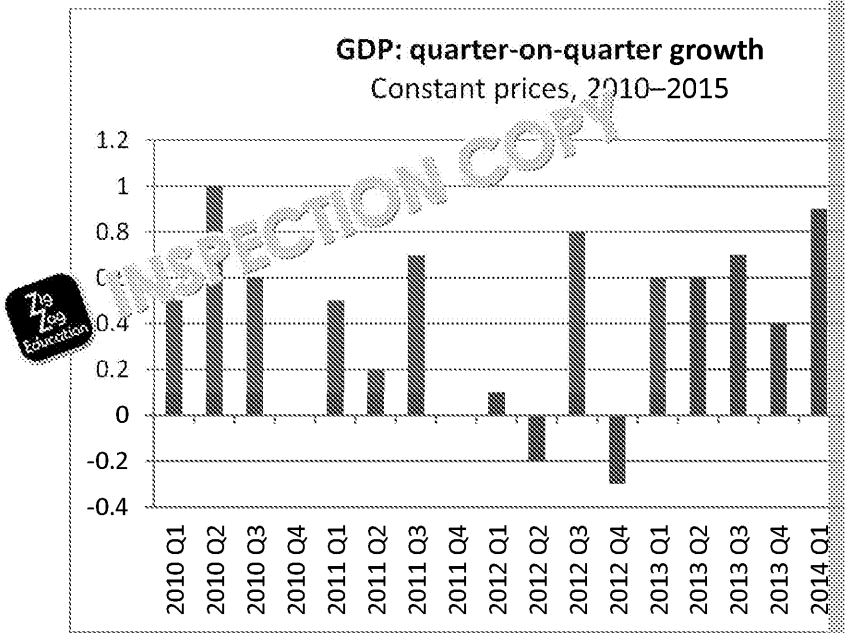
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-style Questions 3: Macroeconomic Objec

1. Which **one** of the following **can** be inferred from the chart below?
- A The UK’s economy shrank between Q2 2014 and Q1 2015.
 - B Between 2010 and 2015 the UK’s economy had consecutive quarters of growth.
 - C The highest growth during the period was in 2014.
 - D The UK’s economy grew overall in 2010.



2. Which of the following statements is not true?
- A In a boom an economy produces above its long-term trend rate of growth.
 - B An output gap is the difference between actual growth and the long-term trend rate of growth.
 - C In the long term, the trend rate of growth is always 0%.
 - D During a recession there is spare capacity in an economy that is not being used.

3. Describe the idea of loose monetary policy and how it can be used to stimulate the economy.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

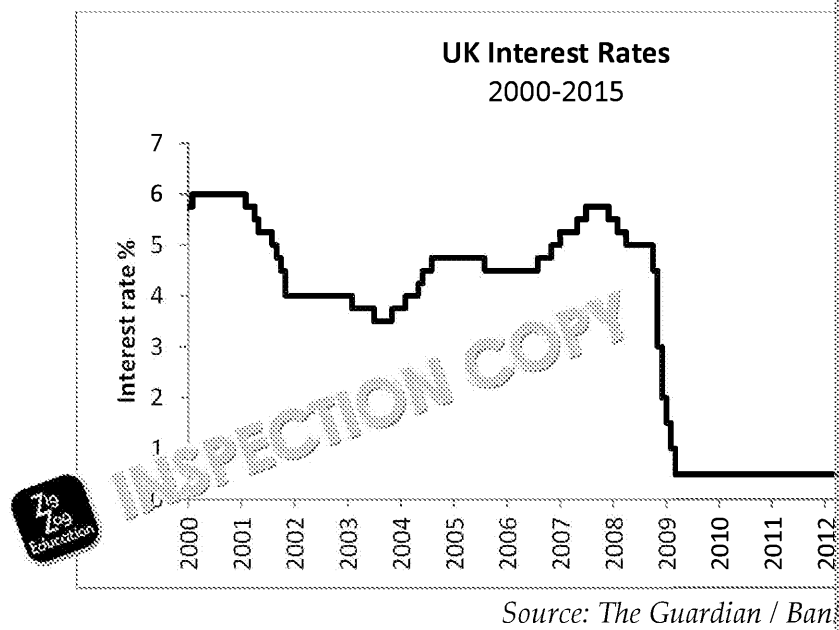
.....

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



4. Look at the chart below which shows the interest rates in the UK set by the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC) of the Bank of England between 2000 and 2015.



Describe the main trends shown in the graph.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

5. Explain the difference between direct and indirect taxes.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

6. Calculate the multiplier if Marginal Propensity to Withdraw (MPW) is 0.25.

.....

.....

.....

.....

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Answers

Measures of Economic Performance

1. What is the difference between inflation, deflation and disinflation?

Inflation is a rise in general price level, whereas deflation is a fall in general price level. Disinflation is a fall in inflation, meaning general price level has increased, but the increase is less than the previous year.

2. a) List and explain four effects of inflation.

Any four of the following

- **Diminishes the Value of Saving:** Any money that is stored will remain the same value, but the value of a good increases (if prices increase). This reduces the value of savings.
- **Shoe-leather Cost:** If there is inflation, mean prices are constantly rising, so people are less able to hold onto their money and have to spend more on goods.
- **Menu Cost:** Firms will need to change their price labels.
- **Reduced Real Income:** Higher prices reduce purchasing power as people can buy less with the same amount of money.
- **Cost of Living:** As prices rise, people will find their costs of living increasing.
- **Discontent:** People become discontent and unhappy if prices are going up at a similar rate.
- **Government Taxation:** Workers can earn a certain amount before tax. If this doesn't increase at the rate of inflation, then, in real terms, the amount they are taxed will fall. So they are taxed more heavily.
- **Unemployment:** The Phillips curve relationship states that as inflation rises, unemployment falls.
- **Anticipated Inflation:** If firms have not prepared for increasing prices, their budgets will be exceeded. Equally, firms' expectations will fall if they experience high inflation, so they are less likely to invest.

b) Despite these effects, why is deflation worse?

Because inflation follows economic growth, deflation is associated with a fall in output, expectations and confidence. Equally, because prices are falling, people are less likely to make a purchase, which will lead to a stagnant economy.

3. What is a basket of goods?

It is a list of items that are bought by the average household.

4. These questions refer to measuring inflation.

a) How is inflation measured using the CPI?

First, a basket of goods is created. Then the ONS sends out the Living Cost Survey to households to calculate the weights and average prices of each good in the basket.

b) What is the other measure of inflation?

Retail Price Index (RPI)

c) What are the limitations of measuring inflation?

Neither CPI nor RPI can account for a change in quality. If a good has improved, it is likely to cost more, but this is only seen as inflation, and not an improvement. To account for quality changes, CPI and RPI give a different measure of inflation, which shows the change in the cost of a basket of goods. However, they attempt to, CPI and RPI can be unrepresentative for some cohorts. For example, CPI uses substitutes.

d) Using the information in the table below:

i) Fill in the missing columns.

See table.

ii) What is the rate of inflation in Year 1, Year 2 and Year 3?

Year 1 = 4%, Year 2 = 5%, Year 3 = 4%

iii) Using inflation, deflation and disinflation, can you describe the changes in the rate of inflation? Between 2000, 2001 and 2002 there is inflation; in 2003 there is disinflation.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Goods				Price Value	Index
Good name	Price	Items bought as a percentage of total items bought (weight)			
Good A	£5.00	20%	0.20	£4.48	100
Good B	£3.00	15%	0.15		
Good C	£0.50	35%	0.35		
Good D	£9.50	30%	0.30		
Good A	£5.25	21%	0.21	£4.64	104
Good B	£3.50	15%	0.15		
Good C	£0.65	35%	0.35		
Good D	£9.60	29%	0.29		
Good A	£5.75	21%	0.21	£4.87	109
Good B	£3.75	16%	0.16		
Good C	£0.75	35%	0.35		
Good D	£10.00	28%	0.28		
Good A	£5.75	18%	0.18	£4.64	104
Good B	£3.75	14%	0.14		
Good C	£0.75	35%	0.35		
Good D	£10.00	27%	0.27		
Good E	£2.00	6%	0.06		

Difference between employment, unemployment and underemployment?
Employment is when somebody has a job, whereas unemployment is when somebody is willing and able to work but doesn't have a job. Underemployment is when somebody is in employment (has a job), but is working fewer hours than they would like, i.e. they are in part-time work rather than full-time work.

What are the five main causes of unemployment?
Frictional, seasonal, demand-deficient and real-wage inflexibility

Explain these causes?
Frictional: This occurs when demand and supply of labour do not match or when the skills of a worker do not match the requirements. This is known as geographical or occupational immobility.
Seasonal: This occurs as people change jobs.
Seasonal: If people are employed in seasonal work, then when the seasons change, they are without work.

Demand-deficient: If the economy is in a recession, then firms will cut back on production and there will be little demand for labour.
Real-wage Inflexibility: If the actual wage rate is below the market equilibrium, then there will be an excess supply of labour.

What are the four effects of unemployment?
See page 80 for a full list of effects.

What measures refer to the measures of unemployment?
What are the two main measures of unemployment?
Unemployment Rate and Claimant Count

How do these measures attempt to quantify unemployment?
Unemployment Rate: The ILO sends out the Labour Force Survey to determine the number of people who are in/out of work and who are seeking work. From this, they are able to calculate an unemployment rate as a percentage of the working population.
Claimant Count: This counts the number of people who are claiming unemployment benefits as a percentage of the working population.

- c) **How accurate are these measures?**

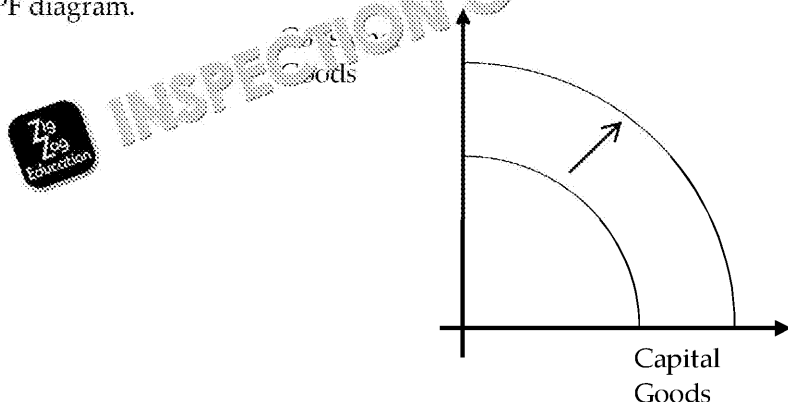
Neither measure is completely accurate as they only calculate the statistic. The claimant account generally underestimates the number of people in unemployment.

9. **What is the difference between immigration, emigration and migration?**

Migration is a movement of people between countries; immigration is an inward flow of people; emigration is an outward flow of people.

10. **Can you explain some effects of positive net migration on the economy? Try to use a demand and supply diagram.**

If net migration is positive, i.e. immigration is greater than emigration, then the labour force is increased. This shifts the demand curve to the right, increasing the demand for labour. This is shown in the diagram below, indicating the potential for economic growth. See PPF diagram.



11. a) **What is GDP?**

Gross Domestic Product: the total number of goods and services produced in a country.

- b) **How effective is GDP in measuring living standards and happiness?**

Economic growth generally has a correlation with living standards, although not always. Because GDP doesn't account for any happiness or development indicators, it is not a good measure of living standards. However, because GDP measures more quantitative than qualitative, it is an easier measure to collect.

- c) **How do real and nominal GDP differ?**

Real GDP accounts for inflation, whereas nominal GDP is merely the current value of goods and services.

- d) **How can GDP be adjusted to account for population size?**

By dividing the total GDP of a country by the population, GDP can be expressed per capita.

12. **According to the theory of purchasing power parity, when is equilibrium reached?**
When the purchasing power is equal across countries.

13. **What is meant when economists say there is a current account deficit?**

When imports are greater than exports because more money is leaving the economy than entering.

14. **What is meant by the interdependence of economies?**

Where economies across the globe interact through trade, they rely on each other. Therefore, they are 'interconnected'.

15. **Why are inflation, economic growth, the balance of payments and unemployment indicators of economic performance?**

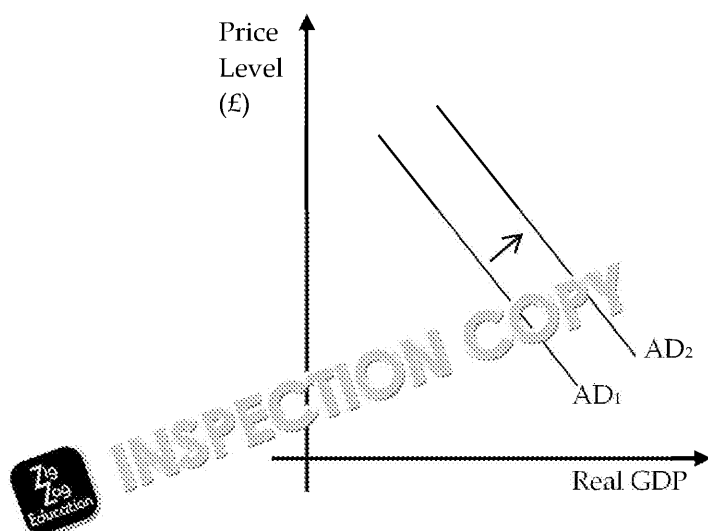
- **Inflation:** High levels of inflation are associated with instability.
- **Economic Growth:** Economic growth is linked to a stable and improving economy.
- **Balance of Payments:** A deficit indicates more money is leaving the economy than entering, which is unsustainable.
- **Unemployment:** High levels of unemployment mean resources are not being used in the economy and so it is underperforming. Equally, if people are unemployed, they have no income and so are not spending money to boost the economy.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Aggregate Demand (AD)

1. Complete this diagram by labelling the curves, the x-axis and the y-axis.



- a) What has happened to this curve?

The curve has shifted to the right indicating an increase in aggregate demand.

- b) i) What four main factors can shift the AD curve?**

Changes in consumption, investment, government spending, net e

- ii) For each factor, explain 2-3 reasons why the curve was caused to

- Consumption:** (1) If disposable income has increased, then people will spend more and so will increase consumption. (2) The government might increase the money supply, which in turn lowers the cost of borrowing and reduces the opportunity cost of spending. This will encourage people to spend their money rather than save it, leading to an increase in consumption of large, expensive goods. (3) Another cause might be an increase in house prices. If people's assets increase, then people will feel wealthier and increase their spending. (4) Lastly, if people have high levels of confidence, they will feel happier about spending their money and won't be as concerned about the future. They are more likely to increase their consumption. Increased consumption increases aggregate demand (AD) and pushes the AD curve outwards.

- **Investment:** (1) Increasing economic growth will increase people's income, so consumption is likely to increase and there will be greater demand. In response, firms will invest in expanding their business in order to meet the increased demand. Hence, investment increases with economic growth. (2) If the exchange rate has fallen, or been expected to fall, then exports have increased, then exporting companies may invest in expanding their business to match their supply with the increased demand; investment has increased. (3) If the government lowers interest rates, then the cost of borrowing has fallen and the opportunity cost of investing has fallen. This will encourage firms to invest their profits rather than consume them. If the interest rate is greater than the expected rate of return, then it will be easier for firms to borrow money to invest. (4) If the government chooses to create regulatory barriers to entry in a market, then investment is likely to increase as a response, assuming the barriers are implemented correctly.

- Government Expenditure:** (1) If the economy is in a recession, the government can increase its spending in order to stimulate the economy. (2) Equivalently, it can resort to an expansionary fiscal policy approach, then their spending changes in the budget.

- **Net Trade:** (1) If UK incomes fall, then UK consumers are likely to reduce their demand for imports. This could lead to a positive net trade, which will increase the value of the pound. (2) If the pound depreciates, then UK goods will appear cheaper in foreign markets. This will increase demand for UK goods, which will increase as foreign consumers switch to consuming domestically produced goods. This will mean that net exports will increase.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



increased aggregate demand. (3) If there is a world economic boom, the price of UK exports will rise. Exports will increase as foreign consumers can purchase more UK goods. Alternatively, UK consumers will also be more able to purchase foreign goods, which may outweigh the increase in exports. However, because the aggregate demand curve has shifted out, this indicates that exports are greater than imports. (4) If the level of protectionist measures implemented on UK goods, then the demand for their consumption of UK goods. Increased exports will increase the demand for UK produces high-quality goods, then the relative price will not fall. As foreign consumers will increase their consumption of the UK export basket, this will increase aggregate demand.

2. **Explain how rising interest rates can affect aggregate demand.**

If interest rates increase then the cost of borrowing rises and the opportunity cost of saving rises too. This will mean consumption falls as people are less able to afford to borrow and save is much higher. Investment will also fall as firms will be less able to afford to borrow and save their profits will fall. An increase in consumption, and an increase in investment, will push out the aggregate demand curve.

3. **What is the wealth effect?**

The wealth effect is that people will feel wealthier if their assets or houses prices rise.

4. a) **What is the relationship between savings and consumption?**

Firms and households can either save their money or spend/invest. If any more, then their spending will decrease, ceteris paribus.

b) **What is meant by the marginal propensity to consume?**

The proportion of an amount of additional income that a person chooses to spend.

5. a) **How does net investment differ from gross investment?**

Gross investment is the investment to replace old or used machines. This is the total investment. If the resources has not increased. Net investment is the total investment minus the depreciation of net value of additional capital.

b) **A firm has five machines; three of them are old and the firm have planned to replace them. The firm has invested in five more machines.**

i) **What is the firm's net investment?**

Two machines

ii) **What is the firm's gross investment?**

Five machines

6. **What are Keynes' animal spirits?**

Keynes uses the phrase 'animal spirits' to describe a mix of confidence and expectations that influence the decisions of both consumers and producers. During an economic downturn, animal spirits fall, which means that consumers spend less and producers invest less.

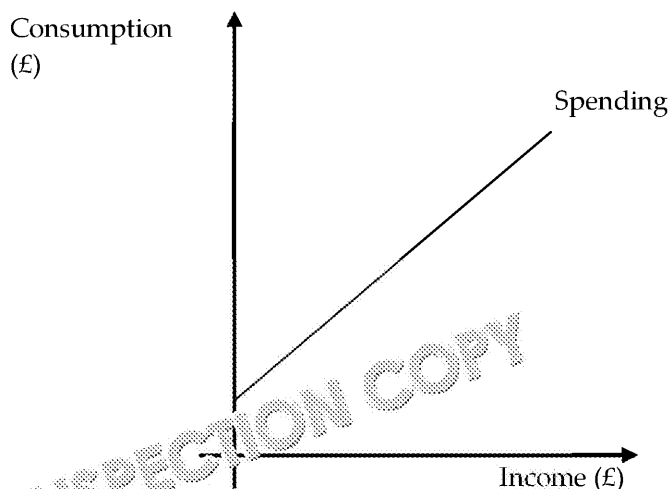
7. **What is the Golden Rule?**

That a government's budget should be equal over a business cycle, i.e. their budget should be balanced at the end of the recession/boom cycle.

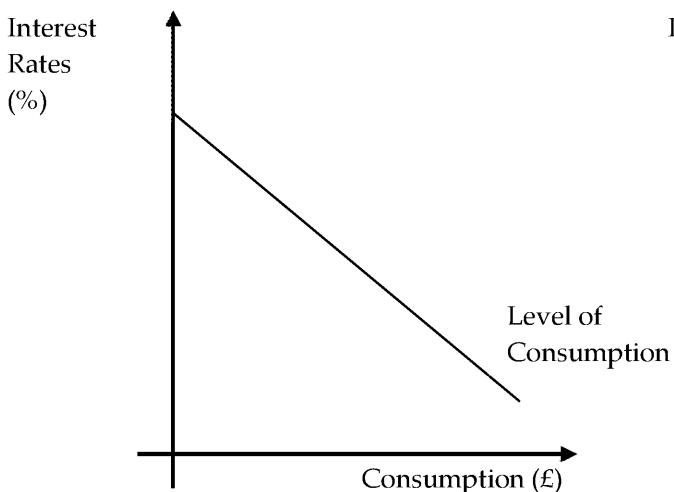
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



8. Draw a graph for the relationship between consumption and real income (y-axis and x-axis).



9. With interest rates being on the y-axis, draw a graph to show the relationship between:
 a) Consumption
 b) Investment



10. If Marcy's income rose from £25,000 per annum to £30,000 per annum and her consumption increased from £9,000 to £11,000:
 a) What is her marginal propensity to consume?

$$\text{Marginal Propensity to Consume} = \frac{\text{Change in Consumption}}{\text{Change in Income}}$$

$$\frac{(11000 - 9000)}{(30000 - 25000)} = \frac{2000}{5000} = 0.4$$

- b) If Marcy's marginal propensity to consume was instead 0.5, what would she expect her consumption to be? An MPC of 0.5 indicates that Marcy will now spend half of her increase in income on top of her initial consumption of £9,000. This takes her total consumption to £11,500.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Aggregate Supply

1. a) **When is a firm in the long run and the short run?**

A firm is in the long run when it is able to change all their factors of production when it is unable to change one factor of production.

- b) **What factors could affect long-run aggregate supply?**

Technological advances, relative productivity, worker human capital, government demographic, migration and competition policy

- c) **What factors could affect short-run aggregate supply?**

The price of inputs (costs of production); for example, raw materials and tax rates

2. a) **How do Keynesian and classical assumptions in the labour market differ?**

Keynesians believe in sticky wages, the idea that wages will not automatically 'stick' at the same level to meet people's wage expectations. Classical economists believe wages will fall to market equilibrium, even, as some classical economists believe.

- b) i) **Draw a classical aggregate supply diagram.**

See diagram below

- ii) **Explain what the curves show.**

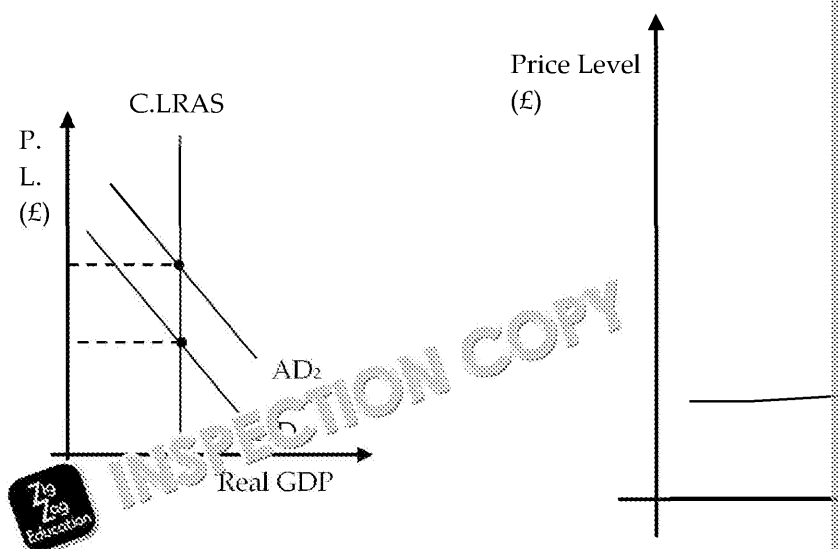
An increase in aggregate demand will only increase the price level because supply does not change.

- c) i) **Draw a Keynesian aggregate supply diagram.**

See diagram below

- ii) **Explain what the curves show.**

The level of spare capacity in the economy determines whereabouts on the flatter end of the AS curve, then it is likely to be in a recession where firms will be able to increase production with ease. Increasing aggregate demand will increase GDP with very little increase in price level. If the economy is at the steeper end of the curve then supply is inelastic and it will be costly to increase production capacity. Any increase in aggregate demand at this point will only result in a large increase in price level with little increase in GDP.

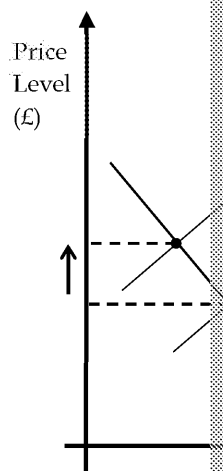
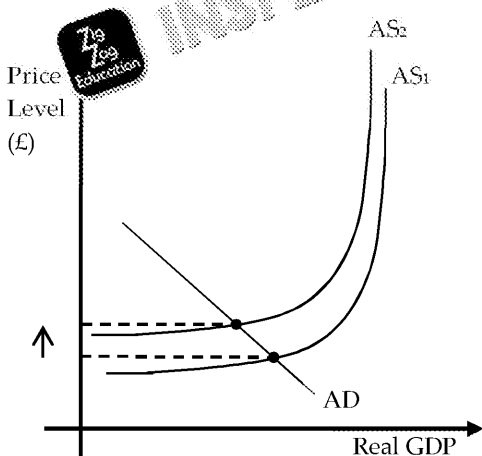
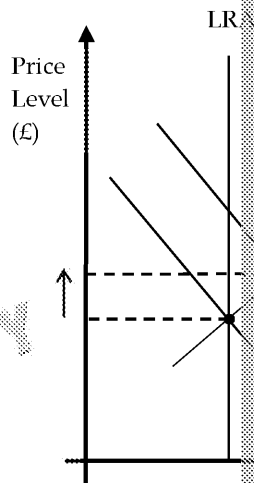
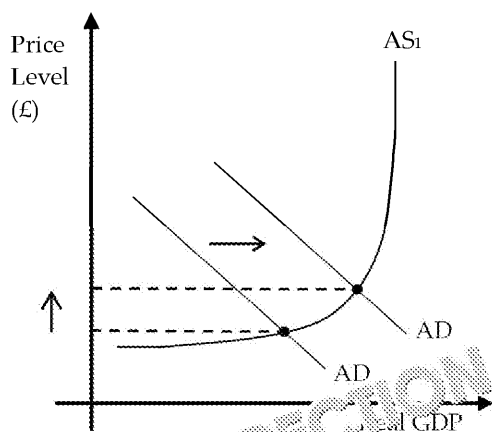


INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



3. a) What are the three causes of inflation?
 Cost-push, demand-pull, growth in money supply
 b) Using a diagram, explain these causes.



- **Cost-push Inflation:** If the costs of production increase because, for example, wages or oil prices have risen, the firms will increase their prices to compete. This will increase the price level.
- **Demand-pull Inflation:** If, for example, the minimum wage is increased, consumption will increase. This will push out aggregate demand. Aggregate demand is increased. This happens because as demand exceeds supply, producers experience shortages. In order to ration their goods they allow prices to be pulled up.
- **Growth in Money Supply:** The phrase 'too much money chasing too few goods' describes the inflation phenomenon of growth in money supply. If the amount of goods and services available for purchase is less than the amount of money to buy goods, the price level will increase.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



National Income

1. What is the difference between wealth and income?

Wealth is a stock concept, whereas income is a flow concept. A stock is a total point whereas a flow is a variable quantity measured over a defined period of time.

2. a) What is an injection and what is a withdrawal?

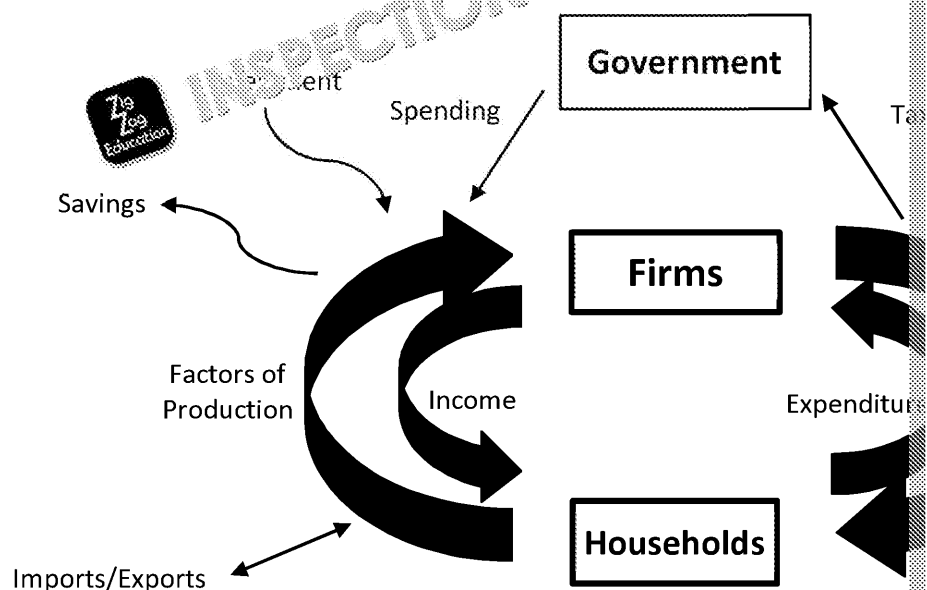
An injection is money being added to the economy, whereas a withdrawal is money being taken out of the economy.

- b) List and explain the six injections and withdrawals.

Injectors: Exports, Investment, Government Spending

Withdrawals: Imports, Savings, Tax

3. a) Draw a circular flow diagram with all the injections and withdrawals.



- b) Explain how income flows around the economy.

As firms purchase factors of production from households, they provide income to households. As households purchase goods and services from firms, they provide expenditure to firms.

- c) What would happen if injections were bigger than withdrawals?

The income coming into the economy would be greater than the income going out, so the economy would grow.

- d) What would happen if the government increased the tax rate?

The income coming into the economy would be smaller than the income going out, and so the economy would shrink.

4. What is the multiplier?

The multiplier is the proportion of the total change in income that occurs after an injection into the economy of the original amount.

5. What is the multiplier by the marginal propensity to...

- a) **save?** It is the proportion of people's income that will be saved.
- b) **tax?** It is the proportion of people's income that will be taxed.
- c) **import?** It is the proportion of people's income that will be spent on imports.

6. If the marginal propensity to save was 0.1 and the marginal propensity to import was 0.2...

- a) What would the marginal propensity to tax be if the marginal propensity to consume was 0.5?

$$MPW = 1 - MPC = MPS + MPT + MPM$$

$$1 - 0.5 = 0.1 + MPT + 0.2 \quad 0.5 = 0.3 + MPT$$

$$0.2 = MPT$$

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



b) What would the multiplier be?

$$\text{Multiplier} = \frac{1}{\text{MPW}} = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{MPC})}$$

$$\text{MPW} = 1 - \text{MPC} = \text{MPS} + \text{MPM}$$

$$(\text{MPW}) 0.5 = 0.1 + 0.2 + 0.2$$

$$\text{Multiplier} = \frac{1}{\text{MPW}} = \frac{1}{(0.5)} = 2$$

or,

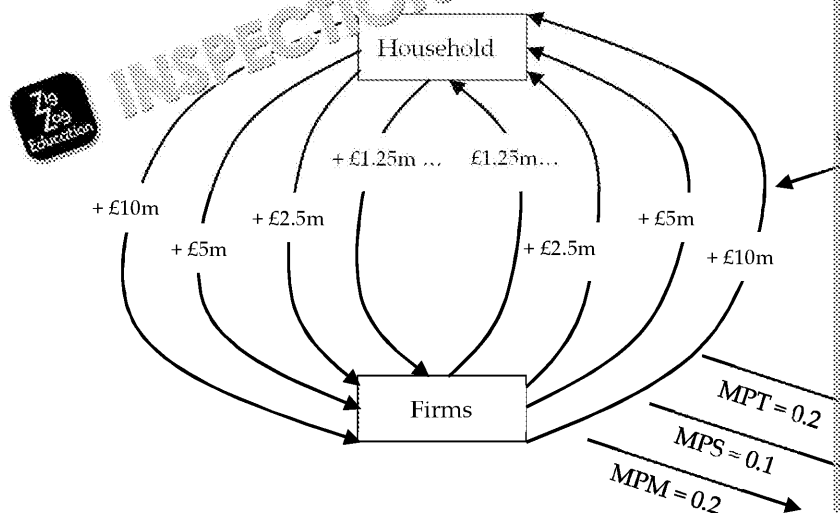
$$\text{Multiplier} = \frac{1}{(1 - \text{MPC})} = \frac{1}{(1 - 0.5)} = \frac{1}{(0.5)} = 2$$

c) If the government injected £10 million into the economy...

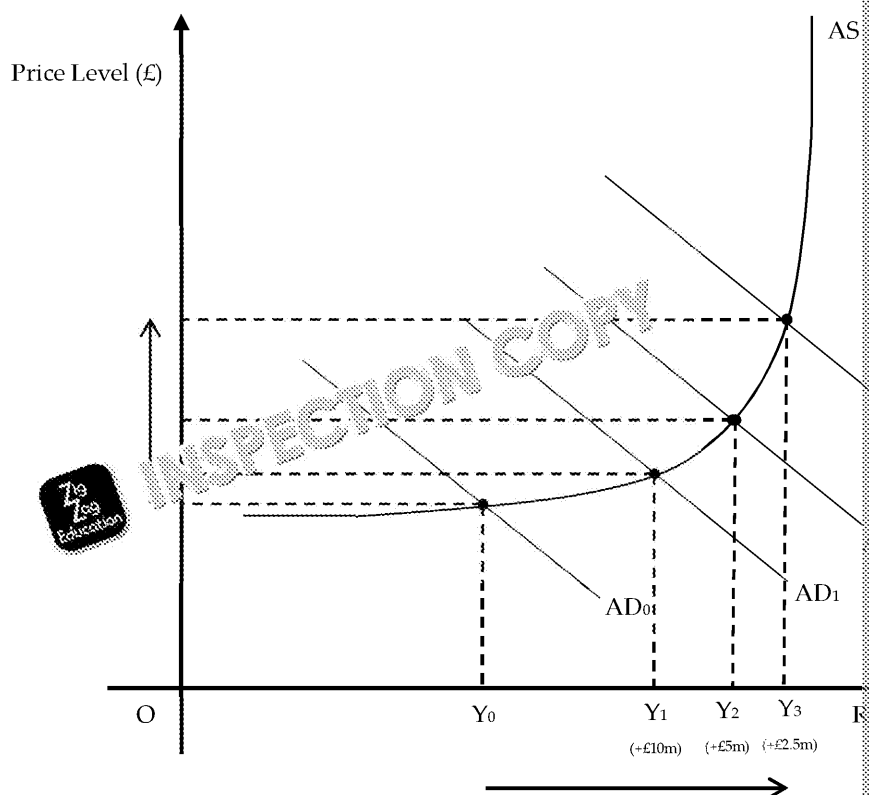
i) How much would the economy grow by?

$$£10 \text{ million} \times 2 = £20 \text{ million}$$

ii) Draw a circular flow diagram to show the path of this £10 million



iii) Show this using an aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Economic Growth

1. Distinguish between actual and potential growth.

Potential growth is the maximum amount of growth that an economy could achieve. The actual real amount of growth that an economy has achieved.

2. What factors cause economic growth?

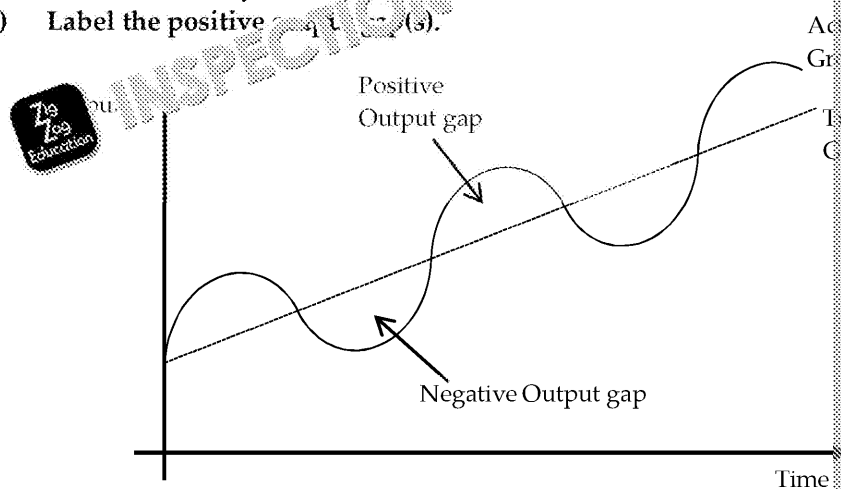
Technological advances, increasing human capital, government regulation, demographic change, migration, investment

3. Why is international trade important for countries with an export-led growth strategy?

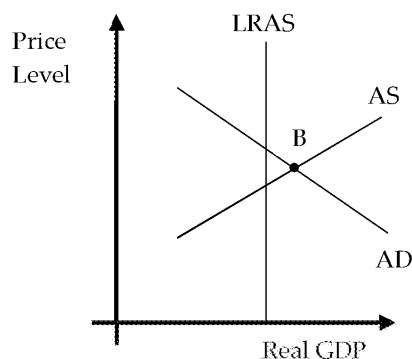
Because countries that take this approach are relying on selling their exports to bring money into the economy. Therefore, the economic situation of their trading partners and the state of the international trade market are important for these countries.

4. Draw a business (trade) cycle diagram.

a) i) Label the positive and negative output gaps.



ii) Illustrate this gap using an AS/AD diagram.



iii) Using the concept of capacity, explain what is happening within the economy.

There is very little capacity; if anything, the economy is producing beyond its potential. The economy is producing beyond its PPF, and is overusing the resources. The economy is producing more goods than the resources currently available are able to produce.

iv) What is the relationship between inflation, unemployment, confidence and the output gap?



As an economy enters a positive output gap, inflation rises and confidence increases; however, there is often a time lag with the government budget deficit will begin to fall as increased consumption increases tax revenue and falling unemployment means less spending.

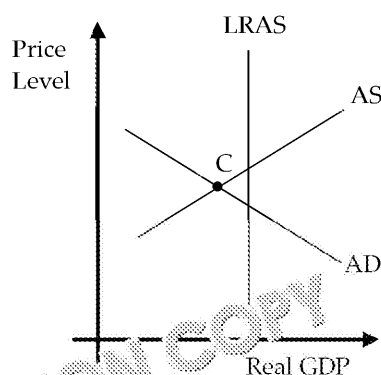
- At the height of a boom, inflation is very high, unemployment is very high. The government's budget is likely in a surplus at the height of a boom.
- As an economy leaves a boom and heads towards a recession, inflation falls and unemployment will begin to rise. Confidence will begin to fall and there will be a time lag with consumer confidence. Any government budget surplus will become a deficit.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- b) i) Label the negative output gap(s).
See diagram on previous page
- ii) Illustrate this gap using an AS/AD diagram.



iii) Using the concept of spare capacity, explain what is happening within the economy. There are a lot of spare/unemployed resources as the economy is in a recession. The spare capacity is very high.

iv) What is happening to inflation, unemployment, confidence and the government budget throughout the output gap?

- As an economy enters a negative output gap, inflation falls and confidence decreases; however, there is often a time lag with consumer confidence. A government budget surplus will begin to fall as decreased consumption decreases tax revenue and rising unemployment means more social security payments.
- At the height of a recession, inflation is very low, unemployment is very high. The government's budget is likely to be in a deficit at this point.
- As an economy leaves a recession and heads towards a boom, inflation rises, unemployment will begin to fall again. Confidence will begin to rise again with a time lag with consumer confidence. Any government budget deficit will possibly become a surplus.

5. What are the effects of economic growth on consumers, firms, the government and the economy?

- **Consumer and Workers:** Increased growth means the economy is expanding, meaning more jobs, meaning more people will have incomes and the negativities associated with unemployment fall. This means people can increase their savings and increase their wealth. Economic growth indicates firms will enter the market or increase production, meaning there are more goods available for consumers with the potential of new goods and services.
- **Firms:** Economic growth indicates firms have increased production or new firms are entering the market. With this increased production, firms will gain more revenue and are more likely to invest in improving and increasing capital and/or labour.
- **The Government and Economy:** Higher employment from the increased production means that the government's budget deficit from the increased unemployment benefits will fall. Equally, the government will also receive more tax revenue from high levels of consumption meaning the government will receive more tax revenue from goods and services. Further to this, more production or increased production means the government will receive more revenue from corporation tax. Expectations of the economy and confidence will increase, leading to increased investment and consumption. Economic growth usually enters a period of stagflation where the economy appears more expensive than foreign goods. UK exports will fall and imports are likely to worsen the current account deficit.
- **Living Standards:** Economic growth is associated with increased living standards. It is not always the case. Economic growth indicates higher employment which should reduce poverty in an economy. If more people have incomes, then this should reduce poverty.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Macroeconomic Objectives and Policies

1. a) What are the economic objectives of the government?

Sustainable, positive economic growth; low unemployment; low and stable inflation; current account equilibrium; balanced government budget; environmental protection; low inequality.

b) Why are these the objectives of the government?

Sustainable positive economic growth can bring about greater living standards, improve well-being and help boost the economy through increased income tax. High unemployment is bad for well-being and a drain on resources so the government aims to keep it low. Inflation is disconcerting for an economy and diminishes people's savings, leading to increasing living costs. Therefore the government's main aim is to keep this low. Households can anticipate and plan for the future. A current account deficit means money is leaving the economy, leading to a weaker pound. The government cannot sustain a deficit (tax revenue) and so aims for a balanced budget. It's a moral imperative to protect the environment. Equally, the UK can be fined by the EU if it does not meet its standards and some economists argue it can boost economic growth.

2. a) What are the three macroeconomic policies?

Fiscal, monetary and supply-side policies.

b) What are the demand-side policy tools and how can each of these be used to change the economy?

- **Fiscal Policy:** Tax: Tax is a withdrawal from the circular flow of the economy which affects aggregate demand, inflation and growth.
- **Government Spending**: The government can inject money into the economy at different levels and stimulate an economy out of recession.
- **Monetary Policy:** Interest Rates: The Bank of England is able to set interest rates as it influences consumption and investment.
- **Quantitative Easing**: Banks are unlikely to lend to people if they don't have cash. Quantitative easing helps liquidity traps and enables greater lending, which stimulates consumption and investment.
- **Supply-side Policy**: There is a variety of things a government can do to increase aggregate supply such as deregulation, reducing income tax or lowering corporation tax.

c) Who is in charge of the three policies?

The government is in charge of fiscal policy and supply-side policy, while the Bank of England is in charge of monetary policy.

3. What is meant by a fiscal deficit and why is this problematic?

A fiscal deficit means that government debt is increasing. A larger debt means less money for the government to spend providing services and infrastructure.

4. What is the difference between direct and indirect taxes?

Direct taxes are imposed 'directly' on an economic agent, such as a tax on the profits of a company. Indirect taxes are taxes that can be avoided, such as a tax on certain goods.

5. What is the role of the Bank of England?

The Bank of England is in charge of controlling and maintaining stable inflation.

6. 'Supply-side policies are better for the economy than demand-side policies' – do you agree with this statement?

Unlike demand-side policies, which typically cause inflation, shifting the aggregate supply curve to the right has downward pressure on prices through competition and improvements to productivity. This leads to economic growth that can be sustained as resources are generally improved. Equally, increasing production and economic growth will mean there is job creation, reducing the level of unemployment. By improving the productive capacity of an economy, supply-side policies can lead to long-term growth.

INSPECTION COPY

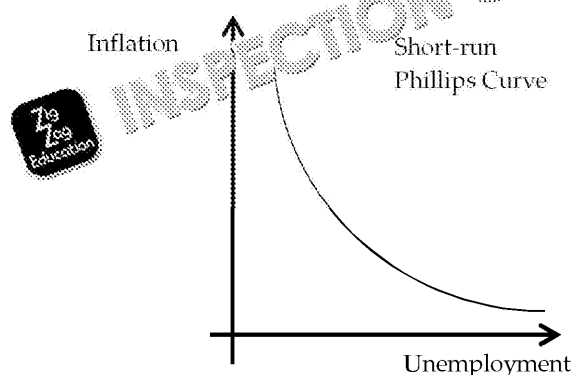
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



production, an economy will become more competitive in the global market, which will increase and which will improve any trade deficit.

However, supply-side policies have long time lags; improving the quality of education can take 13 years. Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information governments may not only be inaccurate but also out of date, causing the government to possibly incorrectly. Further to this, although the government can manipulate the economy, it has some influences that the government has no control over. The government can also face shocks. Supply-side policies can also be very costly, which would have a negative impact on the government budget.

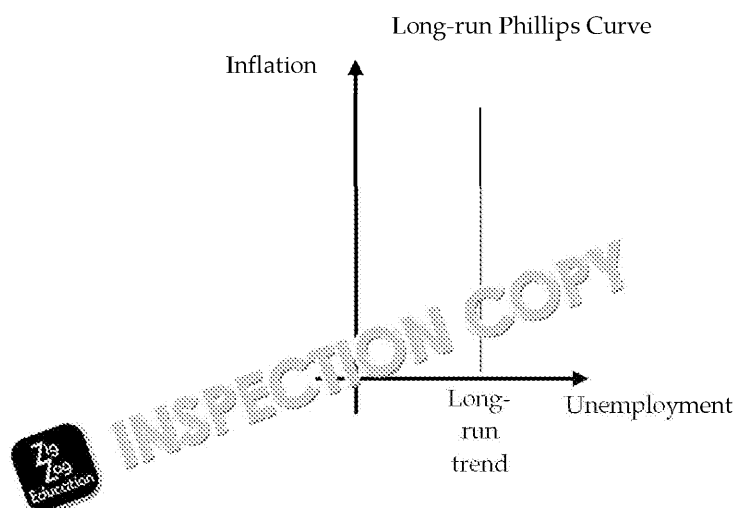
7. **How does fiscal policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?**
Increased government spending may help to boot the economy out of a recession. However, increased spending will be likely to result in increased taxes in the future. This tax increase is a long-term future fiscal approach, but will reduce incentives to work and could worsen the economy. Equally, reducing government spending may mean less investment in education and hospitals. This can have a negative impact on the living standards. After the 2008 recession, the government shifted focus to reduce government spending. However, this was met with outrage by the public who feared losing out on education quality. Cutting benefits also has the potential to worsen income for those who may need the benefits for survival.
8. **How does monetary policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?**
The Bank of England has independent control over the interest rates in order to control inflation. Increasing interest rates can be damaging to some people; for example, new houses will have to pay a mortgage. This could worsen wealth distribution. Monetary policy can conflict with other policies. If interest rates are high then this will discourage new start-up businesses within the market.
9. **How do supply-side policies conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?**
Supply-side policies that improve infrastructure will improve the efficiency of the economy but may damage the environment. Areas of forests, for example, may be cut down in order to build roads. Equally, supply-side investments will come out of the government's budget which may conflict with a deflationary fiscal policy.
10. **What are market-based policies?**
Market-based policies aim to work alongside the market forces to manipulate the economy.
11. **What are interventionist policies?**
The government has a direct role with interventionist policies and intervenes in the economy.
12. a) **Draw a short-run Phillips curve.**



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- b) What does the Phillips curve show in terms of meeting all the government's objectives?
The Phillips curve shows that an economy cannot have both low inflation and low unemployment; there is a trade-off between the two.
- c) Draw a diagram to show how the Phillips curve might look in the long run.



- d) Name and explain three other conflicts that might arise in the government's attempt to meet all its objectives.
There is a conflict between economic growth and inflation. Economic growth leads to an increase in aggregate demand. An increase in aggregate demand not only increases the price level. Therefore, as an economy grows, it will tend to have higher inflation. One way to increase growth without increasing prices is to increase productivity. Economists believe this is the only way to create economic growth because the Phillips curve, any increase in aggregate demand will only result in price increases.

There is also a conflict between economic growth and the current account. As people's incomes rise, people will spend more on imports. As imports rise, the current account moves into deficit (or improve a surplus). Equally, as the economy grows and inflation rises, domestic goods appear more expensive in relation to foreign goods. This means exports rise and imports fall, which could create a positive current account (surplus).

Lastly, economic growth also conflicts with the government's environmental objectives. There are negative externalities. Pollution and environmental degradation are not accounted for in the market system. Economies generally grow, which will use up more of the finite resources. With more production, more fossil fuels and with the expansion of new factories, offices, hospitals, etc., more land is used, which may currently be inhabited by nature. China is a clear example of this. Their high rates of economic growth and their low rates of clean air and water quality are particularly damaging to the environment. Despite their industrialisation, environmental concerns are quickly forgotten with the rapid increase in growth rates, and continued intensive forms of production.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Answers to Exam-style Questions

Exam-style Questions 1

1. Describe the difference between real GDP and nominal GDP.

The key point here is that real GDP adjusts for inflation so that values can be compared and are correctly interpreted.

2. Which one of the following is correct?

- A In the case of constant prices (0% inflation), real GDP will rise faster than nominal GDP.
- B Real GDP is adjusted using the unemployment rate.
- C Nominal GDP adjusts all values relative to a base year.
- D If inflation is positive, nominal GDP will rise faster than real GDP.

Answer D is correct: if inflation is positive, nominal GDP will rise faster than real GDP, as prices are rising as well as economy output. Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

3. Define the term 'disinflation'.

Disinflation is a slow-down in the rate of inflation. Prices are still rising (not negative inflation). Award 1 mark for the correct interpretation.

4. Explain one limitation of using GDP as a measure of growth.

These are covered in the text. Award 1 mark for an appropriate answer. Answers include:

- GDP does not take into account equality and how the growth is distributed.
- GDP does not factor in resource depletion or environmental degradation.
- If something is destroyed and then replaced it counts as growth.
- GDP does not take into account happiness or well-being.

5. Name and explain briefly three different effects of inflation.

The effects include diminished value of savings, shoe-leather costs, menu costs, discolouring of goods, and international competition. Award one mark for each that is mentioned and explained.

6. Describe the process of creating an index for inflation.

Award a mark for each correct point made:

- Selection of a basket of goods and services which represents the consumption choices of the average person.
- Each good is assigned a weighting based on its respective importance.
- Price increases are multiplied by the weight for each good and summed together.
- Price changes are analysed relative to a base year.

7. Define the claimant count measure of unemployment.

The claimant count measures the number of people claiming unemployment benefits. Award 1 mark for the correct definition.

8. Which one of the following cannot be inferred from information in the table?

- A More people were unemployed in England than in Wales.
- B A higher proportion of people in Northern Ireland were unemployed than in Scotland.
- C England has more people in its workforce than Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland.
- D A higher proportion of Scottish people were unemployed than Welsh people.

The answer is D: A higher proportion of Scottish people were unemployed than Welsh people. The table shows 2.8% for Scotland and 3% for Wales. Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

9. Which one of the following is correct?

- A The CPI method of recording inflation aggregates price changes for all goods and services.
- B CPI and RPI are identical measures.
- C Some goods are given more importance than others when calculating the CPI.
- D CPI is always positive.

The answer is C. This refers to the method of assigning goods different weights. Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-style Questions 2

1. Define the term 'disposable income'.

Disposable income is the money available to people once taxes have been subtracted and they can choose to save or spend the income. Award 1 mark for a correct interpretation with the correct units.

2. An individual receives a windfall of £1,600. Their marginal propensity to consume is 0.4. How much of the extra income the individual will use for consumption.

$0.4 \times 1600 = £640$ will be used for consumption.

Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

3. Suppose that the individual chooses to save all of the extra income and not consume any. What would their MPC be?

In this case MPC would be 0. If they chose to consume any of the extra income, it would be £0 out of £1,600 = 0.

Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

4. Explain one factor that may influence the level of aggregate investment.

Factors mentioned in the text include: the rate of economic growth, business expectations, interest rates, access to credit, and government regulation. Award 1 mark for correctly identifying a factor and explaining it briefly.

5. Define the term 'aggregate supply'.

The most simple definition is the total amount of output in an economy. It is the supply of goods and services over a specified time period. Award 1 mark for a correct interpretation.

6. What type of inflation is shown by the diagram below?

Demand has shifted out and 'pulls' costs upwards. This is demand-pull inflation. Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Exam-style Questions 3

1. Which one of the following can be inferred from chart above?
- A The UK's economy shrank between Q2 2014 and Q1 2015.
 - B Between 2010 and 2015 the UK's economy had consecutive quarters of growth.
 - C The highest growth during the period was in 2014.
 - D The UK's economy grew overall in 2010.

The answer is D: The UK's economy grew overall in 2010 despite the fact that growth was negative in the first half of the year. This is the correct answer.

2. Which of the following statements is not true?
- A In a boom an economy produces above its long-term trend rate of growth.
 - B An output gap is the difference between actual growth and the long-term trend rate of growth.
 - C In the long term, the trend rate of growth is always 0%.
 - D During a recession there is spare capacity in an economy that is not utilised.

The answer is C. In the long term, the trend rate of growth is always 0%. This is not true. The trend rate of growth is the long-term average rate of growth. It is not always 0%. Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

3. Describe the idea of loose monetary policy and how it can be used to stimulate the economy.

By decreasing interest rates the central bank hopes to cut borrowing costs. This should encourage businesses to invest and households to spend, thus boosting the economy. It may cause inflation to rise above the target (0.5%) then it becomes impractical to lower them further and monetary policy may be tightened. Award 3 relevant points.

4. Describe the main trends shown in the graph.

The key point is the sharp decline in interest rates following the 2008 financial crisis to near-zero rates (0.5%). Prior to the crisis rates were higher and tended to vary year on year. Award 2 correct observations.

5. Explain the difference between direct and indirect taxes.

Award 1 mark for a correct definition of each. In the case of a direct tax, the taxpayer pays the tax directly to the government. An indirect tax is paid by a middleperson who does not bear the burden of the tax. An example of an indirect tax is VAT.

6. Calculate the multiplier if Marginal Propensity to Withdraw (MPW) is 0.4

The multiplier = $1/\text{MPW} = 1/0.4 = 2.5$

Award 1 mark for the correct answer.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Glossary

Aggregate	Total, the sum effect of the individual parts
Basket of goods	The name given to a list (basket) of items (goods) bought by an average household. It is accumulated from the Living Costs and Food Survey.
Brain Drain	Emigration of highly skilled or educated workers that causes a country to lose its intellectual capital.
Commodity	A good that is common . Usually simple goods, such as milk or wheat, where there is very little difference between each product, i.e. milk from one farmer or another farmer. This inability to distinguish between the goods is called 'homogeneous goods'. Goods that can be differentiated are called heterogeneous; for example, each smartphone has a different tariff, camera specification, etc.
Deflation	A sustained fall in the general price level
Deflationary fiscal policy	When the government tries to 'deflate' or reduce the economy, usually during or currently in a boom. To deflate the economy, the government will decrease government spending and/or increase taxation. This will decrease the AD curve from AD ₁ to AD ₂ . GDP has fallen (deflation) and GDP has fallen to Y ₂ .
Disinflation	A fall in inflation, i.e. a fall in the increase of general price level
Economic Shock	An event that upsets the dynamics and the equilibriums in an economy. A change can happen within (internal) or outside (external) an economy.
Economically Active	People who are willing and able to work whether they are employed or unemployed.
Economically Inactive	People who are of working age (16–64) but are not available or looking for work. This includes those unable due to a disability, those who have chosen to stay at home, and those retired early.
Emigration	An outward flow of people (people moving away from a country).
Employment	The name given to a used resource; a worker who has a job and is actively engaged in employment.
Expansionary fiscal policy	Where the government tries to 'inflate' or boost the economy, usually during or currently in a recession. To inflate the economy, the government will increase government spending and/or decrease taxation. This will increase the AD curve from AD ₁ to AD ₂ . GDP has risen but there is inflation.
Factor Immobility	The inability of factors of production to change or move
Fiscal Instruments	Government Spending and Taxation
Geographical Immobility	The inability of resources to move geographically
Government Budget (Fiscal) Deficit	When the money coming into the government is less than the money going out (government revenue and government spending). A fiscal deficit is not the same as a trade deficit. It is linked to the idea of stocks and flows. The overall debt is a stock, which is owed. The deficit is a flow, a variable amount measured over a period of time. The need to borrow money to finance a deficit, which in turn creates a debt.
Government Budget (Fiscal) Surplus	When the money coming into the government (tax revenue) exceeds the money going out (government spending).
Human Capital	The value or cost of a worker, such as their skills, knowledge, and experience. Investing in human capital will increase the quality of a human asset. Education is an investment in human capital. It increases the productivity of a worker. The return on the investment is the increased wages a degree offers.
Immigration	An inward flow of people (people moving to a country).
Income	The money that a person receives in exchange for something, e.g. a salary from letting a property. It moves from one agent to another; it is a flow.
Inflation	A sustained rise in the general price level
Injections	Things that outside economic agents do with their incomes that are not part of the circular flow. There is now more money going around the system.
Interventionist Policies	Interventionist policies are the opposite of market-based policies. They involve an active role within the economy. Its role is to intervene in order to correct what the market may generate and to guide an economy to a better equilibrium.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



In economics, investment means firms have spent money in order to increase their ability to produce more consumer goods/services in the future. Investing increases a firm's 'productive capacity' and will thereby increase profits.

All factors of production can be changed

When inflation is expected to fall below target rates; the MPC will loosen its monetary policy by decreasing interest rates and/or increasing money supply. This will cause the AD curve to shift outwards to AD₂; price level has risen and so has GDP.

additional/extra bit

The proportion of the additional bit of income that goes to consumption

There is very little government intervention with market-based policies. The idea of these policies is to support and use the forces of the free market to increase efficiency, productivity and aggregate supply. Market-based policies try to boost aggregate supply by improving the ability of the free market to function and removing any barriers.

Movement of people between countries

Interest Rates and Quantitative Easing

The end sum of immigration minus emigration (positive net migration = more people have entered a country than left; negative net migration = more people have left a country than entered)

the inability of resources to swap from one industry to another

Equal

Per person

Ability

Portion

Rules and regulations put in place to protect the domestic economy from foreign competition. Import taxes, subsidies to domestic firms and quotas are all examples of protectionism.

Buying

The ability (power) to buy things (purchase)

At least one factor of production is fixed, they are not all variable

Currency that is pegged to the value of gold.

The proportion of income that will be leaked by buying imports

The proportion of income that will be leaked by saving

The proportion of income that will be leaked due to taxes

The process occurs after an injection into the economy and causes it to grow beyond the original amount injected.

Implemented when inflation is expected to exceed targets. The MPC will attempt to restrict aggregate demand by increasing interest rates and/or decreasing the money supply. Using the diagram from Fiscal Policy, this will cause the AD curve to shift inwards from AD₂ to AD₁; price level has fallen but so has GDP.

A worker is employed, but this differs from employment because the job does not fully utilise their human capital

The name given to an unused resource; a worker who is economically active but without a job

The money that a person holds. It may have built up from wages or investment returns, but it does not go anywhere. It is seen as a **stock** as it is money that is kept stored. Wealth can be savings accounts or items such as houses (assets).

Things that economic agents (within the system) do with their incomes that result in taking money out of the circular flow. By taking money out of the circular flow it is no longer going around the diagram.

Exam Tips!

Edexcel has designed this specification to create critical and broad-thinking economists. Try to remember the objectives when you write your answers because these are the skills they will be looking out for when they mark your exam papers.

Edexcel wants you to...

- Be critical
- Understand the economic concepts and be able to apply them to various situations
- Understand the theories and ideologies from various schools of thought
- Be able to draw on real-world examples (the exam does not need to remember exact figures, knowing a few relevant case studies and facts that you can add in a sentence or two is fine)
- Make connections and links across all the topics in each theme relevant to the question

The Structure of the Exams: AS

Paper 2: The UK economy – performance and policies

⌚ **Time:** 1 hour 30 minutes ✓ **Total Marks:** 80

Paper 2 looks at Theme 2, so it is a macroeconomic paper. Do not confuse micro and macro concepts; try to keep them clear and differentiated in your mind! (*Paper 1 is similar in structure to Paper 2*)

Within both papers there are two sections which require slightly different skills...

- **Section A** includes both multiple-choice questions (1 mark) and short-answer questions. This section tests a broad spectrum of your microeconomic/macroeconomic knowledge (AO1) and application (AO2), but note that there are also a few more challenging questions.
- **Section B** uses real-world examples and provides data for you to analyse – and there is one question which is broken down into sub-questions. This section requires the ability to use higher-order skills (such as evaluating, comparing and contrasting). In this section, you should focus on providing not only AO1- and AO2- but also AO3- and AO4-level answers.
- Finally, at the end of Section B, there are two long-answer questions, of which you must answer both! They are 'open response' questions, which means they require an essay-style answer. These questions are usually in the form of 'evaluating' a topic or point, or 'to what extent do you agree' with a statement. This question will require answers showing the full range of skills from AO1 to AO4.

The Structure of the Exams: A Level

Paper 1: 'Markets and business behaviour' and Paper 2: 'The national and international economy'

⌚ **Time:** 2 hours per paper ✓ **Total Marks:** 100 per paper

Paper 1 looks at Themes 1 and 3, which are microeconomic. Paper 2 looks at Themes 2 and 4, which are macroeconomic. Do not confuse micro concepts with macro concepts; try to keep them clear and differentiated in your mind!

Within both papers there are three sections which all require slightly different skills...

- **Section A** includes both multiple-choice questions (1 mark) and short-answer questions. This section tests a broad spectrum of your microeconomic/macroeconomic knowledge (AO1) and application (AO2), but note that there are also a few more challenging questions.
- **Section B** uses real-world examples and provides data for you to analyse – and there is one question which is broken down into sub-questions. This section requires the ability to use higher-order skills (such as evaluating, comparing and contrasting). In this section, you should focus on providing not only AO1- and AO2- but also AO3- and AO4-level answers.
- **Section C** provides two questions; you have a choice as to which one you answer. They are 'open response' questions, which means they require an essay-style answer. These questions are usually in the form of 'evaluating' a topic or point, or 'to what extent do you agree' with a statement. This question will require an AO1 and AO2 response, but do not focus too highly on AO3 and AO4. We will mainly be looking at higher-order skills and AO3- and AO4-level answers.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Paper 3: ‘Microeconomics and macroeconomics’

⌚ Time: 2 hours ✓ Total Marks: 100

Paper 3 looks at all four themes. This means that the questions test a mixture of...
The paper is split into two sections, and you will need to answer questions from both. Each section begins with a ‘data-response’ question which will be split into sub-questions. Also in each section there are ‘short-answer’ questions and you can choose which one you answer. Each section begins with a short paragraph which you should remember to analyse and refer to in your answers, as required. There are also questions asking you to refer to the data, and references in the questions such as ‘the data’ – make sure you only answer questions you need to where there is an either/or choice.

How the Examiner Awards Marks

Show the examiner you know your stuff and how to make it easy for them to give you marks!

This section will guide you on how to present your answers in a way that the examiner is looking for, what the question is asking and what the student will be able to demonstrate you know your economics. You are better able to demonstrate you know your economics. marker to award you more marks!

Some of this stuff may seem like common sense – but read it and remember it will help you to organise your thoughts and get into the mindset Edexcel are looking for.

Assessment Objectives

Assessment Objectives, or AOs, determine the level of your answers and show the marks you should award. Not all questions will require all the levels; make sure you have full understanding to gain the highest marks, without wasting time on answers that go above and beyond what is required.

AO1
Knowledge!
Identify and explain concepts, theories, and models.

AO2
Application!
Explain how the concepts work in relation to the situation or example provided.

AO3
Analysis!
Inspect and examine the pros and cons of the relevant concept and the possible outcome with regard to the situation or example provided.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Meaning of the Command Words (Taxonomy)

It may seem obvious to some of you that when the question asks you to examine a kind of answer they are looking for. But the exam board have tried to stick to the questions to suggest the structure and answers on the mark scheme. This section explains the meaning of the words, but about ensuring you know exactly what Edexcel are getting at the same wavelength.

These are the key command words for the longer questions:

- **‘Examine...’**
This kind of question is looking for you to answer, ‘why does the topic of the question require an informed judgment, which is a chance for you as a student to express your opinion. But you will not need to give a decision.’
- **‘Assess...’**
This kind of question wants you to show both sides of the topic. You will need to identify points and concepts but also identify which are most relevant. Provide your judgment and a decision.
- **‘Discuss...’**
This question will require you to identify the topic in question, consider and then debate the relevance or importance of these ideas. Again, you will need to provide a decision is not needed.
- **‘Evaluate...’ / ‘To what extent...’**
For this question, you will need to consider the information provided, then discuss the relevant concepts and the provided data. You should give your judgment and a decision on the topic in question, in an all-inclusive conclusion.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Be Careful and Remember

How to Tackle a Question

It's a good idea to underline the key words while you're reading a question. This points out the points and skills the question is testing. This also means that when you come back to the question, you can quickly recognise what you're supposed to be checking for.

Essay-style and long-answer questions will require an answer that is succinct, structured and to the point. It may seem like a waste of time, but spending just a few minutes brainstorming and planning your response, save time in the long run and make it easier for the examiner mark your answer. Make the examiner's life easy by showing them what you know – remember that this is your knowledge! By planning what you are going to say and in what order, you will make sure you cover all the points. Equally, this gives you a chance to trawl through your memory, and draw upon relevant points that you may have forgotten the other point that you were going to mention, or those that you may have to tack on? If you have a plan, it will guide you through all the points you need to cover.

Timing

In the **A Level** exams you have two hours (120 minutes) to answer the questions. It's important to keep a time up and calculating how long you should spend on each question will mean you can manage your time and give yourself time to check. Equally, if you know you have a limit, and keep to it, you won't be going too in-depth on a question that won't reward you for it.

Split the time using the marks as a weighting:

- 2 hours = 120 minutes
- Take out 20 minutes for reading the data, planning and checking at the end, leaving 100 minutes to write 100 marks (20 minutes is only as a guide, you can adapt this calculation more rounded and easy).
- 1 mark = 1 minute
So, if you have a 5-mark question, spend 5 minutes answering it. If you have a 10-mark question, spend 10 minutes answering it.

If you have extra time:

- 2 hours + 25% = 150 minutes
- 150 minutes to make 100 marks, excluding checking time, isn't such an easy task. If you spend 10 minutes for checking and this leaves you with 120 minutes to write 100 marks, then 1 mark = 1.2 minutes, or, 5 marks = 6 minutes
So, if you have a 15-mark question, $\left(\frac{15}{5}\right) \times 6$, spend 18 minutes answering it. If you have a 25-mark question, spend 30 minutes answering it.

In the **AS** exams, you have 90 minutes for 80 marks, so roughly 10 minutes planning and 10 minutes checking per mark again.

Things to Always Check Before Finishing

- Each axis on your graph is labelled, and labelled correctly
- Lines/curves on your graph are labelled, and labelled correctly
- Micro questions are kept for micro questions
- Macro questions are kept for macro questions
- Calculations are correct. Start with the end number and work through the calculations, checking to see whether the number you then end with, matches the original number
- You have answered all the questions you need to answer, all sub-questions and all the points you are looking for

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

