

Course Companion

For A Level Edexcel A Economics:

Theme 4: A Global Perspective

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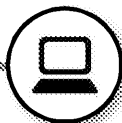
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Teacher's Introduction

Overview

This resource is designed to supplement and enhance your teaching of the 2015 L... been written to include every aspect of the Edexcel A Economics course, as well as study for keen and interested students. A minimum of 20% of the marks in the exam are for quantitative skills. This resource has ensured that all the relevant maths is covered and that students have a basic GCSE Level understanding.

These notes can be given to students before a lesson, after and even during lessons for students to read ahead in preparation, whereas afterwards the notes can be used as a checklist to build on current knowledge. Students and teachers can work through the resource together. The Course Companion follows the syllabus ordering and numbering and, because it has a separate page for each specification topic, this means the notes can easily be reordered and distributed.

Questions are given at the **end** of each section to secure and develop pupils' learning. Answers are provided at the end of the resource. After these there are sets of 'exam-style' questions, tailored to the sorts of questions that students will see in the Edexcel examination. Answers are provided at the end of the resource.

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

Other boxes include:

Further Your Economic Knowledge: These boxes are designed for students who want to explore and learn more on topics. The content in these boxes is relevant to the course and can be used in the exam to gain the 'A*' points'.

Quantitative Skills: These boxes detail the quantitative skills that are applied in the course. These boxes are placed close to the most relevant content in the course companion.

Activity! These boxes include a wide range of interactive or visual activities to secure learning and provide materials for reading around the topic. These can be used to break up lessons and cater for different learner types.

Recap! These boxes contain activities that summarise the topics students have been studying.

Learn More! These boxes are similar to 'Activity!' boxes, but are specific to reading and videos.

Evaluation Point: Edexcel will award marks to students who exhibit AO3 and AO4. These boxes provide pointers to students that can allow them to analyse and evaluate topics.

Link Circles: The exam board wants students to be able to make connections across sections, for example, using PPFs from Theme 1 to evaluate an economy when talking about growth in Theme 2. These circles are dotted throughout all four Course Companions and link to topics they will study or backwards to topics they have already studied that will be covered in current lessons. Numbering used relates to the specification numbering.



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Theme 4: A Global Persp

International Economics

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

- The concept of globalisation and its advantages and disadvantages
- Specialisation and trade
- Trading blocs and differing levels of integration
- Protectionist policies
- The balance of payments
- The current account
- Exchange rates
- International competitiveness

Globalisation

Globalisation has no set definition and can be described differently across we would tend to say it is the ability to move production to anywhere in the resources available for production can be sourced from any country. It is a separate countries, cultures and economies into a single global entity. Borders people and markets are removed as they become more interdependent. As globalised, there is greater factor mobility as economic agents and factors from anywhere across the globe.

It is a phenomenon that has been happening for years and years. Here is a Keynes about the world in 1914:

'The inhabitant of London could order by telephone, sipping his morning tea the whole earth, in such quantity as he might see fit, and reasonably expect doorstep; he could at the same moment and by the same means adventure resources and new enterprises of any quarter of the world ... He could secure cheap and comfortable means of transit to any country or climate without p



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Factors That Have Contributed To Globalisation over the Last

- **Transport Infrastructure and Operations**

The improvement in transportation and infrastructure around the globe has facilitated the movement of resources. As a result this has increased the trade of goods between countries, and the use of factors of production from various countries to do so. Because producers will want to use the resources that are cheap, lower transportation costs mean they are likely to spread their production across the globe, making the world more globalised.

- **Communication Technology and IT**

The improvements in the ability to communicate across the world mean that the flow of information as a barrier to trade is reduced. This allows the world to share cultural and social experiences.

- **Trade Liberalisation (WTO)**

Agreements reached by the World Trade Organisation (WTO) have progressively removed trade barriers. As barriers to trade are removed, economic agents are able to move their goods, services and resources across nations, thereby becoming more globalised.

- **Businesses Increasingly Operate Across Borders**

Transnational corporations (TNCs) sell their goods in various economies across various nations. The increasing number and increasing influence of TNCs in the global market, and thereby increased globalisation.

- **The Dissolution of the Soviet Union**

When the Soviet Union dissolved at the end of 1991 economies that were previously closed to the world began to open up to the global market. This then led to an increase in global labour.

- **International Financial Markets**

As financial markets grew across countries, mainly due to the increase in the number of speculators and traders were able to operate in various countries, causing capital to move freely across nations and thus making financial markets more globalised.

Impacts of Globalisation

There are many effects that have resulted from globalisation; some are good, some are bad and the degree of others is debatable. See below for the impacts of globalisation.

- **Increased Interdependence of Economies**

As producers begin to move their production process to different nations to access different markets, they rely on the countries in which they are operating. As economies become more globalised and integrated, they also become more interdependent.

- **Increased Living Standards**

It is generally believed that living standards increase as the world becomes more globalised. Countries will specialise in producing the goods in which they have a comparative advantage. This will mean markets will naturally grow and there will be more jobs available, leading to increasing living standards.

- **Decrease in Current Global Superpowers**

It has been theorised that as developing countries deindustrialise, and emerging economies like China, begin to grow, power that was typically held by countries in North America and Europe will begin to shift towards alternative economies.

- **Greater Consumer Choice**

As economies open up to the global market, there will be an increase in the range of goods available for consumer purchase. Consumers will have the ability to choose from a wider range of products produced in their domestic economy.

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- **Lower Price**

Some believe consumers will be presented with cheaper goods as they are able to source products from a greater (global) range of producers. As countries specialise in their comparative advantage means they can produce the goods cheaper and prices will be lower than if they were produced by comparatively disadvantaged countries. Equally, as countries specialise in their production processes to wherever is cheapest, they are able to lower prices.

- **Worker Exploitation**

TNCs are able to move production where labour is cheapest. However, workers will be treated fairly, and often countries have cheap labour because of lax bureaucratic procedures to protect workers. TNCs are able to set up processes to bypass these protective procedures, and due to their large influence and market power, they can exploit the workers.

- **Environmental Damage**

Globalisation is associated with economic growth, which has many negative impacts. The transportation of goods and production increases as economies grow, leading to more greenhouse gases, which contribute to global warming and deterioration of the environment.

Globalisation creates winners and losers; those who benefit from the advantages of global trade, and those who suffer the disadvantages of exploitation and inequality. We will discuss the disadvantages and advantages below and try to identify who are the winners and losers. Agents can fall into both categories depending on the circumstances:

Advantages of Globalisation

- **Increased Competition**

By opening up to the global market, economies are opening up to more competition. This means there is greater choice of products for consumers and greater competition for producers. This means there is greater competition for producers. Greater competition is believed to create a downward pressure on prices, leading to greater efficiency.

- ***Reduces Domestic Monopoly and Monopsony Power***

Greater competition will reduce the market power of domestic monopolies and monopsonies as they will have to compete with foreign firms and products.

- **Bigger Market Means Greater Economies of Scale**

More globalised firms will have access to a bigger market. This means greater demand and greater demand for their product. This gives firms the ability to gain economies of scale.

- **Increased Capital Flows and Inward Investment**

As barriers are removed and there is greater freedom in the movement of capital, economies can find they have an inward flow of investment. This injection of capital is used to stimulate its growth, increase jobs and improve standards of living. It also helps spread new technology and knowledge to the country. International firms can also help spread new technology and knowledge to the country. International firms can also help spread new technology and knowledge to the country. International firms can also help spread new technology and knowledge to the country.

- **Free Movement of Resources**

Barriers to free movement of resources are removed, allowing factors of production and services to move to where they are best needed. Firms can be more competitive and have access to the cheapest factors of production anywhere in the world. This leads to greater efficiency and lower costs.

- ***Greater Resource Allocation***

Without barriers, resources and factors of production are able to move to where they are most needed. This leads to greater efficiency and lower costs.

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- **Increased Trade and Specialisation**

Economies that are globalised have the ability to specialise in producing goods that they have a comparative advantage, and trade with other countries to obtain goods that they have a comparative advantage in. This means a more globalised world with more specialisation and trade, which are: reduced costs and price, increase in efficiency of allocation, and a greater choice for consumers.

Disadvantages of Globalisation

- **Increased Numbers and Power of MNCs**

Multinational corporations (MNCs) have the ability to abuse their high market power; therefore, a threat to consumers, workers and developing nations. They have allowed more multinationals to exist and to grow.

- **Free Movement of Resources Leads to a Brain Drain**

Because resources are free to move between countries, countries can lose more resources leave than enter the economy. If skilled workers leave for other countries, then the country can find themselves in a brain drain.

- **Global Monopolies and Monopsonies**

Monopolies and monopsonies, just like in the domestic market, can exist in the global market. These firms and employers tend to be more powerful than domestic firms. They have access to a greater market (the global market). They will have a great ability to control prices and inflate prices. Equally, being internationally spread, there are very few regulations that can control them.

- **Use of Scarce Resources and Greenhouse Gases**

As trade increases, production increases. Further to this, production and transportation increases as resources and goods are shipped across the world. This uses scarce and non-renewable resources quicker than if the world was less globalised. There is ever growing concern for the global society and environment as a whole due to resource bottlenecks and global warming.

- **Loss of Cultural Independence and Rise of Americanisation (Standardisation)**

As the world becomes more globalised, cultures begin to bleed into one another and become diluted. Critics of globalisation call this 'Americanisation', referring to the dominance of the US background as cultural distinction fades away and societies tend towards a global culture.

- **Regulation and Tax Avoidance**

From an environmental and social point of view, globalisation is bad because it leads to necessary regulations which are designed to protect citizens, workers, and the environment. This represents a large missed opportunity for an inflow of capital to the government and as a result, governments may raise taxes elsewhere. It also leads to a race to the bottom towards domestic firms, who have no choice but to abide by these regulations, leading to costs and barriers to entry.

- **Interdependency**

As countries become more dependent on each other, they become more vulnerable to shocks that may evolve in other countries. Equally, if countries become more reliant on one market; 'putting all their eggs in one basket'. This means if one good falls then the whole economy can suffer greatly. Countries can suffer if they can rely on the prosperity of another; this is the advantage of diversification.

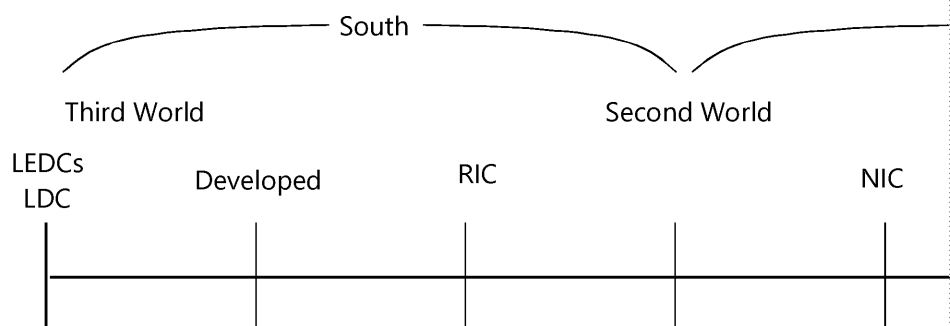
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Further your economic knowledge... Talking about Development

Countries are often grouped into categories to refer to their development, economic status, and there are a wide variety of categories used. This box will briefly explore these categories. You may have heard of some of these before, and hopefully that some of them may be outdated or misused. You will not need to differentiate between them, but it is merely for additional background knowledge for those of you who are interested in these horizons.



The most common categories are those that split countries into one of two groups: developing, and less economically developed countries (LEDCs, or LDCs) versus developed countries (MEDCs or MDCs). These refer to countries based on the measures, such as GDP or HDI. What is good about the categorisation of LEDC/developing/developed is that it identifies the distinction and simply a development standards, whereas developing may imply the country is 'not good enough' or the deficient culture.

There are other categories such as the North–South divide. This category proposes more developed than those in the South, generally. A line is usually drawn between them, but it does not correspond to the equator; this grouping suggests that development level is

West and East is another locational classification, however, this refers more to culture. Western culture is generally 'American' culture, and Eastern culture looks at Asian cultures. It groups all Asian cultures into one, such as Japanese, Chinese and Indian, when they are vastly different, and some may find this quite insulting.

Another one you may have heard of is First World, Second World and Third World categories, which specify countries either 'are' or 'are not', there is a third, middle category. Originally this looked at grouping countries based on their political-economic system: First World being capitalist, Second World being communist, and Third World being referred to as the 'developing' world. This concept is now outdated, although nowadays people refer to First and Third World based on wealth. However, this was not the initial meaning.

The classification of Recently Industrialising Countries (RIC) and Newly Industrialising Countries (NIC) looks at the two extremes and instead looks at the currently changing countries in terms of their economic status. NICs are countries such as China who are fully industrialised but only in recent years. RICs are countries such as the UK who started industrialisation in the late nineteenth century. RICs are countries such as Mexico who are starting to become more industrialised.

What may be identified here is that it is hard to categorise countries into just a few groups. The mix of society, economic and political stances all vary by so much between countries that any similarities and differences are lost. Mexico, for example, although not classed in the more developed industrialised categories, does, however, have a growing and more established economy than countries in other groups. Some argue that we would be better off to talk about countries in terms of development, as this highlights that countries may transition between certain categories. It is critically important to think about these categories; what factors are they differentiating countries on? Are they accurate or outdated? Do they belong at this point on the spectrum? Can we have too many variables?

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Specialisation and Trade

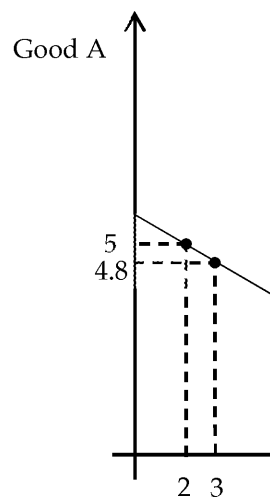
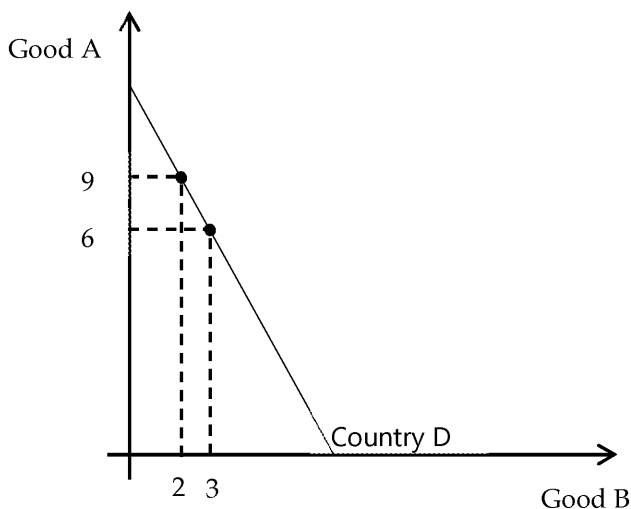


Recap!

Remember comparative advantage from topic 1.1.5? Watch this video to remind you:
<http://www.open.edu/openlearn/society/politics-policy-people/economics/60-second-principle-comparative-advantage>

The Assumptions of Comparative Advantage:

- No economies of scale (constant costs of production)
- No transport costs
- Perfect knowledge
- Free mobility of resources between industries
- Environmental degradation is ignored



Here are Production Possibility Frontiers (PPFs) of two countries, Country C and Country D, for two goods, Good A and Good B. Country C has a comparative advantage in Good A as its opportunity cost of 0.2 units of Good A is less than Country D's opportunity cost of 0.33 units of Good A. This means Country D has a comparative advantage in producing Good B.

This, pointed out economists such as Adam Smith and David Ricardo, means that rather than both countries producing both goods and having high opportunity cost, Country D should specialise in producing Good A, and Country C should specialise in producing Good B. The countries should then trade their surplus goods and would then have access to both goods but at a cheaper price.

Note that countries can have a comparative advantage even if another country has an **absolute advantage** in the production of both types of goods. For example, if Country C could produce 20 of good A and 25 of good B, it would have an absolute advantage over Country D (who can only produce 15 of good A and 5 of good B). Nevertheless, Country D would still have a comparative advantage in producing good A, since the opportunity cost of producing another unit of Good A is lower than Country C's opportunity cost.

ACTIVITY

comparative advantage in wine? This is from Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*.

By means of the division of labour, very good and very great quantities of almost every thing can be produced at about the same cost as the least equal foreign country.

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Advantages of Specialisation and Trade

Lower prices: By producing the goods in which a country has a comparative advantage, it can produce the goods cheaper than another country could. Therefore, goods that a country has produced are sold at a lower price than if the good was produced by the country that had the comparative advantage.

More Consumer Choice: By trading, consumers have access to more goods and services than they could produce on their own.

Larger Markets: Firms can benefit from specialisation and global trade because they can expand to a bigger (global) market.

Economies of Scale: Because firms have a greater audience, there is greater demand for their goods. This means they have the opportunity to expand and gain from economies of scale.

Increased living standards: If countries follow the suggestions of David Ricardo, they can find they have an increase in living standards. By producing the goods in which they have a comparative or absolute advantage and trade for the rest, their consumers have access to a wider range of goods and increased consumer choice from international goods. The economy will grow, and living standards, employment rates and production increases.

Disadvantages of Specialisation and Trade

Trade Deficit: If a country is uncompetitive, then they could end up with a trade deficit.

Dumping: Countries with excess goods can sell them in foreign markets at a lower price than the domestic price in order to get rid of them. The economy of the country that the goods are sold to can be damaged as the increase in supply and fallen price can put some domestic producers out of business as it shocks the market.

Contagion (increased exposure to external shock): As has been seen by the 2008 financial crash, economic shocks can be spread across economies. This is due to the interconnectedness of economies; as one economy begins to crash, the countries that were dependent on it for goods and services are also hit by their downturn and so economic shocks will be spread.

Global Monopolies: International trade can allow the rise of global monopolies, which can have a negative impact on competition and power for market manipulation.

Problems Facing Emerging and Developing Economies: Emerging economies are generally susceptible to exploitation from global monopolies. Developing countries that have access to the necessary finance, capital and knowledge can compete more effectively.

Pattern of Trade

Patterns of trade are influenced by comparative advantage: it is clear that countries specialise in what they can produce most efficiently (e.g. Saudi Arabia produce oil, the UK specialises in services).

Since the creation of the EU, there has been a great deal of trade creation between member countries due to the reduction of trade barriers between them. However, trade has also been lost between member countries (trade diversion) since the interaction between member countries has been reduced to the EU trade bloc. Commonwealth countries and the UK have found their trade with the EU has deteriorated since the creation of the EU. Trade with emerging economies has grown in recent years as these economies grow rapidly and expand their export markets.

Trade flows are also affected by relative exchange rates. Countries with high exchange rates can benefit from greater imports, but they may find it harder to sell their exports (as their goods are relatively expensive). An example of the opposite case is China: rapid Chinese economic growth has led to an increase in demand on exports, and China has been attempting to depreciate its currency to boost exports.

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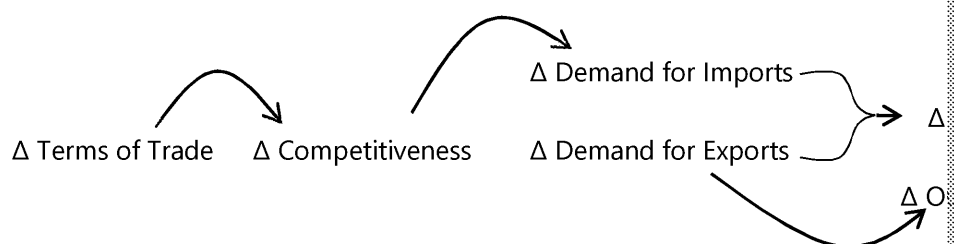


Terms of Trade

The idea of 'terms of trade' refers to how many import goods a country can buy for a unit of its export goods. It is a measure of a country's international competitiveness. Mathematically, it is calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Terms of trade} = \frac{\text{Index of Export Prices}}{\text{Index of Import Prices}} \times 100$$

Changes to a country's terms of trade indicate its competitiveness has changed. A fall in terms of trade has negative consequences for the rest of the economy. If a country's terms of trade has decreased, its international competitiveness has fallen; terms of trade has fallen because either export prices have fallen or import prices have risen. A less competitive economy will find its exports less attractive to foreign buyers and its imports will worsen a current account deficit. Equally, as demand for UK goods falls, UK industries will begin to decline. This will mean UK unemployment will begin to rise as workers are laid off. Falling economic growth and rising unemployment will reduce living standards.



Factors that Influence a Country's Terms of Trade

Relative Inflation Rates: If a country has high inflation rates, then the price level is increasing. This will mean that compared to other country's prices, they will be more expensive. This only occurs if the foreign countries have no inflation. Therefore, the thing that matters is the relative level of inflation rates. If one country's inflation rates are high, its prices will be rising quicker than another's and will appear more expensive.

Relative Productivity: Countries that are relatively more productive are able to produce more with the resources available to them. This means they are able to reduce the price of their goods, making them more competitive, thereby increasing their terms of trade.

Exchange Rate: The exchange rate shows the price of one country's currency in terms of another. If the exchange rate is so that £1 is the same as \$2, then changes to £1 to \$1, then the price of UK goods have fallen in price because a US consumer would only need to spend \$1 to buy a unit of UK goods.

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Trading Blocs and the World Trade Organisation

Trading Bloc = a set of countries who have an agreement on the level of trade restrictions they set between each other.

WTO = The World Trade Organisation is the international governing body on the trade restriction countries set.

Examples of Trading Blocs:

- NAFTA = North American Free Trade Agreement
- EU = European Union
- LAPA = Latin America's Pacific Alliance
- SADC = Southern Africa Development Community

Free Trade Areas

Free trade areas are groups of countries who have an agreement to allow free trade between them. By this it is meant that there are low trade restrictions or barriers between the countries involved. This is so there will be increased trade among these countries.

This agreement only determines the way in which the countries trade with the other countries within the agreement. The countries involved (member countries) are allowed to set their own, individual trade restrictions with countries outside of the agreement (non-member countries). From this, non-member countries can bypass potential high trade barriers of other member countries by entering through the member country with the lowest/cheapest trade barriers. Once they have accessed the free trade area through the low-barriered countries they are able to trade with the other member countries without the high-barriered countries' restrictions. 'Rules of origin' laws are often put in place to crack down on this type of circumvention.

Customs Unions

Just like a free trade area, a customs union has an agreement with its members to have no trade restrictions in order to promote trade among member countries. To avoid the problem of non-member countries avoiding barriers, a customs union will have common protectionist measures. By this, it is meant that all the member countries will have the same trade restrictions to non-member countries. For example, the European Union used to have a common external tariff in the 1960s and it set a 'common external tariff' to non-member countries (all member countries set the same tariff to non-member countries).

Common Markets

A common market, like a free trade area, has an agreement with its members to have no trade restrictions and a set of common protectionist measures, like a customs union, a common market allows free movement of factors of production between member countries. The EU allows any person who lives within the EU member countries to move freely between member countries, i.e. as an EU citizen, you are able to travel between EU countries without a passport (although travelling via aeroplane or through Eurotunnel still requires a passport for non-EU citizens, somewhat redundant to UK nationals).

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Monetary Unions

A monetary union, also known as a currency union, is the last step towards a single market. An example is the euro single currency used in various EU member states. A monetary union, like a trade area, has low to no trade barriers to free trade; like a customs union, it has no trade protectionist measures; and like a common market, it has perfect mobility of factors of production. The additional condition is that the member countries adopt a single currency. The next step is another step, economic union, where member countries attempt to align their economic policies (monetary and fiscal).

Costs of Monetary Union

- **Transition Costs of a Single Currency**

There are costs involved with changing prices on menu, price labels, etc. There will also be a period of adjustment while people realign their price expectations and valuation.

- **Loss of Sovereignty**

As countries join together and agree to change to a trade policy, they lose their individual control and change its policy. A monetary union will mean the individual countries lose their independence to change monetary policy and lose exchange rate flexibility.

Benefits of Monetary Union

- **Eliminating Transaction Costs**

Once all the countries are on the same currency, there is no cost in attending to exchange of one currency to another in order to make transactions.

- **Price Transparency**

It is much easier to make price comparisons if all goods and services are priced in the same currency.

- **Reduction in Exchange Rate Uncertainty**

Exchange rates are constantly changing. Some countries may adopt fixed exchange rates, where the government is making small adjustments on the financial market in order to keep their currency at the same rate, but this is costly and still not certain. With one currency, transactions between France and Germany, for example, can occur without the worry of the exchange rate changing.

Learn More

To understand the European Eurosystem, visit <https://www.ecb.europa.eu/wGIQBg>

Role of the WTO and Conflicts between Regional Trade Agreements

The World Trade Organisation is a global organisation that monitors the trade and business conducted between nations. Their aim is to promote free and fair trade for all countries involved.

The role of the WTO is to promote trade creation. Trade blocs, although creating and encouraging trade among their member countries, often create trade diversion as trade is deflected from more competitive partners because they are outside the bloc.

Trade Creation: different countries create new trade arrangements internationally

Trade Diversion: trade moves away from more competitive partners and towards members of the trade bloc

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Restriction on Free Trade

Why might a country want to restrict trade?

'Infant' and 'Sunset' Industries

A sunset industry is an old and declining industry. Income flows tend to be low. Governments may wish to avoid these industries due to the decline in profits and demand for their goods. Industries that are important to economies and need to be supported, e.g. to maintain employment, are infant industries; the opposite; they are new and inexperienced and need supporting until they have gained the demand and knowledge to remain in the market. Countries may wish to put up trade barriers in order to protect these industries from global competition and facilitate their growth.



Further your economic knowledge... The Paradox of Free Trade

It is believed that free trade benefits all economic agents in all countries, and that protectionism (protectionism) only harm it, and prevent the benefits that come with it.

Industries in one country may be harmed by opening up to the global market in which they are not competitive. Policymakers may wish to add protectionist measures to protect the industry from global competition, thus ensure job security for the workers of that industry. However, the common argument is that protectionism leads to higher prices because cheaper goods are prevented from entering the market. In some cases, structural unemployment, others will be harmed from higher living costs and reduced employment. Free trade supporters would say that reducing protectionism will improve economic efficiency as resources are used where they are most efficient and provide a greater benefit to the economy.

However, developing countries are not always able to compete with firms from developed countries who have access to knowledge and capital, even if they have a comparative advantage. Protectionism is often unfairly used to dampen competition from countries who have not yet developed. The paradox is that free trade can harm some countries and protectionism can be beneficial. Protectionism can be welfare if used in the right circumstances. Developing countries will tend to benefit from free trade because it allows them the fighting chance they need to gain a comparative advantage. They will then be able to compete in the global market. Once they have gained a place in the global market, they can generate funds to reduce poverty and raise living standards.

Employment

The general idea is that trade barriers will increase the price of foreign goods, which will threaten domestic ones because they are more competitive. Demand will shift from domestic produced goods to imports and the domestic industry will go into decline. A trade barrier is believed to shift domestic demand from imported goods to domestic goods, which will allow the industry to expand and create jobs (or protect the current level of employment). This can be done in a particular industry, by applying a trade barrier to that industry, or to protect the employment levels in the whole economy by setting a trade barrier on all imports.

Self-sufficiency

Some countries may be uncomfortable with global trade because it means they have to rely on other countries to provide certain goods and services. Instead, countries may enter into trade agreements to allow their economy to continue producing certain goods, so they still have a source of supply. Countries may fall in to recession or a war interrupts trade patterns.

Balance the Balance of Payments

The idea here is that a trade barrier will increase the price of imports and, therefore, reduce demand for imports. As imports fall it is hoped a trade balance deficit will fall and move towards a surplus.

Retaliation

If a country imposes trade barriers on another country's goods, the country may retaliate with a trade barrier restriction.

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Prevent Dumping

Dumping occurs when a foreign country sells its excess goods in the domestic market at a price below the domestic price. This is bad because it can put domestic suppliers out of business and trade barriers restrict the volume of goods a country can sell in the domestic economy, preventing the country from dumping their goods.

Reduces Competition

Foreign countries may have a comparative advantage and are able to produce goods more cheaply than the domestic economy. Therefore, a country may impose a trade restriction to protect the level of competition threatened from foreign markets.

Protect Strategic/Important Industries

During times of conflict or global instability, normal trade patterns are disrupted. Countries may want to protect certain industries that produce goods that are invaluable to the economy. These industries are comparatively disadvantaged because, during times of disrupted trade, they may not need a steady supply of these goods.

Impacts of Protectionist Policies**Consumers**

Consumers often suffer from protectionist policies as cheaper and more competitive goods are prevented from entering the market. Instead consumers' demands are directed towards domestic producers who tend to have a comparative disadvantage. The hope is that domestic producers have a comparative advantage and will be self-sustaining to produce the goods consumers want.

Producers

The impact of protectionist policies on producers will have different effects depending on whether the producer is domestic or foreign and whether it imports materials, exports goods, or both. Domestic producers should find demand for their products increases as protectionist policies divert domestic demand away from imported goods to domestically produced goods. Foreign producers may find they encounter protectionist policies from tit-for-tat retaliation, which will damage their business. Some producers may import parts for production, such as a furniture-making company importing the raw wood materials. These producers may not be affected if protectionist policies are aimed towards imported goods. Foreign producers in a country where demand for their goods falls as protectionist policies increase may find it difficult to sustain their business.

Governments

Governments may add protectionist policies due to a political agenda, or to protect domestic industries, or to gain voter support. However, protectionist policies, such as subsidies, can be costly and create a fiscal deficit leading to debt increase. Alternatively, the government may impose taxes to gain tax revenue, although the bureaucratic procedures can be just as costly as the tax. Governments can find they are met with tit-for-tat retaliation policies from other countries, which can be politically and economically damaging.

Living Standards and Equality

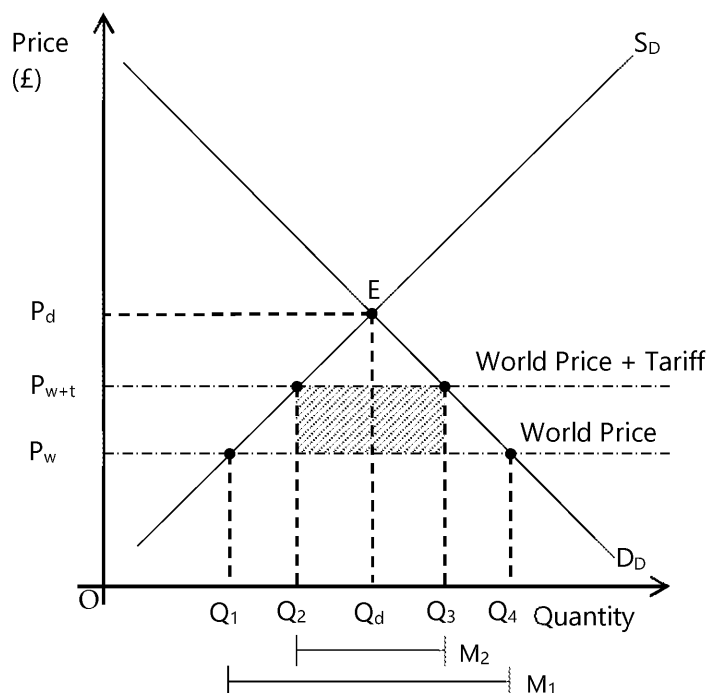
Protectionist policies are designed to protect the domestic economy and the interests of the country, such as domestic producers and the jobs of the workers. Without protectionist policies, domestic producers may find they lose their incomes, pushing them into poverty and reducing the standard of living. Demand for domestically produced goods, jobs can be created, thereby reducing poverty. Those previously without jobs are now earning incomes. However, countries that implement protectionist policies will find it harder and harder to export their goods. This can cause domestic businesses to shut, living standards to fall and inequality to rise. It is often the domestic producers that bear the brunt of protectionist policies, but they are the countries that need trade to develop. Developing countries from competition but reducing developing countries' living standards will increase inequality.

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Types of Trade Restrictions

Tariffs

Tariffs can also be known as import duties or customs duties. Tariffs are simply taxes in order to sell in the country. These additional taxes increase the costs for foreign imports will rise.



Closed to international trade shows the market for a good where the demand curve D_D and the supply curve S_D are the only curves. P_d is the market equilibrium price when the market is closed to the international market.

Open to international trade shows a good on the world market. The world price would fall to P_w because the country would compete with international producers. Domestic demand would rise to Q_4 and domestic supply would fall to Q_1 . The country would need to import M_1 to meet domestic demand.

Imposition of a Tariff shows the effect of a tariff. The world price falls to P_{w+t} . This means that the domestic market and the world market are no longer in equilibrium. The price of goods will rise to P_{w+t} . Domestic supply will rise to Q_2 . Domestic demand will fall to Q_3 . The country will still need to import M_2 . The shaded area represents the government revenue in tax.

Quotas

Quotas are similar to tariffs, but instead of imposing a tax on imported goods, a quota is a limit on how many goods and services an economy can import. The diagram is similar to the tariff diagram, but no tax revenue is raised for the government because there is no tax. The 'world price' is the price the government has set the cap. The quota is aimed at reducing the amount the economy can import.

Subsidies



Thinking back in Theme 1, a subsidy is a grant the government gives to domestic producers in order to lower costs and become more price-competitive in comparison to international goods (see diagram).

Subsidies work in a similar but opposing manner to taxes. Unlike a tariff, a subsidy actually incurs a cost as governments need to give money to producers.

Subsidy

Non-tariff Barriers

There are other ways in which a government can manipulate imports that are more hidden than an obvious, up-front tariff or quota. For one, a government can implement expensive and long-winded bureaucratic procedures. Environmental or health and safety regulations can be another form of non-tariff barrier.

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Questions: International Economics (Part 1)

1.
 - a) List four characteristics of globalisation.
 - b) Why has globalisation increased in the last 50 years? Name three reasons.
2. Create a mind-map showing the impacts of globalisation on:
 - a) individual countries
 - b) governments
 - c) producers
 - d) consumers
 - e) workers
 - f) the environment
3.
 - a) Explain the difference between absolute and comparative advantage?
 - b) Fill in the table below (try to get at least one point for the specialisation and the trade boxes):

	Advantages	
Specialisation		
Trade		

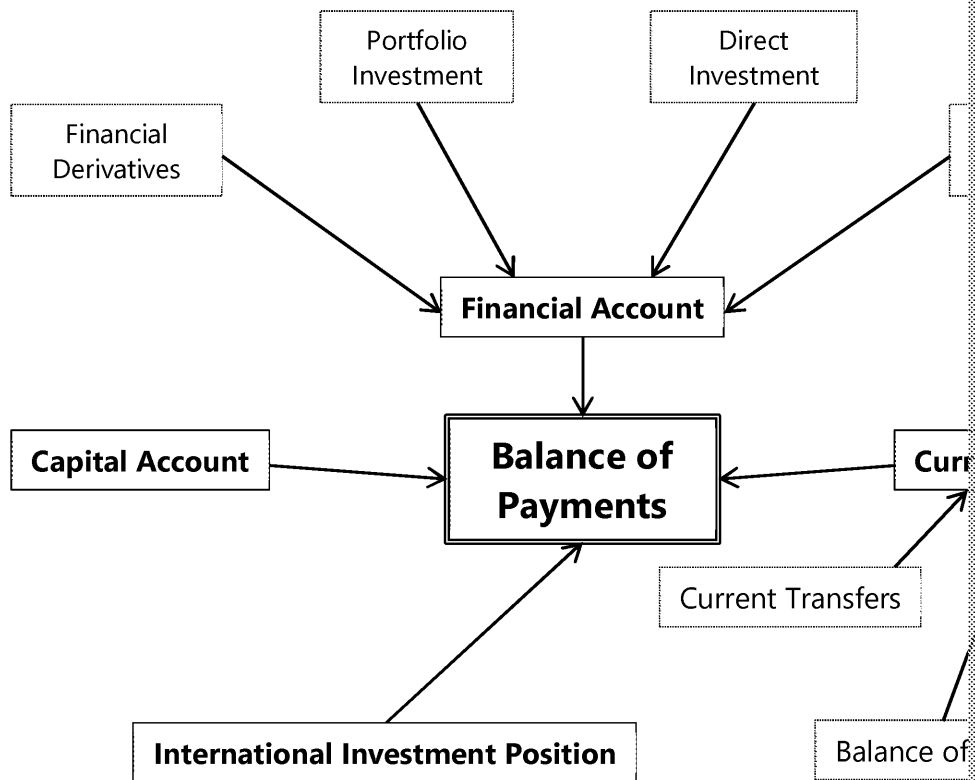
4.
 - a) What is the equation for terms of trade?
 - b) Explain three factors which influence a country's terms of trade
 - c) Using one of the factors you've listed and the terms of trade, explain how...
 - i. demand for imports and exports
 - ii. current account
 - iii. living standards
5. What type of trade bloc is...
 - a) the European Union?
 - b) the eurozone?
6. List and explain two costs of regional trade agreements
7. List and explain three benefits of regional trade agreements
8.
 - a) Despite the benefits of trade, list and explain five reasons why a country...
 - b) What are the impacts of these trade restrictions on...
 - i. consumers?
 - ii. producers?
 - iii. governments?
 - iv. living standards and equality?
9.
 - a) What is a tariff?
 - b) Draw a tariff diagram showing the world price, domestic price and the price cost with the additional tariff
 - i. Now, assuming the economy was closed, what would the quantity of goods domestically supplied be?
 - ii. If the economy opened up to international trade, what would the quantity of goods domestically supplied be?
 - iii. What could a possible solution be to this misalignment of demand and supply on the diagram?
 - iv. If the government imposed a tariff on imported goods, what would the quantity of goods domestically supplied be and what would the price be?
 - c) Draw a subsidy diagram:
 - i. Using the concept of price, how does a subsidy change quantity?
 - d) Can you explain two other trade barriers?

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Balance of Payments



Components of the Balance of Payments

The balance of payments is made up of four parts: the capital account, the current account, the financial account, and the international investment position. Your exam expects you to know these four components. You need to know the current account and financial account in detail.

The balance of payments must always equal zero. If we buy more imports than the number of exports we sell, then we will need to fund these purchases from another component of the account, such as selling a government bond, which would be recorded on the financial account. So, deficits in one component must be counterbalanced by a surplus in another account.

The Current Account

- **Balance of Trade**

There are two parts to the balance of trade; the trade in goods balance, and the trade in services balance. The balance of trade looks at the value of goods that have been exported compared to the value of goods that have been imported. An import appears as a negative on the account, as the economy in return for the imported good, and an export appears as a positive, as the economy enters the economy in return for the exported good. Therefore...

Current Account Deficit can occur when the value of imports exceeds the value of exports. The value is negative, meaning more income is flowing out of the economy.

Current Account Surplus can occur when the value of exports exceeds the value of imports. The value is positive, meaning more income is flowing into the economy.

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- **Income**

The income part of the current account looks at the income earned by foreign citizens on overseas assets is counted as a positive on the current account because money is leaving the economy. Whereas the income earned by foreign citizens from domestic assets is counted as a negative on the current account because money is leaving the economy. Therefore...

Current Account Deficit can occur when the value of domestic assets owned by foreign citizens is less than the value of foreign assets owned by domestic citizens and the overall value is negative, meaning more income is flowing out of the economy.

Current Account Surplus can occur when the value of foreign assets owned by domestic citizens is less than the value of domestic assets owned by foreign citizens and the overall value is positive, meaning more income is flowing into the economy.

- **Current Transfers**

This looks at the transfers between governments. A transfer is something that is not income as a result of trade because this money has no value (i.e. it is not income as a result of trade because this money has no value). When a government lends money to another, this is seen as a negative on the current account. If a government borrows money, it is recorded as a positive. This is the same as a transfer from one country to another for a specific intention. An example of a grant was the money from the EU's Common Agricultural Policy in order to support the UK. This would appear as a positive on the current account. Therefore...

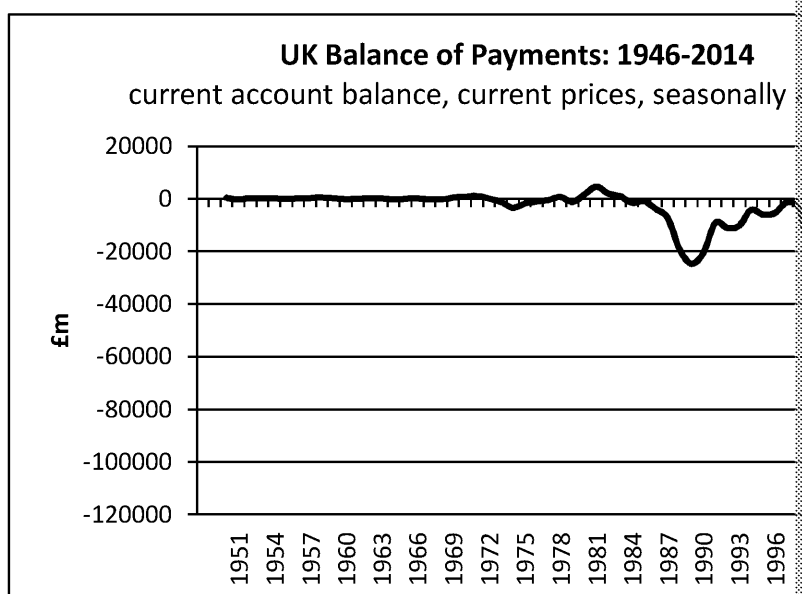
Current Account Deficit can occur when a country lends or gives more money than it receives and the overall value is negative, meaning more income is flowing out of the economy.

Current Account Surplus can occur when a country receives or borrows more money than it lends and the overall value is positive, meaning more income is flowing into the economy.

In summary...

- **A current account deficit** occurs when the current account is negative because the value of money leaving the country (-) exceeds the total value of money entering the country (+).
- **A current account surplus** occurs when the current account is positive because the value of money leaving the country (-) is less than the total value of money entering the country (+).

The chart below shows the history of the UK's current account balance between 1946 and 2014. It shows a surplus until the 1970s, followed by a deficit on the current account since the 1970s.



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QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

Real and nominal prices

The graph below shows the balance of payments in **current** prices rather than **constant** prices. This means that the figures are **nominal** rather than **real**. The effect of inflation hasn't been taken into account.

Seasonally adjusted figures

The figures in the graph have been **seasonally adjusted**. This means that any variation in the figures over a regular interval (perhaps during the summer, for example) has been smoothed out.

The Capital Account

The capital account is a relatively small part of the balance of payments. It looks at the ownership of domestic firms and domestic ownership of foreign firms.

The Financial Account

- **Direct Investment**
This accounts for the transfer of capital between an enterprise and an investor. It can be capital that is provided to an investor by an enterprise, or received by an enterprise from an investor.
- **Portfolio Investment**
This component looks at the investments in equities and debt securities.
- **Financial Derivatives**
Any financial instrument is accounted for in the financial derivatives part of the balance of payments. These instruments are priced on their value of the underlying asset.
- **Reserves Assets**
This part looks at the foreign financial assets that the Bank of England, and other institutions, hold in order to regulate payment imbalances and for financing.

Causes of Current Account Deficits and Surpluses

- **Value of the Country's Currency**
If a country's currency is overvalued, then their goods and services will appear relatively expensive compared to other countries' goods and services. This will mean demand for the country's goods and services will fall, leading to a current account deficit. If a country has an undervalued currency, then demand for their goods and services will appear relatively cheap. This could potentially lead to a current account surplus.
- **Rate of Inflation**
Inflation represents the price of a good or service. If a country has relatively high inflation, then their goods and service will appear at lower prices compared to other countries. This will lead to a current account surplus. If a country has low inflation, then their prices will appear relatively higher than the other and then they will be losing sales to other countries, potentially creating a current account deficit.
- **Economic Growth from Imports**
Economic growth tends to bring about higher average incomes. This means people will have more money to spend on consumption and, if domestic supply cannot meet the increased demand, then they will have to import goods. Rapid economic growth often results in a current account deficit because the demand for imports increases faster than the supply of exports. Equally, in the UK we have a high price for imports such as wine. So when people's incomes go up, they will switch to importing French wine. This could potentially lead to a current account deficit.
- **Non-price Factors (Quality and Design)**
People don't base their decision to buy a good or not solely on the price. The quality of a good can come into play. If a country produces goods of high quality, then there will be a high demand for their exports and, thus, are likely to have a current account surplus. If a country produces low-quality goods, this may reduce demand for their exports and thus they will have a current account deficit.

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Measures to Reduce Current Account Deficits

- **Expenditure Reduction**

This is a deflationary policy aimed at reducing aggregate demand. A fall in aggregate demand leads to a fall in consumption (as this is a component of aggregate demand). A fall in consumption leads to a fall in the purchasing of imports thus alleviating the deficits. Equally, as domestic demand falls, domestic producers will try to sell their goods to foreign consumers. This will increase exports and reduce the current account deficit.

Problems: A fall in aggregate demand can mean an economy has negative growth. Unemployment may rise as firms cut back production to meet the falling demand.

- **Expenditure Switching**

By adding tariffs, quotas or other trade barriers, domestic consumers can be encouraged to switch expenditure from imported goods to domestically produced goods. By switching expenditure, a current account deficit can be reduced.

Problems: This can lead to tit-for-tat retaliation from other trading partners as their exports fall; the deficit problem may not be corrected.

- **Supply-side Policies**

Spending on policies that improve productivity and human capital can boost aggregate demand for exports through increased quality of goods, boosting international trade.

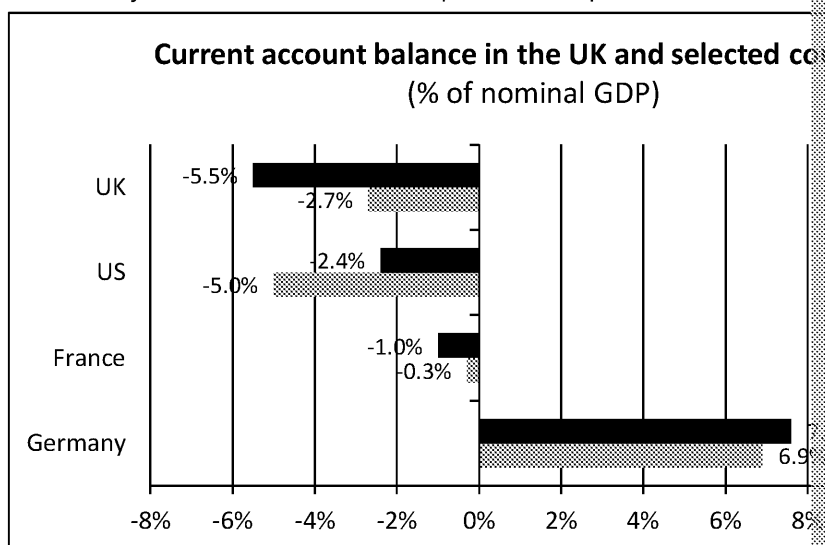
Problems: Supply-side policies tend to have long time lags so their effects may not be felt for some time.

Global Imbalances

It is not sustainable for a country to have a reoccurring current account deficit because it has to be financed by another component, most commonly through a surplus on the capital or finance account. Large sums of money can only alleviate the problem in the present time. Eventually, the country has to return on their investment.

This scaled up to a global level can have significant problems. The recent collapse of the US housing market suggested that large current account deficits were unsustainable. Equally, large surpluses can be unsustainable if they last for a long time. Living standards and consumer choice may be lowered because resources are being used for export purposes rather than being used on domestic consumption.

The graph below shows the change in current account balances in the UK and other major economies (in the period of the financial crisis) and in 2014. Note how the UK's current account balance worsened (became more negative) in 2014. The US's improved. Germany ran a current account *surplus* in both periods.



Source: ONS, Eurostat, US Bureau of Economic Analysis

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Exchange Rates

The exchange rate shows the price (or value) of a country's currency in terms of another country's currency. For example, the price of US currency (\$) if you were to buy it using UK currency (£).

Exchange Rate Systems:

- **Floating**

A floating exchange rate system simply means a country allows the value of its currency to fluctuate according to the free market forces of demand for its currency and the (somewhat controlled) supply of its currency. Decreases and increases in a country's currency are described as depreciations and appreciations in currency when under a floating exchange rate regime.

Appreciation = when a country's currency increases in value, e.g. the pound has appreciated if the exchange rate was £1 = \$1.50 (each pound cost \$1.50) but is now £1 = \$2 (each pound costs \$2).

Depreciation = when a country's currency falls in value, e.g. the pound will have depreciated if the exchange rate was £1 = €2 (each pound cost €2 to buy) but is now £1 = €1 (each pound costs €1).

- **Fixed**

A fixed exchange rate is when a country's governing body or central bank keeps the exchange rate of its currency in terms of another, at the same level. Revaluation and devaluation of a country's currency are a central bank's decision (mediated through the IMF) to increase or decrease a country's currency in terms of another currency.

Revaluation = is when a country's central bank decides to increase the value of its currency, e.g. £1 = \$2 to £1 = \$2.50.

Devaluation = is when a country's central bank decides to decrease the value of its currency, e.g. £1 = \$3 to £1 = \$2.

- **Managed**

A managed exchange rate is when the monetary authorities of a country influence the country's currency via buying and selling the currency itself or by changing the foreign exchange markets, authorities, such as the Bank of England, are able to influence the value of a country's currency in terms of another.

Learn More

Black Wednesday
UK economy
watch this video
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GzMI&list=PLxQqMCwLP>

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Factors that Influence a Floating Exchange Rate

Ultimately, the market forces of demand for a currency and the supply of a currency determine the value of a currency. However, there are a variety of factors that influence the demand and supply of a currency.

- **Relative Interest Rates**

The UK interest rate affects the rate of return on UK investments, such as saving. If the interest rate increases, the rate of return on UK investments increases and attracts foreign investors. They will switch their currency for pounds in order to invest in the UK and thus push up the demand for pounds. This short-run result is called 'hot money flows'.

- **Relative Inflation Rates (purchasing power parity)**

If the UK has lower inflation rates compared to other countries then it means that the UK has a lower rate than others. This means in comparisons, UK goods will be more competitive. Foreigners will demand pounds in order to purchase UK exports. Rising demand for pounds will cause the pound to appreciate. High rates of inflation would have the opposite effect; UK prices will be higher than other countries, thus appearing less competitive.

- **The Level of Imports and Exports (Current Account)**

In order to purchase UK exports, foreign consumers need UK currency. This means that if the demand for UK exports increases, the demand for pounds also increases. Buying imports will increase the demand for pounds because UK consumers will need to swap their UK currency for the currency of the foreign country. If a country has a current account deficit, then their imports are bigger than their exports. This means that the demand for pounds is greater than the supply of pounds. Excess demand means the price of the pound will rise. If a country has a current account surplus, then their exports are greater than their imports. This means that the supply of pounds is greater than the demand for pounds, which will cause the price of the pound to fall.

- **Speculation**

Speculation is the act of trading on the anticipated price movements of financial assets. It is often described as financial gambling. As investors speculate, the demand and supply for pounds and the value of the pound can change in great volumes every second. Generally investors act on the basis of a self-fulfilling prophecy. If investors believe the pound will appreciate, they will buy more pounds, which is a self-fulfilling prophecy. If investors believe the pound will depreciate, they will sell more pounds, which is also a self-fulfilling prophecy. As they buy more pounds, the demand for pounds increases and thus the pound will appreciate.

- **Quantitative Easing**

Quantitative easing is a monetary tool the Bank of England uses to stimulate the economy. It involves the Bank of England increasing the supply of money to restore a liquidity shortage, but by doing so, the value of the pound will depreciate.

Government Intervention and Managing the Exchange Rate

- **Changing Interest Rate**

Changing the interest rate can change the demand for money because high interest rates attract foreign investors to domestic investments. Foreign investors will need to change their currency before investing and thus will demand the domestic currency and push up the demand for the domestic currency.

- **Influencing Foreign Exchange Market**

If the central bank buys its own currency then this would reduce the supply of the currency in the foreign exchange market. The value of the currency will also rise. Equally, by selling the currency, the central bank increases the supply of the currency and this would equally increase the value of the currency.

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Consequences of Devaluation and Depreciation

An economy can gain international competitiveness by devaluing or depreciating its currency, which makes their goods appear cheaper on the international market. For this reason, some countries deliberately attempt to devalue their currency in order to boost their exports. This is often done by countries pursuing an export-led growth strategy.

However, as was the case in the 1930s, if a large proportion of countries followed this strategy, it would appear more competitive. Instead this would lead to a decline in world trade.

Impacts of Changes in the Exchange Rate

- **Current Account of the Balance of Payment**

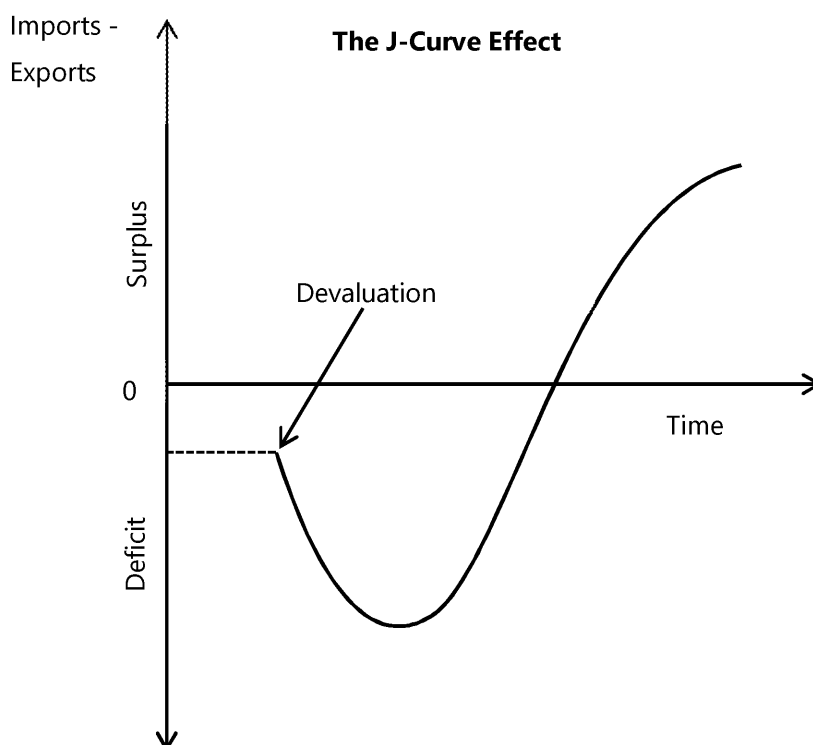
A devalued or depreciated currency will increase international competitiveness, making domestic goods appear cheaper in relation to other countries. As a response, the demand for domestic goods will rise and the demand for imports will fall as domestic consumption is switched to domestic goods. This will reduce any current account deficit a country may have and potentially push it into a surplus.

Marshall Lerner Condition

The Marshall Lerner condition states that there will be an improvement in a country's current account following an intervention, only if the total sum of all the elasticities of all the imports and exports is equal to or greater than 1.

J-Curve Effect

If firms have a high price elasticity of supply, because they are fixed into contracts, they will be slow to change their production, then they will be slow to change to the new level. Similarly, consumers may have inelastic demands for imports, or foreign consumers may have inelastic demands for exports because of habitual behaviour, for example, and will be slow to change their consumption. When the pound depreciates, the theory says exports should fall and imports rise, which would worsen the current account deficit. However, high elasticities mean the number of exports sold and imports bought will change, so that the value of exports falls and the value of imports rises, which would worsen the deficit, but as people and businesses adjust, the number of exports sold will increase and the number of imports bought will fall, and the deficit will be improved. The J-Curve effect explains that the current account deficit initially worsens but then it improves due to these inflexibilities and adjustment time lags.



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- **Economic Growth and Unemployment**

If the exchange rate changes such that a country's goods become more competitive, there is a boost in their exports and domestic demand as people swap to buying their goods. Industries will increase production in order to meet this new demand, thereby creating more jobs and higher employment levels through the increased demand for labour.

If an economy's goods become less competitive, then there would be a decline in demand leading potentially to negative growth, and unemployment could begin to rise.

- **Rate of Inflation**

If the exchange rate changes such that the pound depreciates, then imports will become more expensive. This will increase the costs of production for those firms that import raw materials for production. This will then consequently push the price up, leading to inflation. Equally, the increase in demand created from the increase in exports will also cause inflation.

If a country's currency appreciates, then they may experience falling inflation rates or even negative inflation, particularly if they are reliant on exports.

Ev

The exchange rate is an important factor in the current account of the balance of payments.

- **FDI Flows**

If the exchange rate falls, then it will be cheaper for foreign companies to invest in the country. This would attract more Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) into the economy. On the other side, if the exchange rate appreciated, then it would be more costly for foreign firms to invest. As a consequence, FDI flows will fall.

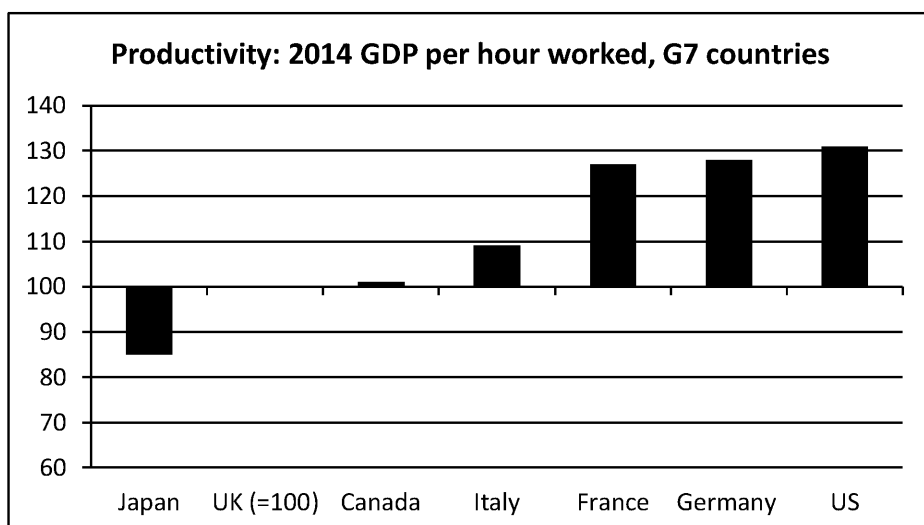
International Competitiveness

Competitiveness is the ability of a country or firm to compete and provide the best quality at the best price. Although it is mainly based on price factors, consumers will also consider quality of services and will choose the producer that provides the best option, so will choose to buy from the most *competitive*.

Measures of and Factors that Influence International Competitiveness

- **Relative Unit Labour Costs (Productivity and Wages)**

The unit cost of labour depends on two things: the cost unit of labour, i.e. the wage rate, and the productivity of labour, i.e. how much labour a firm would need to employ to produce a certain amount of output. If wages are low, then the unit labour cost will be low, and if labour is relatively productive, then the unit labour cost will be low, and thus labour costs will be cheaper. The lower the unit labour cost, the more competitive a country will be. The graph below shows how the UK's productivity per hour worked compares with other G7 countries in 2014:



Source: ONS

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- **Relative Non-wage Costs**

There are other factors that can affect a firm's costs of production other than wages. A country may have strict environmental regulations which are costly to implement. A country will be less competitive due to their increased costs. There may be other factors such as employment protection schemes, or requirements to provide a pension. Taxes such as VAT or those aimed at reducing negative externalities, will also affect a country's competitiveness.

- **Relative Rate of Inflation**

Almost all countries experience inflation (rising prices) and, therefore, it is the rate of inflation that is important. If Country A's price were rising quicker than Country B's, then Country A's prices would be greater in comparison. Country A would become less competitive than Country B and would not purchase their goods.

Benefits and Problems of International Competitiveness

- + **Greater Exports**

A country that is more internationally competitive will have comparatively cheaper goods on the world market. This will increase a country's exports and reduce imports. Exporting firms will create more jobs.

- + **Increased Aggregate Demand = Job Creation and Economic Growth**

An increase in exports will increase aggregate demand. An increased aggregate demand will lead to economic growth. Although initially growth and job creation will be found in the export sector, the injection of income will flow into the rest of the economy causing widespread job creation.

- + **Improve a Current Account Deficit**

An increase in exports and a decrease in imports (because domestic consumers switch from imports to consuming domestically produced goods) will elevate any deficit and improve the current account.

- **Worsen a Current Account Surplus**

If a country has a trade surplus, then becoming more internationally competitive will worsen the surplus because exports will increase to a higher level and imports will decrease.

- **Increased Aggregate Demand = Inflation**

If goods become more competitive then exports will increase and thereby push up aggregate demand. Increased aggregate demand can increase prices and cause inflation.

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Questions: International Economics (Part 2)

1. What are the four accounts in the balance of payments?
2. List and explain four causes of...
 - a) current account deficit
 - b) current account surplus
3.
 - a) Explain three measures that a country can take to reduce a country account deficit
 - b) What problems might arise from each of these measures?
4. What is a...
 - a) floating exchange rate regime?
 - b) fixed exchange rate regime?
 - c) managed exchange rate regime?
5. List and explain three factors that influence a floating exchange rate
6. Explain two ways a government can manage an exchange rate
7.
 - a) What might a depreciation or devaluation in a country's currency do to a country's current account?
 - b) What does the Marshall Lerner condition state?
 - c) What is the J-curve effect?
 - d) What three other impacts might a depreciation or devaluation have?
8.
 - a) What is meant by international competitiveness?
 - b) What three factors influence a country's international competitiveness?
9. Explain three benefits of being internationally competitive
10. Explain two costs of being internationally competitive

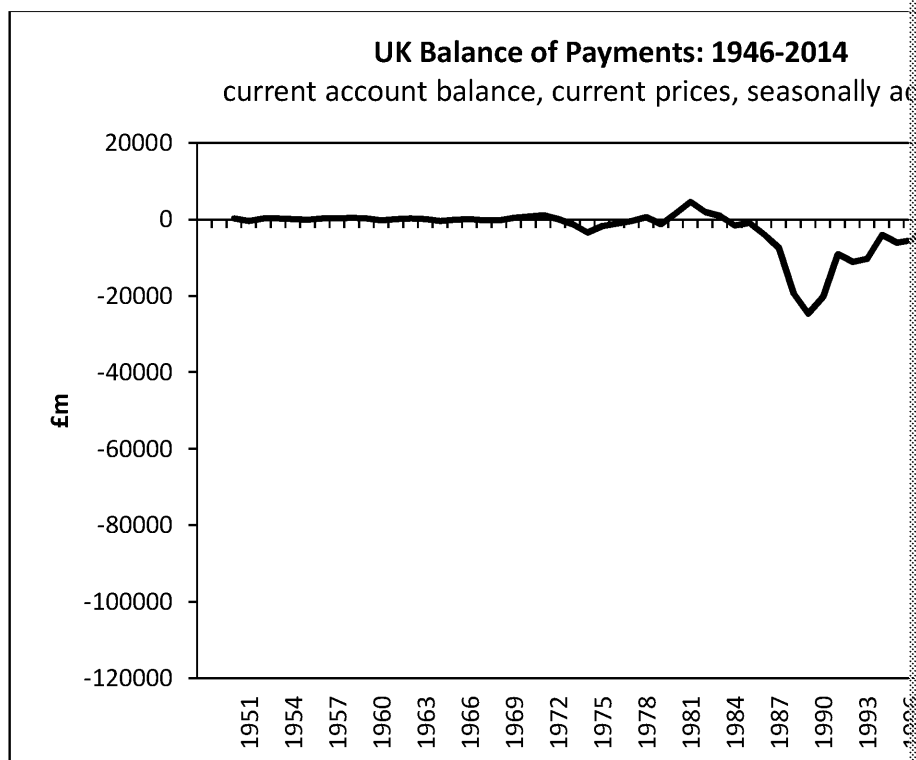
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Exam-style Questions (1): International Economics

1. The chart below shows the UK balance of payments on the current account based on current prices.



- a) Explain the trend in the UK balance of payments over time.

.....

.....

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.....

- b) The chart shows data in current (nominal) prices. Explain the effect this may have on the balance of payments given the trend for price levels to rise over time.

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2. Define a **floating exchange rate** system.

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3. Explain, with reference to the **J-Curve**, how a currency devaluation might initially make payments on the currency account *worse*.

4. Explain **one** possible **disadvantage** of globalisation.

5. Explain how a non-tariff barrier can restrict trade without the use of tariffs, quotas or exchange controls.

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Poverty and Inequality (1)

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

- Absolute and relative poverty
- Wealth inequality and income inequality
- Measures of inequality
 - The Lorenz curve
 - The Gini coefficient
- Causes of inequality
- How capitalism and economic change might affect inequality

Absolute and Relative Poverty

Absolute Poverty occurs when a person has an inability to afford basic needs. This is true for all countries regardless of differing living costs.

Relative Poverty occurs when a person has relatively less in relation to others in a country.

Measures of Poverty

Absolute poverty is often measured by a boundary; if a person earns below the boundary, they are in poverty. Although the margin varies over time, due to inflation, most economists think that the boundary is around £10,000 per year.

Relative poverty, however, is not a definite measure. The level at which a person is considered to be in relative poverty varies across countries because the average wage in each country is different. In the UK, people are considered to be in relative poverty if they fall below 60% of median income.

Median Income

Median income is the 'middle income'; this differs from the mean and gives a more accurate picture of the average income earned, especially when dealing with data sets that have a large range of values. For example...

In a neighbourhood of seven people, the lowest earner earns £10,000 and the highest earner earns £85,000. Below lists the wages of the seven workers in the neighbourhood in order of lowest to highest income.

Person:	1	2	3	4	5	6
Income:	£10,000	£20,000	£25,000	£40,000	£50,000	£85,000

The median income is £40,000, but the mean income is £68,500 (to the nearest £100). This is because person 6, who earns £85,000, is far above the rest. Relative poverty is defined as being below 60% of the median income, which is £24,000. Person 1 and person 2 would be considered to be in relative poverty.

Causes of Changes in Poverty

A country's absolute and relative poverty levels can vary with economic growth. When a country grows, it will bring money into the economy, meaning some people's incomes will rise, although not everyone will benefit even distribution and so the difference between the poorest and richest may grow. Economic development can also change poverty levels. Economic development is more likely to reduce poverty levels than economic growth would. Because assets provide asset ownership, economic development in asset price will change income levels and thus poverty levels. The government can reduce poverty by providing benefits to those on low income levels and taxing those on higher income levels. The difference between the two is the gap between the two.

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Inequality

Wealth Inequality vs Income Inequality

Income is seen as a flow of money. It is the money that flows from person to person, e.g. wages in exchange for labour or rent in exchange for letting a property.

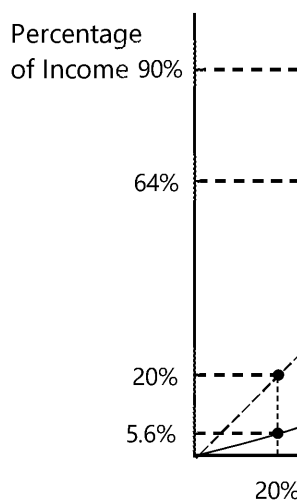
Wealth is seen as a stock of money as it is kept or stored. Wealth can be in the form of assets such as houses (assets). It may have built up from wages or investment returns, but it is the money that a person holds.

Therefore, income inequality is the differences between the flow of money between people; whereas, wealth inequality is the differences between the stocks of money.

Measures of Inequality

Lorenz Curve

The Lorenz curve is used to show the distribution of wealth in a country. It plots the cumulative income against the cumulative population. What this means is that each percentage along the axis has been added on to the one before. So you start at 1% of the population, and you plot how much income they have as a percentage of the whole income earned in the economy. Then you plot the next 1% along, this adds to make 2% and includes the first 1% and the second 1%. So when you plot the income that this 2% earns, you would look at both the income the first 1% earned, plus the percentage of income the second 1% earns.



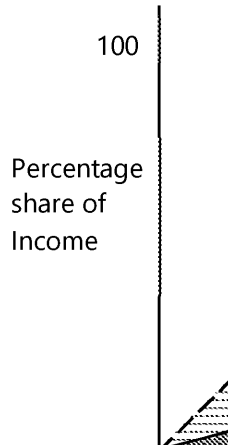
ACTIVITY

Watch this video on the income inequality in America; the ideal perception and the shocking reality:

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

A completely equal economy would have everyone earning 10% of the income; because if 10% of the economy, the other 90% of the population by the other 90% of the population. In a perfectly equal economy will earn an extra 1% of the income. The 45 degree (dashed) line drawn on the graph shows a perfectly equal progression.

The solid curve shows the actual percentage of income each percentage of the population earns. As shown on the diagram, 20% of the population should be earning 20% of the income, however, they actually only earn 5.6% of the income. This shows there is income inequality because they have far less than they should have. 90% of the population should earn 90% of the income in the economy, however, 90% of the population (a large majority) only earns 64% of the income, that's just over half for what is nine-tenths of the economy. This means the top 10% earn 36% of the income. That's almost a third of the income earned by the whole economy which goes to only 10% of the population. The closer the curve is to the 45 degree line, the more equal the distribution of wealth is in that economy.



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Gini Coefficient

The Gini coefficient is a number that is calculated from the Lorenz curve and allows comparison according to inequality levels. It is calculated using the area between the 45 degree line relative to the whole area under the 45 degree line. The smaller the area between the Lorenz curve and the 45 degree line, the more equal the society and the smaller the coefficient.

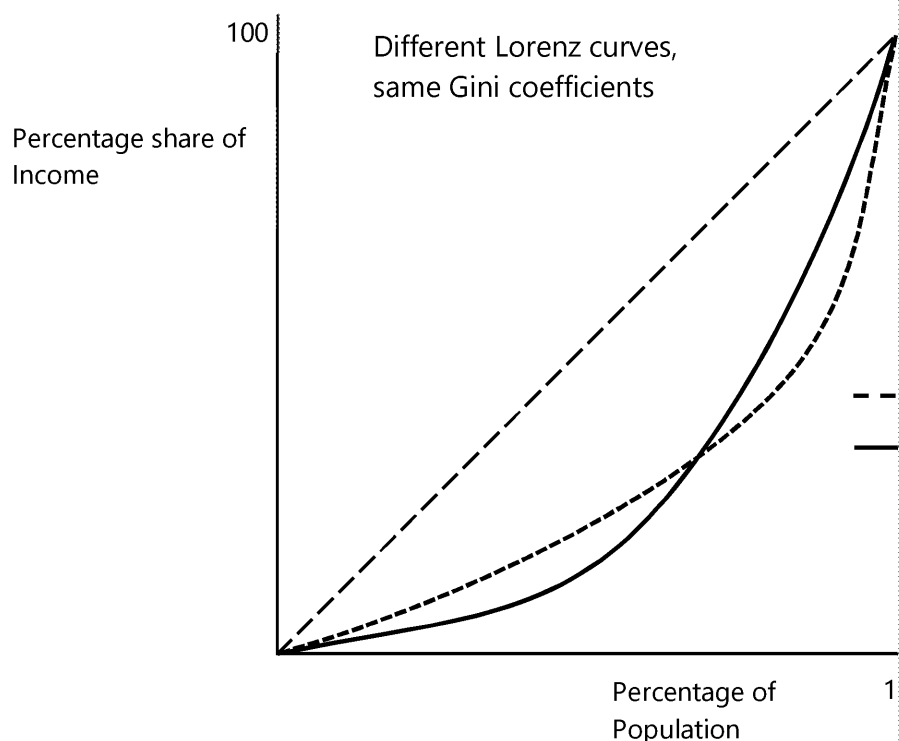
$$\text{Gini Coefficient} = \frac{\text{Area A}}{\text{Area A} + \text{Area B}}$$

The resulting Gini coefficient can theoretically range between 0 and 1. The closer to 0, the lower the level of inequality of wealth.

In reality, Gini coefficients for individual countries tend to range between 0.2 and 0.5. For example, the Gini coefficient for the United Kingdom is 0.38. This is higher than Norway (0.24).

Limitations of the Gini coefficient

The Gini coefficient has its critics, however. Consider the following diagram. Both countries have *exactly the same Gini coefficients* despite having different Lorenz curves. This is because the area between the Lorenz curve and the 45 degree line is identical despite the curves having different shapes. The result is that two countries with different income distributions can have the same Gini coefficient.



Another problem with the Gini coefficient is that countries have different approaches to measuring income. Some look at income per *household*, others look at income per *person*, for example. These sorts of differences make the Gini coefficient less meaningful when making comparisons between countries.

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Causes of Income and Wealth Inequality Within and Between

- **Education and Training (Human Capital)**

Labour with greater human capital will have a higher price and so will because it generally costs to improve skills through education and training will demand a higher wage to compensate for the costs. Equally, the supply and the level of human capital increases and thus the price increases; for example, people who have a degree than there are who have GCSEs and so graduate. Those workers with an increased human capital will have a higher wage to obtain a job with a higher income. Equally, those countries that have policies will have workers with less human capital and lower incomes than those with higher human capital.

- **Wage Rate (Minimum Wage)**

A minimum wage (if set correctly) ensures workers earn above the absolute minimum with a national minimum wage rate will generally have less inequality than those without a minimum wage rate.

- **Strength of Trade Unions**

Trade unions can help provide workers with the bargaining power to increase wages and reduce any income inequalities.

- **Degree of Employment Protection**

Employment protection policies can protect workers from low wage rates that may be inefficient to sustainably cover living costs.

- **Social Benefits**

Social benefits can be given to support those in absolute or relative poverty. A social or welfare system can thus close the gap between the poor and the rich earners by providing for those at the bottom end of the range.

- **Progression of the Tax System**

There is much debate among economists on the effect of progressive taxation levels. On one hand, the theory is that by increasing the tax levels for the top range of income earners can be restricted and the money collected from the top can be used to the low earners in order to bring the two ends closer together. However, another theory is that this will disincentivise people to work for promotion and increase their wages. Equally, some believe that increasing the tax for high income earners will reduce the incentive to avoid tax. Tax revenue overall will fall and only those wealthy accountants (the high income earners) will avoid tax, and those that cannot avoid taxes will be left paying higher taxes to make up for the fall in tax revenue. This will discourage foreign firms from entering and investing in the country. Firms will look to cut costs elsewhere, such as wages, in order to pay the taxes. This can change the inequality levels within a country or can explain the differences between countries.

- **Pension Entitlements**

Pensioners no longer have a steady income, as they are retired. A lack of pension can push some people into poverty. If a country has a pension scheme for its retired workers, then it can prevent pensioners from falling into poverty and reduce its inequality levels.

- **Ownership of Assets and Inheritance**

Wealth, due to its characteristics, tends not to trickle through the economy to the same households. Assets are passed to relatives via inheritance and are unlikely to own assets. This is especially noticeable as those who are poor are unable to afford assets.

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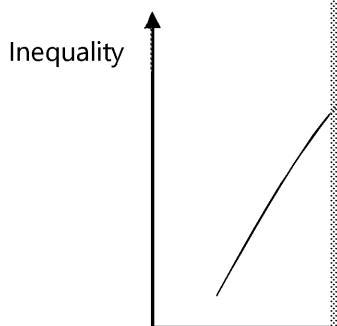


How does Economic Change and Development Impact Inequality?

Simon Kuznets was an economist born in Belarus who studied economic growth. He hypothesised that initially, as an economy grew, inequality would increase, but as economic growth would result in increased development and reduce inequality. This is shown on the diagram to the right (now known as the Kuznets curve).

Initially, as an economy grows and GDP increases, poverty falls as everybody is at the same low level and so income flowing into the economy is distributed evenly across everybody. Industrialisation starts.

However, those who have the knowledge, ability, skills and/or the chance to become entrepreneurs, in other words those who are at the forefront of industrialisation, will have greater incomes than those with less opportunity or ability. The income coming into the economy will be unevenly skewed towards the 'risk-taking' business people and firm owners. Inequality will be high. As income and national income grow, but growing more in the pockets of the rich than the poor, inequality will increase. From a business perspective, it is advantageous to give the majority of the workers as little as possible to resource of production (workers). It is, therefore, inevitable that inequality will be any more than the bare minimum.



Learn More!

Some famous economists on inequality and capitalism include Thomas Piketty, Adam Smith and Karl Marx. Research them and their theories.

Visit <http://www.adamsmith.org/> and be sure to look on the 'research', 'news' and 'blogs' sections for up-to-date articles.

Once the economy has grown, the government will have gained more resources from taxes and can implement a welfare benefit system to support the poor. It is possible to implement cost-effective policies to provide equal opportunities. As the economy is on the downward curve, and now with economic development, and inequality will be reduced.

Capitalism and Inequality

Free markets need motivations to improve and incentives to seek to maximise profits and utility. This motivation keeps the economy turning to maintain income flowing and drive the economy forward. Generally, the opportunity cost of working (which would be giving up spending time on leisurely activities) is high. Without the benefits of working (which in the most basic sense is an income), most people would not choose to work. Some people may experience other benefits and utility from working, such as being useful, fulfilling a sense of duty, bettering oneself through increasing skills, or choosing to work. But, a greater number of people will choose to work only if providing the opportunity to increase that wage and gain promotion, work longer hours, work harder and improve skills through education and training, expanding their knowledge and enjoy learning, however, for most people, the primary motivation to go to school and acquire qualifications is the reward of greater opportunity to obtain a higher wage.

ACTIVITY

Watch the video 'Corporate Corruption' and think in a creative way about the relationship between inequality and the economy. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=...>

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is also a legal requirement to stay in school to a certain age and hence people ensure the economy keeps producing the goods and services people require. If people want services people desire, the economy or government either needs to provide them or enforce it (through legal obligations and laws); a free market economy could not do this.

Because people have differing skills, capabilities and to some extent differing needs, there will also be unequal incomes individually provided depending on the requirements of a worker to satisfy these. Hence, in a free-market, capitalist economy, there is an uneven distribution of income and, therefore, income inequality. However, income inequality, in itself, does not necessarily translate as unfair. When opportunities are unequal, it creates barriers to social mobility and causes unfair inequality, which some see as a constraint to economic growth. Opportunity inequality prevents people from moving up and tends to prevent those who start off with little from attaining high-income. Income inequality slows and 'blocks' money from trickling down, and so people tend to remain in their financial position as where they started. This is when inequality becomes a barrier and those who may wish to change their situations are unable to.

Wealth can create income and so wealth owners will find their wealth grows as they can invest that can be rented out and the rent increasing the landlord's savings. But, income is not spread across the economy or flow easily between economic agents and so it is not like just like monopolistic markets with high sunk costs, it is difficult for those without wealth to gain wealth (enter the market). Hence, wealth inequality can be a social barrier.

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Questions: Poverty and Inequality

1.
 - a) What is absolute poverty?
 - b) How is it measured?
2.
 - a) What is relative poverty?
 - b) How is it measured?
3. How do wealth and income differ?
4.
 - a) Plot two Lorenz curves using the data below and include the 45 degree

Country A	
Percentage of the Population	Percentage of Income
10%	5%
20%	10%
30%	15%
40%	25%
50%	35%
60%	45%
70%	55%
80%	65%
90%	80%

Country B	
Percentage of the Population	Percentage of Income
10%	3%
20%	5%
30%	10%
40%	15%
50%	20%
60%	30%
70%	40%
80%	50%
90%	70%

- b) What is the equation for the Gini coefficient?
 - c) Without calculating, which country would have a higher Gini coefficient?
 - d) Which country has higher levels of inequality?
5. Explain five causes of inequality within countries
6.
 - a) Draw the Kuznets' curve
 - b) Explain the relationship economic growth has on inequality depicted by

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Emerging and Developing Economies

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

- Measures of development
 - HDI (Human Development Index)
 - Other measures
- Factors affecting growth and development
- Strategies influencing growth and development
- International Institutions and NGOs

Measures of Development

- **Economic Growth** measures the change in size of an economy as measured by GDP
- **Economic Development** measures the quality of a country in terms of the standard of living in that society and welfare is.

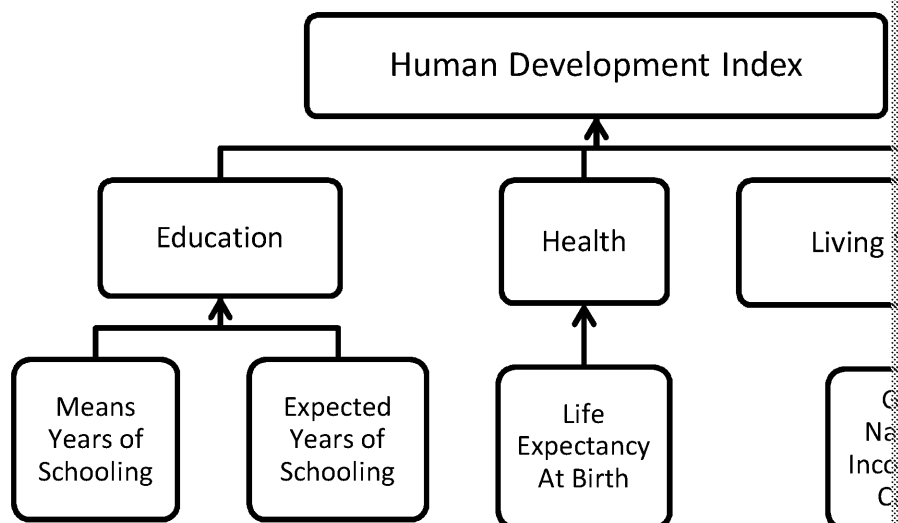
How do they differ...?

Development and growth differ in terms of what they are concerned with, the variables. Production is better at showing the size and value of an economy. Literacy rate is better at showing the quality of a workforce. There is often a link between both; although the exact relationship is debated and does not always hold. Increasing economic growth will result in increasing economic development. A country that is growing has more income flowing around and this income can be used to improve the quality of life of society, such as funding job creation or providing more goods and services. There is more money going into the government which can then be redirected to schools and hospitals for example.

Human Development Index (HDI)

1. **Education:** Mean years of schooling for an adult aged 25 and expected years of schooling for school entrants
2. **Health:** Life expectancy at birth
3. **Real GNI per capita:** Adjusted using purchasing power parity

The measures come together to create an index value between 0 and 1. Countries are ranked according to how developed they are, 0 being less developed and 1 being more developed.



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Advantages and Limitations to HDI

- + It is multidimensional as it combines economic growth measures with suitable for showing development.
- + It allows for easier comparison and ranking between countries
- Does not take into account inequality, only looks at the mean average
- Does not take into account ecological or environmental consideration

QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

Understanding composite indicators.

A requirement of the quantitative skills element of the course is the understanding is the most common and most important of these.

A key idea is that HDI is unitless: it is an *index*, composed of various factors as shown can only be interpreted, therefore, as a means for comparison with other countries.

The HDI is a geometric mean of the three components (education, health, and living standards). You need to calculate composite indicators in your exam. However, the formula for HDI is not required. You understand it:

$$HDI = \sqrt[3]{Life Expectancy Index \times Education Index \times Income Index}$$

Top 10 Countries in 2014	
Ranked by HDI	Ranked by GDP per capita
1. Norway	1. Monaco
2. Australia	2. Liechtenstein
3. United States	3. Luxembourg
4. Netherlands	4. Norway
5. Germany	5. Qatar
6. New Zealand	6. Switzerland
7. Ireland	7. Australia
8. Sweden	8. San Marino
9. Switzerland	9. Denmark
10. Japan	10. Sweden

The table to the left shows the top 10 countries in the world ranked by HDI and by GDP per capita. The lists are quite different. In the world as determined by GDP per capita, the top 10 countries as ranked by HDI are quite different.

Source: United Nations/World Bank

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Other Development Indicators

- **Economic Indicators (GDP, GNI, GNP)**

Economic indicators can show development because there is often a correlation between economic growth and development. By measuring the national income in an economy, it can show whether the economy is expanding and improving. However, economic measures are not always a good indicator of development because there is no guarantee a large economy has a high standard of living standards and quality of life.

- **Inequality (Lorenz Curve and Gini Coefficient)**

The problem with economic measures and development measures alike is that they only show averages. Averages may appear at good levels, but they can be unrepresentative if there is a minority that measures extremely low. When looking at people and not figures, these masked groups are significant. The Lorenz curve and Gini coefficient attempt to account for the range of income. The proportion of the population actually are and aren't represented by the averages.

- **Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index (IHDI)**

IHDI attempts to take into account the damaging effects of inequality on development. If the averages that were calculated according to the inequality levels within a country are high, then the averages will be lowered in order to account for this.

- **Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)**

MPI looks at poverty from a versatile point of view. It goes beyond a simple income perspective and looks at a wide variety of measures, such as sanitation, health, and education. It shows whether the incomes are high enough to afford luxury items, and whether a country has a high access to technology which can improve production purposes.

- **Mobile Phones**

By looking at the number of mobile phones there are per 1,000 people, the level of technological development can be determined. This can indicate the level of development and whether the incomes are high enough to afford luxury items, and whether a country has a high access to technology which can improve production purposes.

- **Access to Clean Water**

Clean water is a basic human right and the accessibility can show the level of development. If a country has access to clean water, this indicates a country's level of development.

Factors Influencing Growth and Development

- **Primary Product Dependency**

Primary product dependency refers to countries whose main bulk of exports are primary products (raw materials) such as wood or coal. This can limit growth for countries that rely on primary products generally have little return, hence why they are sometimes referred to as 'commodity traps'. This means the value of exports is very low and there will be little income flowing into the economy. Secondly, commodity prices fluctuate, which causes economic instability. Aggregate demand and exchange rate and can create economic instability. Equally, primary products are income elastic, so as world income changes, the demand for these products changes.

- **Volatility of Commodity Prices**

Commodity price volatility can create economic instability from inflation and deflation. Producers varying revenue. This will deter potential investors in the country. Countries gaining the influx of income they may need to grow and develop.

- **Harrod-Domar Model (Savings Gap)**

The Harrod-Domar model explains that there are two factors that affect the development levels of a country: the savings ratio and the capital-output ratio. The savings ratio looks at the efficiency of capital to produce goods; the more goods and services a country can produce and so the quicker it will grow. The level of savings in a country. The higher the savings ratio the easier it is to invest and then firms can borrow to invest and grow.

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- **Foreign Currency Gap**

Developing countries may suffer from a foreign currency gap. This is where the payments deficit (on the current account) is higher than capital inflows. These countries are heavily dependent on exports (perhaps coffee beans or oil).

- **Capital Flight**

This is when investors move their capital from investing in one country to another. This can happen for a variety of reasons. For example, taxes in the original country may increase, so the return on investment will fall and as a response investors may move their capital elsewhere. Perhaps there is political and economic instability and so investors move to a more stable country. As a consequence of capital flight, a country's currency will fall and the exchange rate will rise; equally, as money leaves an economy it may begin to contract and have restricting effects on growth and development.

- **Demographic Factors**

One aspect of demography is the age distribution of a population. Countries with a young population are likely to be restricted in growth rates because a lot of the population is outside the working age.

- **Debt**

If countries are spending money to repay old debts, then they are unable to invest in growth or development policies. Debt repayments represent an outflow of funds. The nominal value of the debt is less relevant, the sustainability of the debt is more important. An economy's ability to afford it. This is why debt is often measured as a percentage of GDP.

- **Access to Credit and Banking**

If the people within a country do not have access to capital or the ability to borrow, then they will not be able to protect and grow their wealth, or take out loans. Lack of accessibility can prevent a country from growing and developing.

- **Infrastructure**

Infrastructure determines the ease at which resources can be moved around a country. Poor infrastructure will prevent businesses from transporting their goods, therefore preventing them from acquiring the resources they need for production, therefore preventing growth in manufacturing. These barriers will prevent a country from developing a strong economy.

- **Education and Skills**

Education and skill can improve human capital. Countries who invest in education and skill will find their growth and development rates will increase as the quality of the workforce improves.

- **Absence of Property Rights**

Property is often used as collateral when somebody takes out a loan. If a country does not have the right to a property, then this may prevent them from obtaining a loan, which will restrict growth and development rates may suffer.

Non-Economic Factors

Non-economic factors affect the country's ability to manage and regulate the economy and reduces growth levels. These factors can include corruption, poor governance, wars, political instability, geography, distribution of resources (resource curse) and landlocked countries.

- corruption
- poor governance
- wars
- political instability
- geography
- distribution of resources (resource curse)
- landlocked countries

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Strategies Influencing Growth and Development

A lot of the strategies discussed in this section are recaps of previous topics.

- **Market-Orientated Strategies** are strategies where the government attempts to promote growth and development, rather than the government directly changing the market.
- **Interventionist Strategies** are strategies where the government takes a more active role in manipulating the market, the government will simply change the market conditions.

Market-Orientated Strategies

- **Trade Liberalisation**

By reducing trade barriers and liberalising trade, it is hoped a country will be able to grow and benefit from an increased market. More consumers means more demand, which can increase their production and create inflows of income into the economy. This can increase job creation and lower unemployment, which in turn will benefit the economy (due to the increase in incomes) and improve development and growth.

- **Promotion of FDI**

Foreign multinational companies can bring an inflow of money into a country, which can boost economic growth and development. If a foreign MNC invests in a country because maybe the tax rates are low, then the theory is they will offer jobs and higher incomes that will go to boost the economy.

- **Removal of Government Subsidies**

By removing a subsidy, industries that were once protected by state intervention will now be open to global competition. Inefficient industries will collapse as they are forced to compete against foreign firms. In the long run, it is hoped that removing subsidies will improve resource allocation as the resources that were tied up in inefficient industries, or the resources spent on protecting these industries, will be freed up for more efficient industries that will provide more revenue and higher growth. If an industry collapses and another begins, there will be structural unemployment, which can hinder growth and development. Imports will rise if domestic consumption is not met by domestically produced goods anymore, and this could cause or worsen a trade deficit. However, the money that the government isn't spending on subsidies can be used elsewhere, such as supporting those who lost their jobs from the decline of an industry, or for growth and development policies.

- **Floating Exchange Rate Systems**

Countries that have spent money on artificially keeping their currency at a fixed value will benefit from changing to a floating exchange rate. This is when they allow their currency to appreciate and depreciate in line with change in demand and supply. The currency will depreciate from its artificially high value and there will be an increase in exports and fall in imports. This inflow of money will boost the economy.

- **Microfinance Schemes**

Microfinance is a way for people to loan a small amount of money to fund other people's investment projects. It is often aimed at people who have little access to banks and funding, to help promote their innovation and entrepreneurship. By providing finance to those who lack the ability and opportunity, a country can find a positive impact on its growth and development levels.

- **Privatisation**

Privatisation can make an economy more efficient. Equally, any resources the government had spent on the organisation can now be spent on development and growth policies. The private firm that took on the company can now grow and profit, which will be taxed and add to the inflow of money to the government.

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Interventionist Strategies

- **Human Capital**

By improving human capital a country can increase the productivity and thus increasing GDP and economic growth. Equally, the more skilled a workforce, the more likely industries that produce complex and highly skilled products. This in turn will bring in higher revenues and greater incomes for the country.

- **Protectionism**

Protecting industries will protect the jobs of those within the industry. For sunset industries can ensure critical goods will still be produced and produced in the domestic market. Without these goods, living standards may fall. Protecting industries can allow a market to gain a comparative advantage and then expand into this market and economic growth rates will increase.

- **Managed Exchange Rates**

A government can manage an exchange rate by changing the demand through interest rate changes. By doing this, a government can depress and stimulate exports. The inflow of income from greater exports can increase rates.

- **Infrastructure Development**

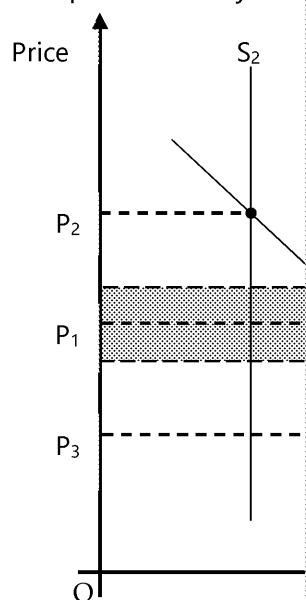
The economy works like your body might; every little component has a part. Small changes in these components can have significant effects to the whole. The infrastructure is like the veins and arteries, it allows the economy to transport resources. Poor infrastructure will add inefficiencies and time delays, which only add barriers to economic growth. Equally, crumbling buildings and infrastructure have effects on living standards and quality of life. So, improving and investing in infrastructure will improve the economy and surroundings.

- **Promoting Joint Ventures with Global Companies**

By promoting the engagement of global companies, a country can benefit from foreign direct investment which can inject money into the economy for infrastructure, bring new jobs and provide employment and incomes to the people who work there. This will not only boost growth rates through increased aggregate demand, but also increase living standards as people will be able to afford the goods and services they require.

- **Buffer Stock Schemes**

Agricultural goods and commodities are subject to price volatility. This means that in some years they will have very little income and they cannot always plan ahead for investment as they do not know what returns they will have in the future. This can be detrimental to an economy, especially one that has a large agricultural sector, as this not only will affect the balance of payments and output of an economy, but also the farmers are other businesses' consumers and if their incomes are low, it can have knock-on effects for other markets. Buffer stocks are designed to mitigate these fluctuations and allow farmers the ability to plan, invest and grow. To show how this works, we will use the example of corn (see graph). One year there may be a bumper harvest, the supply



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curve would be at S_3 and the price would be at P_3 . This is below the 'floor' price, the minimum income for farmers to meet their basic needs and cover their costs. The government will buy corn in order to reduce supply to S_2 and bring the price back up to P_2 . There may be a shortage of corn; perhaps there was particularly bad weather. If the supply curve moved back to S_1 and price at P_2 , this is the government's chance to sell the corn bought from the previous bumper harvest. Selling the stored corn will bring the supply back to S_1 and the price back down again to be within the set limits. This also allows the government to intervene on the market for consumers to buy corn and at a price they are able to pay.

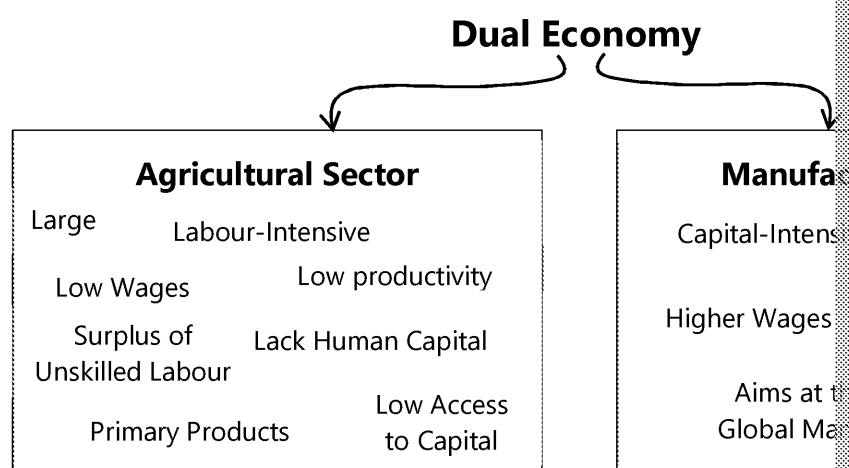
Other Strategies

- **Industrialisation**

Industrialisation is the idea that a country develops its sectors from a low-return agricultural sector to a higher-return industrialised sector. Industrialised markets tend to produce goods that bring in higher revenues, which results in higher value added and less volatile prices. This increase in the value of goods should boost living standards and provide better living standards through more advanced goods and services.

- **The Lewis Model**

William Arthur Lewis came up with a development model to explain how a country moves from being agricultural to becoming industrialised. He believed countries with low levels of capital and labour. This he meant the economy would have a large agricultural sector and a small manufacturing sector. The model of a dual economy assumes the agricultural sector was labour-intensive with unskilled labour, and that the manufacturing sector had higher wages and was capital-intensive. It predicted that workers from the agricultural sector would be attracted to move to the manufacturing sector. The firms in the manufacturing sector would undertake expansionary projects. As more people joined this sector, leaving the agricultural sector with less labour, it grew, the manufacturing sector would expand as the agriculture sector would become industrialised.



- **Tourism**

The tourist industries tend to require more labour-intensive work than manufacturing, which means countries with low levels of capital, but that are 'labour abundant'. Holidaymakers present an inflow of money into an economy as they consume goods and services. They tend to have slightly more inelastic demand curves.

EVALUATION POINT

Tourism can present negative externalities. For example, tourists can damage the environment through litter and increased travel. Airports not only represent an increase in CO_2 emissions but also traffic congestion at airports. Resources (such as clean water) are sometimes provided to tourists at a cost.

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- **Fair Trade Schemes**

Often, developing countries are unable to compete on the global market due to the market power of developed countries and their protective policies. The WTO aim to reduce protective policies in order to provide developing countries the chance to fairly trade their goods and services.

EVALUATE

Fair trade resource'.
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- **Aid**

Supporters of aid believe money given to countries can be spent on development to improve growth and development rates. However, critics of aid believe policies that appeal to the public but are actually inefficient at improving living standards. There are different types of aid:

Humanitarian aid = things given in times of emergency, such as temporary relief for natural disasters

Grants = money given ('free of charge') to fund projects

Soft loans = money given with the intent to be paid back, usually at a lower interest rate

- **Debt Relief**

Countries that have borrowed money may find they are unable to pay back. In the 1980s and 90s 'debt crisis'. Countries with high repayment costs will find it difficult to spend money on development and growth policies because they are instead paying these loans back will mean government can put the money into other areas.

Role of International Institutions and Non-Government Organisations

World Trade Organisation (WTO)

What is the role of the WTO?

Formerly known as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the WTO came to be in 1995. Their role is to police the international market. Their main aims are to increase competition on the global market through completely free trade between countries.

The WTO attempts to provide support to developing nations and allow them to expand and develop through trade. However, they try to take into account the needs of developing countries. The WTO also aims to stay within acceptable social and environmental bounds and allow trade to be fair and acceptable. They endeavour to function with complete transparency.

How do they achieve their aims?

The WTO provides a place for trading nations to discuss and negotiate the rules of trade. From this, trade disputes can be resolved and legally-bound rules can be created.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

What is the role of the IMF?

The IMF was set up in 1945 after World War II. It was created in order to provide loans and finance to countries which needed the funds to rebuild after the devastating destruction the war created. Their original aim was to prevent the disastrous consequences experienced from the Great Depression in the 1930s. Nowadays they aim to assist countries to obtain macroeconomic stability and to reduce poverty worldwide.

Learn More!

To learn more about the IMF, visit their website at <http://www.imf.org>

How do they achieve their aims?

The IMF collect data on all sorts of variables from all across the world. They use this data for data analysis and to provide economic forecasts. From this, the IMF can warn countries about economic shocks and provide policy advice. As well as advice, they also provide loans to help countries overcome economic difficulties. They also provide concessionary loans, which are loans that are given at a lower interest rate, to help reduce poverty in developing countries.

World Bank

What is the role of the World Bank?

The World Bank Group started after the World Wars and is made up of five institutions. When people refer to the World Bank, they mainly refer to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Association (IDA). The World Bank Group also includes: International Finance Corporation (IFC); Multinational Guarantee Agency (MIGA); International Centre for the Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID). The World Bank's aims are to end absolute poverty, which they measure as earning less than \$1.25 a day, and to increase the wages of the poorest 40%.

Learn More!

Scroll about half way down the page and click the link below and you are able to learn more about the World Bank Group. Visit <http://www.worldbank.org>

The World Bank also publishes global data. Have a look at the link: <http://data.worldbank.org>

How do they achieve their aims?

They, like the IMF, also collect and analysis global data and provide policy advice. To help increase living standards, the World Bank invest in projects that improve education, health and natural resource management. They also provide low interest-free loans to help countries in need funds.

NGOs

A non-governmental organisation (NGO) can be organised over a local, national or international level. Although there may be a 'governing body' to manage the organisations, they are not controlled by the government (as the name hints) and they are not profit motivated, they are non-profit organisations. Some examples can be seen below:

- Oxfam
- Greenpeace
- Wikimedia Foundation
- Amnesty International
- NSPCC
- RSPCA

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Questions: Emerging and Developing Economies

1. What are the three measures in the Human Development Index?
2. Name and explain four other indicators for development.
3. Name and explain five factors that influence growth and development.
4.
 - a) What are market-orientated strategies?
 - b) Can you describe five market-orientated strategies?
5.
 - a) What are interventionist strategies?
 - b) Can you describe five interventionist strategies?
6.
 - a) What is a dual economy?
 - b) Explain the how a country industrialises using the Lewis model
7. There are other methods a country can adopt to develop...
 - a) Evaluate the use of tourism as a strategy for development
 - b) How do fair trade schemes affect development?
 - i. What is the negative of fair trade schemes?
 - c) Explain two other strategies for development
8.
 - a) What is the WTO?
 - b) What are the WTO aims?
 - c) how does the WTO achieve these aims?
9.
 - a) What is the IMF?
 - b) What are the IMF aims?
 - c) What is the role of the IMF in achieving these aims?
10.
 - a) What is the World Bank?
 - b) What are the World Bank aims?
 - c) What is the role of the World Bank in achieving these aims?

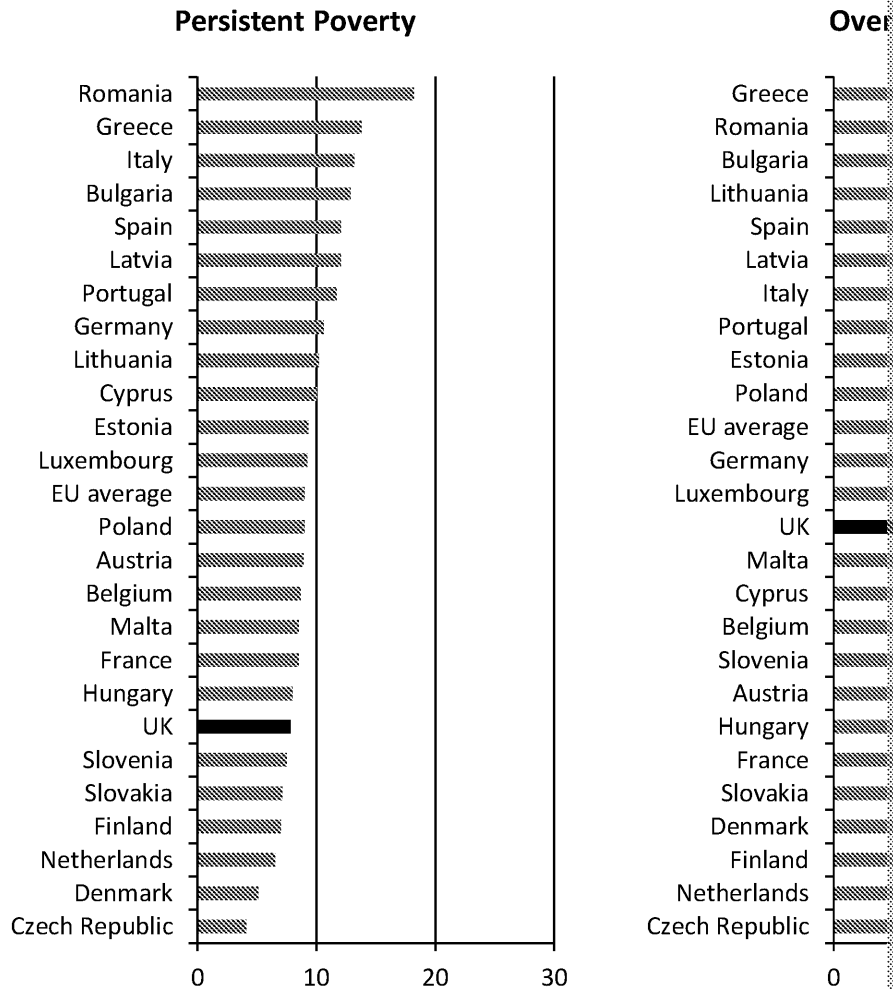
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Exam-style Questions (2): Poverty and Inequality, Deve

1. The two charts below show the **persistent poverty** rate and the **overall pov**. In this case poverty refers to relative low incomes. **Overall** poverty is defined less than 60% of the median in that country. **Persistent** poverty is defined as year and at least two years out of the three years before that. The data used 2008 and 2013.



Which one of the following can be inferred from the set of charts?

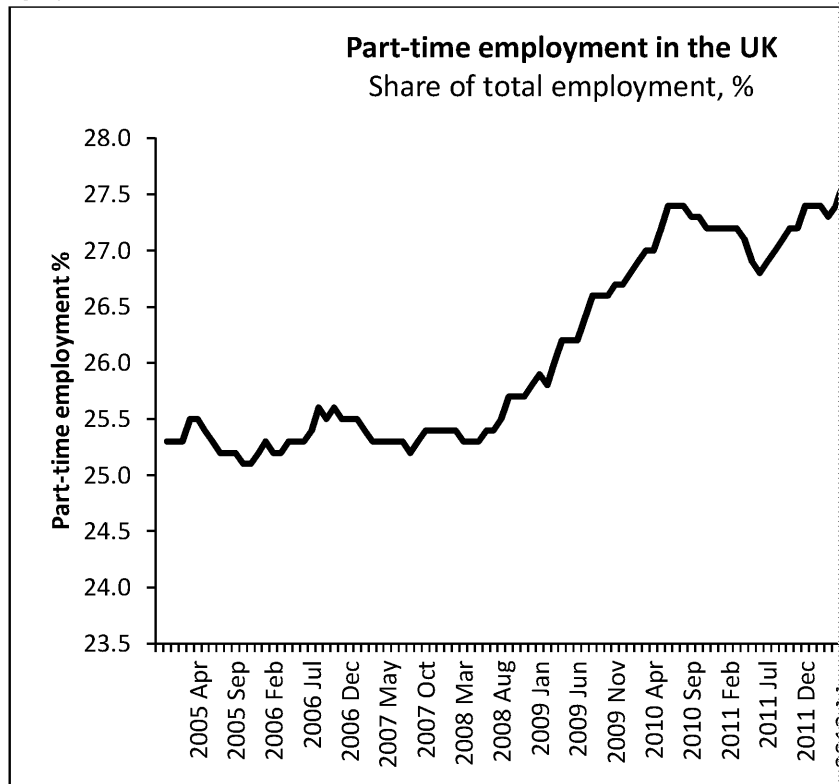
- A The UK has a better *persistent* poverty rate **and** *overall* poverty rate compared to the time period analysed.
- B The Czech Republic has the worst poverty in both measures analysed over the time period analysed.
- C The UK has a better overall poverty rate compared to persistent poverty rate over the time period analysed.
- D Romania and Greece tend to have the worst poverty across both measures over the time period analysed.

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2. The chart below shows the percentage of total people in employment that is time work.



- a) Which one of the following can be inferred from the chart?
- A Part-time work as a percentage of total employment steadily increased.
 - B The share of part-time work remained constant after the 2008 financial crisis.
 - C Part-time work as a share of unemployment remained between 25% and 26% during the period shown.
 - D More people are employed in part-time work than in full-time roles.
- b) With reference to the chart, explain how a changing balance between part-time and full-time work might affect inequality.

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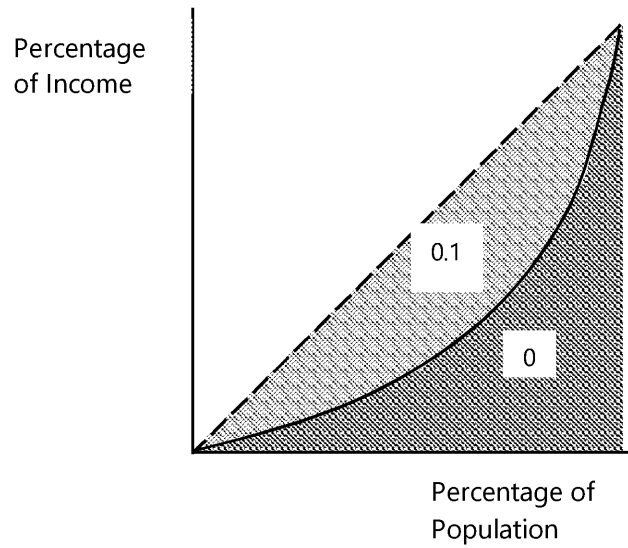
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3. The diagram below shows the Lorenz curve and the line of complete equality



- a) Calculate the Gini coefficient for the economy. You are advised to show

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- b) Explain one possible measure that a government could put in place to re

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4. Explain how the Lewis model explains the industrialisation process using a du

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The Financial Sector (4)

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

- The role of financial markets
- Market failure in the financial sector
- The role of central banks

Role of Financial Markets

For your exam, you only need to have a basic understanding of the role of financial market is tricky to think about because the good that is being bought and sold is money. You use money to buy money – it is an abstract concept. But, like a generic service, the financial market has people (producers) who are able to supply people who require and are willing to purchase the money (consumers). The market operates to allow those who are willing to purchase the money to find and willing to supply it.

Those willing to supply the money are those with excess money, who earn interest. The excess could sit around in their homes and just build up in piles, but they can invest in projects and earn more from it; businesses tend to invest their money in expansionary projects. The financial market is a place that facilitates saving, a place to lend to the businesses and individuals that may need to borrow, and it provides a place for them to borrow funds. Money is sold on the financial market in the form of shares, bonds, equities and many more. The financial market is the place where money can be traded as well as currencies and commodities. .

Market Failure in the Financial Sector

Before starting this section, have a look through your notes from Theme 1 on market failures. In this section we will look at these failures at a macro-level, with a focus on the financial market rather than a market for any goods or services.

Asymmetric Information

Asymmetric information occurs when there is imperfect information within a market. One party has more information on a product than another party. In the financial market, lenders may have imperfect information on the people they are lending to and, as a result, may not make informed decisions. Equally, regulators may have less information than banks and may not be able to secure and stabilise the banking system.

Externalities

The consequences of an unstable or collapsing financial market will have ripple effects on the whole economy leading to losses in the form of money and potentially even a recession. For example, in order to prevent the collapse of the Royal Bank of Scotland in 2008, the government decided to bail out the bank for \$45 billion, which was mostly paid for by taxpayers. This was a problem that originated in the financial market.

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Moral Hazard

The government bailed out the banks after the 2008 financial crisis. This has sent a 'wrong message' as it removes the incentive for banks to ensure their practices do not lead to further crashes in the future because banks know they can take high interest rates and the government will step in if the investment doesn't work out.

Speculation and Market Bubbles

A market bubble is the word to describe a market that is growing and 'inflating' when it shouldn't. Market bubbles will inevitably burst, and the ones that have burst in the past, the bubbles that have inflated to such a large degree, will have drastic consequences. The US housing market was a market bubble that was blown up through the actions of banks. US banks would lend money to homeowners regardless of their ability to repay. Banks would do this because they believed there was lots of money to be made from the housing market when the bubble eventually burst because borrowers were unable to pay back their loans. The sub-prime mortgage market collapsed. This had disastrous consequences for the housing market and sparked off the 2008 financial crisis.

Market Rigging

Market rigging is similar to collusion; it occurs when two or more parties in a market collude to prevent the market from functioning as it should. They do this because by rigging the market, they are able to make more money than they would have had the market functioned normally. It is believed that some bankers are involved with rigging when it comes to interest rates.

Role of Central Banks

- **Implementation of Monetary Policy**

You may need to read back to Theme 2 in order to refresh yourself on the way in which the Bank of England (which is the UK's central bank) changes the interest rates that we as consumers face, by changing the interest rate which they offer to commercial banks. One role of the central bank is to monitor and manipulate the economy through the use of monetary policy tools, such as interest rates and money supply.

Learn More!

Read the Bank of England's role and responsibilities about their role and responsibilities.
<http://www.bankofengland.org/monetarypolicy/other/money>

- **Banker to the Government**

The different departments within a government will need an account to deposit their money and from which to withdraw their funds. The central bank acts as a banker to the government and, like a commercial bank to people, is able to provide the government with short-term loans if they need.

- **Banker to Commercial Banks**

Because commercial banks lend their depositors' deposits to borrowers, they need to borrow money from somewhere in order to provide the depositors with their money. The central bank sets an interest rate at which it will lend to commercial banks. Commercial banks will then set a higher interest rate when it lends to borrowers (otherwise they would lose money). The central bank is also the 'lender of last resort'. By this it is able to provide liquidity problems and have no other option, they are able to borrow money from the central bank in order to get out of trouble.

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- **Banking Industry Regulator**

Usually, the central bank governs the banking system. In the UK it is the Financial Conduct Authority (FCA), who work in conjunction with the Bank of England. The regulation is in order to keep stability within the banking market and the central bank requires that the commercial banks must keep reserves. This is the money that is put in from depositors. The bank then lends this money to borrowers. A proportion of this money within the bank is given to depositors who make deposits. The central bank could change regulations and require that commercial banks keep more reserves. Although you do not need to know all the regulations that the central bank has, a question in your exam could ask you to analyse the potential effects of a change in regulation.



Questions: The Financial Sector

1. What are the four roles of the financial market?
2.
 - a) How does asymmetric information present a problem in the financial market?
 - b) What is market rigging?
 - c) Explain three market failures in the financial sector
3.
 - a) What is the role of the Bank of England to the government? (You may need to know this for the exam)
 - b) What are the two roles the Bank of England takes in the banking industry?
 - c) What policy does the Bank of England implement?
 - i. What are the two tools the Bank of England uses to implement this policy?
 - ii. How are each of these tools used?

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Role of the State in the Macroeconomy

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

- Public expenditure
 - Factors that affect public expenditure
 - The impacts of high levels of public expenditure
- Market failure in the financial sector
- The role of central banks
- Taxation
- Public sector finance macroeconomic policies in a global context

This section builds from the content you learnt in Theme 2; you will now need to analyse public expenditure more thoroughly and be able to analyse the macroeconomic impact of public expenditure.

Public Expenditure

Current expenditure is the government's regular, everyday expenditure. This is for the money has been spent, the good has been used. Examples of current expenditure include paying service employees, electricity bills for street lighting, paying for the maintenance of roads, and for the NHS.

Capital expenditure is long term investment by the government that will improve the country's PPF. This expenditure is good for promoting growth and development. For example, building or expanding schools and hospitals will improve the quality of the workforce by improving the health of workers, and as such will increase the maximum productive potential. Or spending on a project to resurface the roads would improve the transport of goods, thus increasing the capabilities of an economy to produce goods and services.

Transfer payments are payments that are given by the state to individuals but with no services in return. Transfer payments would include job seeker allowance, or employment support for those unable to work due to illness. They are often used as a way of supporting society.

Factors That Change the Size and Composition of Public Expenditure

- **Incomes**
As incomes change, the demand for some services and goods will change. Generally, as people demand state-funded services. For example, people may instead switch to private care rather than using the NHS. Equally, less people may need state financial support, so expenditure may fall with rising incomes.
- **Age Distribution (Demographic)**
People of different ages have different needs and wants. Countries with an ageing population have higher levels of expenditure on health-care services. Countries with a current baby boom have higher payments will increase.
- **Expectations**
This can refer to expectations of both the government itself and of the public. If the government expects expenditure on health-care services because they forecast an ageing population, the goods and services provided can alter the level and composition of expenditure. For example, more should be spent on unemployment benefits but more should be spent on improving infrastructure. The government is likely to change the amount it spends on these factors in order to meet these expectations.
- **Financial Crisis**
Many governments found they had large and persistent fiscal deficits due to a combination of factors: because the level of expenditure increased due to higher levels of unemployment, and also the level of tax revenue decreased, because consumption and wages fell. Governments had to borrow money and now a larger proportion of their expenditure is spent on interest payments.

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014/1986-
curve-01.htm](https://www.federalreserve.gov/econres/notes/foml/014/1986-07-14-laffer-curve-01.htm)

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2023.01.001>

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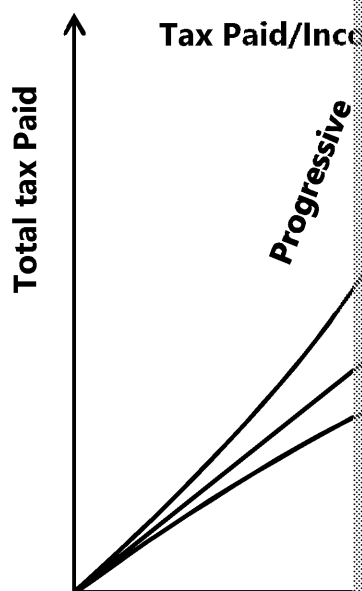


Taxation

Proportional Taxes are constant level taxes that do not change by income level of the taxpayer. They are also known as 'flat taxes' because taxpayers will pay, for example, 10% of their income whether they earn £1,000 (and pay £100) or they earn £100,000 (and pay £10,000).

Progressive Taxes are taxes that vary depending on the level of income somebody earns; this then means that the percentage of the tax changes with differing income levels. So, somebody earning £1,000 would pay 10% income tax (£100), but somebody earning £100,000 would pay income tax of 30% (£30,000).

Regressive Taxes are taxes that result in charging low-income earners more than high-income earners. For example, a government may impose an environmental tax on fuel in order to reduce the negative environmental externalities. However, it is generally low-income earners who will purchase old cars because they cannot always afford the new, greener cars. Therefore, low-income earners will pay more in fuel tax.



Further your economic knowledge... Assessing the Types of

Proportional taxes can be seen as a fair system because the rate is the same and between income levels. There are fewer bureaucratic procedures with progressive taxes, making them easier to understand and cheaper to administer. They are much harder to evade. If everyone is taxed the same percentage and so claiming you are earning less doesn't make sense. It is believed they don't discourage or disincentivise working like proportional taxes. Proportional taxes penalise workers for increasing their incomes. This means people are less likely to work harder if their increased wages are pointless, and so they are less likely to feel they want to work harder.

However, proportional taxes are quite regressive in reality and can have a bigger impact on lower-income earners. Progressive taxes address this issue. The idea is that those on lower incomes pay less tax and therefore pay less tax. Those on higher incomes are more able to pay taxes. Progressive taxes attempt to redistribute income and correct income inequalities. One criticism of progressive taxes is that they can discourage people from attempting to increase their income, making people feel disgruntled or fined for 'working harder'.

Regressive taxes are often implemented to correct other market failures but are regressive as lower-income earners are likely to face more than higher-income earners. This will worsen income inequality.

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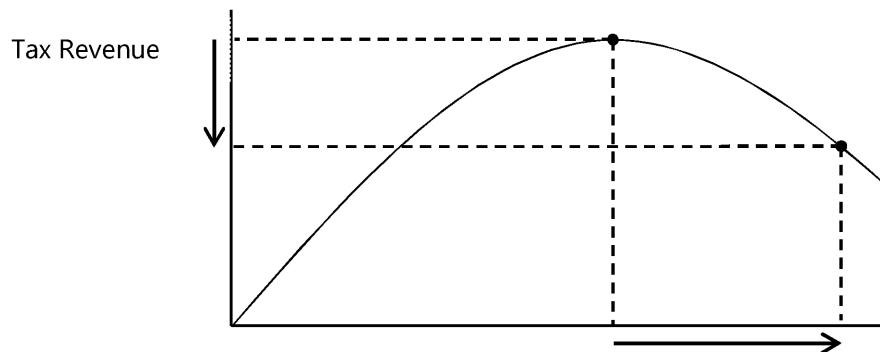
Impacts of Direct and Indirect Taxes on...

- **Incentive to Work**

Some people may be put off working longer hours, or getting a job with high taxes mean they will be taxed higher. Therefore, increasing taxes may create encourage people to work less or remain unemployed.

- **The Laffer Curve (Tax Revenues)**

The Laffer curve describes a negative parabola relationship between tax revenue and the tax rate. As the tax rate will increase the amount of tax revenue the government receives, increasing tax revenue will only disincentivise people to work and encourage means tax revenue will decrease from an increase in tax rate beyond this point that will provide the highest tax revenue.



- **Income Distribution**

Progressive taxes can be used to correct uneven distributions of incomes, this that is raised from the tax goes towards benefits and payments to lower-income

- **Real Output and Employment**

Taxes are a leakage from the circular flow of income. Therefore, higher taxes deflate and economic growth rates will fall. A deflating economy will mean employment because firms will cut back production in order to compensate for the increased tax could discourage people from entering the labour market, or even encourage market. This will mean the employment rate will fall, and in turn growth rates be seen by an inward shift in the PPF.

- **Price Level (Inflation)**

Higher taxes would increase the costs of production and firms will respond by on the burden of the tax. If this happens countrywide, then this can cause inflation price spiral as workers ask for higher wages to cover the costs of goods. Equal workers will have less disposable income and may ask for higher wages in order increased taxes, which will lead to inflation as firms increase prices to cover the

- **Trade Balance**

Increasing direct taxes will reduce the level of disposable income that people people will have less to spend on imports and thus imports will fall. This could However, if firms increase their prices to cover tax costs, then their goods will international market.

- **FDI Flows**

Lowered tax levels will entice foreign firms and multinational corporations to foreign direct investment (FDI) flows can inflate the economy and increase growth in the tax rate will deter foreign firms from entering the country because their

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Public Sector Finance

Make sure you know the difference between...

Fiscal Deficits occur when the money raised from taxation is lower than the money the government spends. This means the government is losing or spending more money than it is gaining or receiving.

National Debt occurs when the government has borrowed money, often to fund a deficit. A persistent deficit can lead to increasing debt problems.

Automatic Stabilisers are 'countercyclical' responses that occur in an economy without the government's intervention. For example, during a boom, people's incomes will rise and unemployment will fall, which means that taxes will increase and government spending on benefits will fall. These changes occur automatically as a response to a boom, which then limits the effects of the boom and hence the term 'automatic stabilisers'.

Discretionary Fiscal Policies are response policies that the government sets in order to correct economic or market problems. Discretionary fiscal policies, unlike automatic stabilisers, have time lags from the bureaucratic and democratic procedures that are involved with creating and implementing these policies.

Cyclical Deficits occur due to the economic cycle. Because during a downturn tax revenue falls and spending increases due to falling incomes and rising unemployment, it is likely the government will find their spending increases beyond their tax revenue during certain cyclical periods and should be corrected once the economy starts to recover and head for a boom.

Structural Deficits are fiscal deficits that remain even when the economy is in a boom and working at full capacity. This represents a bigger problem than a cyclical deficit.

EVALUATE

If taxes decrease then the government's deficit will increase. However, this depends on the size of the deficit and taxes, the size of the deficit and the size of the government's spending. A decrease in taxes may only lead to a small increase in the deficit, or it may not be a problem for the government.

Factors Influencing the Size of Fiscal Deficits

- **State of the Economy**

If the economy is in recession, it is likely the government will run a fiscal deficit. Workers' wages will fall, and so they pay less income tax, but further to this, many will be made redundant and they won't pay income tax but the government will have to increase unemployment benefits. Due to the reduced wages and low expectations, companies will receive less tax from taxes on goods and services too. Lastly, people have cut back their spending and so the government will receive less from VAT.

- **Housing Market (Stamp Duty)**

Houses are very expensive and so a lot of tax revenue is collected from stamp duty (on the purchase of a house). If the housing market is going well or booming, then the government will receive more tax revenue which should offset a deficit, or at least help reduce the size of the deficit. If the housing market is stagnant, then few houses will be sold and the government will receive significantly less tax revenue, which could cause a fiscal deficit or increase the size of the deficit.

- **Political Priorities**

The government may wish to pursue particular policies, such as spending on infrastructure, which could increase spending and be likely to increase the size of a deficit. Equally, there may be a desire to reduce taxes which would mean the government has less money coming in.

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Factors Influencing the Size of National Debt

- **Fiscal Deficit**

Because fiscal deficits can lead to national debt, the factors that affect the size of the deficit affect the size of the national debt. The size of the deficit affects the deficit the greater need there is to borrow and the bigger the increase in

The Significances of the Size of the Fiscal Deficit and National Debt

- **Lower Living Standards**

If countries have a high level of debt, they have a lot of debt interest to pay back. The interest from tax revenue will be spent on paying off the debt instead of being spent on the education sector. Large debt level, therefore, can reduce the living standards. To reduce a large deficit, governments may reduce spending, which will have similar effects on living standards.

- **Credit Rating**

The greater level of debt a country has, the less likely it is to pay it back. This is because the money the economy makes from the goods and services it produces is measured against GDP. The country will have a lower credit rating and, much like a loan from a bank, the lower their credit rating the less able they are to obtain a loan. A bank will charge a higher rate of interest to 'insure' against the higher risk, so it will cost more money.

Macroeconomic Policies in a Global Context

The Impact of Fiscal, Monetary, Exchange Rate and Supply-side Policies

This section visits the topics discussed previously in this theme and examines the impact of each policy. It has been marked which sections link; check back through your notes and try to read the linked sections first to refresh your memory and add to your knowledge.

Fiscal Policy

Fiscal policy was used 'casually' before 2008 and didn't play an active role in controlling the economy. This is seen as quite a classical approach as classical economists believe there are automatic adjustments that exist within the economy that supersede fiscal policy. However, when it came to the '08 financial crisis the government responded in a Keynesian manner and took a more involved approach with fiscal policy. By using an expansionary fiscal policy of increased spending and reduced VAT to encourage consumption, the government attempted to stimulate the economy out of the recession.

Monetary Policy

Monetary policy is determined by the Bank of England and its purpose is to maintain stable changes in interest rates and money supply. However, it is very difficult to know the state of the economy. This is due to many factors, such as the vast quantity of money that is in use, money that is 'floating around' in bottoms of bags and jeans pockets, and the money that is not declared.

Supply-side Policy

Supply side policies are designed to increase an economy's long-run aggregate supply potential. They have wider effects of increasing development and improving living standards but have extremely long time lags to take effect. Supply-side policies are the only policies that are believed will increase production (in the long run) without causing inflation. According to supply-side theory, aggregate demand will only push up the price level.

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Reducing the Fiscal Deficit and the National Debt

If the government wishes to make changes to the fiscal deficit and national debt, it can use a variety of tools, such as changes to the fiscal policy instruments. Because deficits occur when government spending exceeds revenue, the government could decrease its spending or increase the tax rate in order to reduce the deficit.

Deficit reduction policies are called 'austerity' measures. From an economic point of view, there is a trade-off between deficit reduction and economic necessity. However, in reality society and living standards can fall because of them. Hospitals and schools, take large cuts, and living and production costs increase.

Reducing Poverty and Inequality

Poverty and inequality can be reduced using a wider range of policies. From a fiscal perspective, the tax system can be made more progressive so the poor are taxed only a little but high taxes are levied on the rich. Equally the government can provide benefits to those who need them in order to reduce poverty.

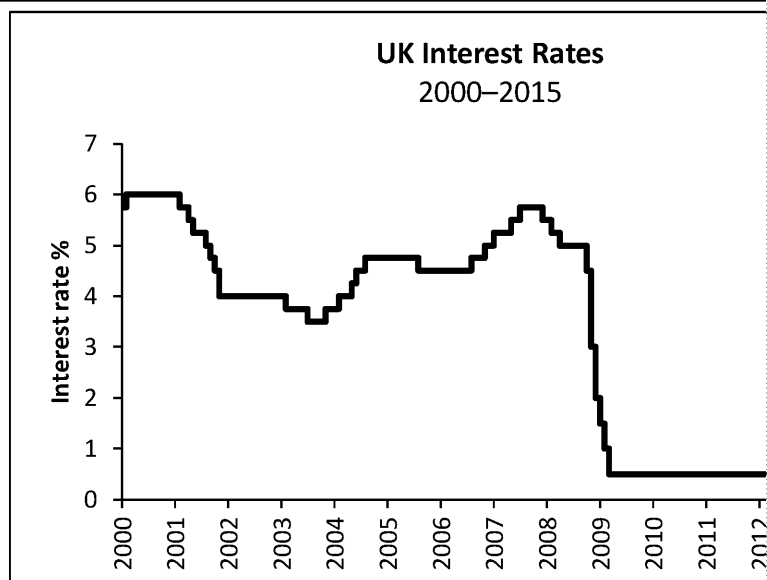
To reduce poverty, the government can provide free education so everybody has the human capital they need to obtain higher paid jobs. This is a supply-side policy that targets the low social-economic groups. Other supply-side policies, such as free health care, will help those who may not be able to afford their basic needs.

Learn More!

The UN has set global goals to reduce poverty, inequality and increase living standards. These are the Millennium Development Goals. If you'd like to read more about their aims and objectives, visit the link below:
<http://www.undp.org/mdg/>

The link below has up-to-date articles on the progress and success of some of the goals. Visit the link below:
<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/>

Interest Rates and the Money Supply



Source: The Guardian, 2015

The graph above shows how the UK interest rate has varied in recent years. The effect of interest rates on the economy is a key tool to stimulate the economy is often debated. Here are some of the contrasting views.

Monetarists (and classical economists) differ greatly from Keynesians when it comes to monetary policy and the influence money supply and interest rates have on GDP and employment.

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Monetarists and classical economists believe a government is able to increase the money supply to increase aggregate demand. This, they believe, happens because the demand curve is downward sloping. This means an increase in the money supply will only increase the surplus of money. As a result, people will spend it. Increased consumption, from the increased supply of money, increases demand and the economy will expand production, creating an increase in GDP.

Monetarists differ, however, from classical theory as they do not believe the economy is at full employment. The Quantity Theory of Money states an increase in the money supply will cause inflation. Monetarists believe in the short run an economy can be operating at less than full employment. An increase in aggregate demand will only cause inflation in the long run. This is why they suggest to promote growth without causing an inflationary consequence in the short run.

Keynesians do not believe there is a 'direct' link between money supply and the price level. This is because the economy is not at or near full capacity (remember the Keynesian argument). They agree there may be a link between the supply of money and GDP, but not in the short run. Keynesians believe an increase in the money supply means banks will have more money and are more easily able to offer loans. This ease in loaning money will mean interest rates fall and businesses are more likely to borrow to consume and invest. Ergo, increased aggregate demand. However, Keynesians are very doubtful of the use of money supply and interest rates. This is because households have very inelastic demand curves with respect to interest rates and there is no guarantee that more borrowing will mean more if interest rates fall. This, they believe, is particularly noticeable in a recession where confidence is low (Keynes' Animal Spirit). Keynesians also suggest that increased money supply may mean an increase in the number of loans provided because banks instead may just be less willing to lend to risky ventures.

Increasing International Competitiveness

Increasing international competitiveness can be done using a range of policies. Such as to increase productivity through, for example, increased education and training for workers. This means more goods and services can be produced using the resources available. This means that average costs will fall.

Changing taxes can reduce a firm's costs of production as well, which is a fiscal way to increase competitiveness. Equally, trade barriers on exporting companies, or companies that export, can decrease costs and price of UK goods relative to other countries.

Exchange rate policies can also be used to increase international competitiveness. A depreciation in the currency will mean goods will be more competitive on the international market. Under a flexible exchange rate regime, the government can devalue the currency to appear more competitive.

Use and Impact of Macroeconomic Policies to External Shock (Price Stability)

External shocks are events that have occurred outside of the economy, but have an impact on the economy. For example, the 2008 financial crisis started as an event outside of the UK economy but had a major impact on the UK economy. It was triggered by a collapse of the US sub-prime mortgage market, but it affected all economies.

Changes in oil prices can have very significant impacts on all economies because oil is used for a wide range of goods, good for both domestic and manufacturing purposes. If oil prices rise, an economy will experience inflation as oil is a cost of production. Equally, there is a social impact behind rising oil prices. It means we have to heat our homes, cook our food, drive our cars, rising oil prices mean living costs will rise and reduce their ability to afford the costs.

Price stability has increased along with the increase in globalisation; however, this is not necessarily a causal relationship, i.e. the pattern similarity is coincidence and a change in one thing has caused the change in the other. There is also great debate over whether globalisation has reduced a country's ability to control the economy.

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The 2008 financial crisis has shown us that a globalised financial market can create and a single government was unable to prevent the recession. External shocks affect and weaken a domestic governing body's ability to control their economy.

Some believe globalisation affects the Phillips curve. The Phillips curve trade-off shows that at levels of employment (near full capacity) would have rising inflation if it attempts to increase employment because demand for labour is rising, but supply of labour is falling. Because products are sourced from anywhere in the world, there is less need for firms to offer higher wages because they can source labour from the world labour market. This means firms' price elasticity of supply will be high and the Phillips curve will flatten (at levels close to domestic full employment, the economy can increase production by instead employing foreign labour).

This pool of international labour, it has been argued, can create uncertainty for policies originally built using the values of domestic output and domestic supply of labour. The economy is actually determined by the values of international output and international supply, which is less easy to measure. Although more and more mobility barriers are removed, some barriers remain, such as relocation costs and language barriers, which prevent complete free mobility of labour. This creates structural unemployment within an economy, meaning there can be pockets of excess demand or excess of excess demand for labour across the country, but mobility barriers prevent these from being equalised. It is unlikely a large supply of international labour will affect a domestic economy too much as it has desirable benefits, such as lowering inflation and increasing an economy's growth.

According to the Classical view, long-run aggregate supply is static and unchanging. To manipulate the economy in response to economic change, the central bank or government must manipulate aggregate demand to meet aggregate supply. Aggregate demand is already susceptible to change through international trade of exports and imports. There are concerns that the global economy is becoming more and more influential in the domestic economy, which the government has no control over. Through domestic consumption through tax rates and interest rates, it can manipulate investment and savings. It can directly control government spending; however, it has no sway over foreign investment and savings.

The central bank manipulates demand by changing money supply. However, it has no control over the financial market, that shifts huge quantities of currency, has a bigger effect on money supply. The actions of the central bank are simply 'drops in the ocean' of global liquidity supply.

There is only debate, with no concrete conclusion over whether a globalised economy can control a domestic economy or not. It can be noted that policies adopted in one country can have an effect on other countries. Equally globalisation has eased the spread of economic shocks, but it can damage domestic markets. From this perspective, globalisation has impacted the economy, but it does not mean governments are unable to react to the shocks and regain control.

Controlling Global Companies

Global companies spread across international borders, and as such they have no one government to control and monitor them. However, the governments of the countries they are running operations in have control for the operation involved in that country.

Governments can implement policies that ensure global companies use the resources (such as labour) rather than employ resources from overseas. This means the economy will benefit from the effects, such as wages and skills.

Governments will face limits to their ability to control global companies. This can be because they are spread across international borders. In other words they are 'footloose' and able to move operations at relatively low costs.

Transfer pricing is another issue with global firms that are often comprised of several countries. Goods and services may be sold between their subsidiary companies for a profit. This becomes a concern if the goods and services are moved to avoid or lower the amount of tax paid.

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whole. Corporation taxes are generally only paid on profits. The accounts might be for a company based in high corporation tax areas record losses – resulting in lower overall profits. A company based in tax havens (countries that have low corporation tax) would record higher profits and pay a much lower amount of tax on these profits and the company as a whole can be more profitable. This can occur even if the vast majority of goods and services are bought and sold in a high tax country. The government of that country loses out on revenue.

Problems of Applying Policies

There are many problems that policymakers encounter when creating and enforcing policies. Policies need to be built on correct models using up-to-date data. If the data collected is outdated or used do not reflect reality, then policymakers will be ill-advised and create policies that are not good.

There are often a lot of uncertainties within economics. This is because economic behaviour is unpredictable and is, therefore, somewhat unpredictable. These uncertainties can mean that policymakers choose the best policy.

Globalisation, as discussed before, means it is becoming harder for countries to deal with economic shock. Policymakers can be caught unaware by contaminating crises from overseas and may not implement the right policy. This is especially noticeable as large economic shocks occur. Unfortunately there are time lags involved with not only creating and choosing policies but also their implementation.

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Questions: Role of the State in the Macroeconomy

1. What is...
 - a) capital expenditure?
 - b) current expenditure?
 - c) a transfer payment?
2. What four reasons (or factors) are there that may change the size or composition of public expenditure?
3. What is the effect of public expenditure on...
 - a) productivity and growth?
 - b) living standards?
 - c) crowding out?
 - d) taxation?
 - e) equality?
 - f) national debt?
4. What is...
 - a) a progressive tax?
 - b) a proportional tax?
 - c) a regressive tax?
5.
 - a) Draw a Laffer curve
 - b) Using the curve, explain the effect of changing the tax rate on the tax revenue
6. Explain five other economic effects changing tax rates have
7. Can you distinguish between
 - a) automatic stabilisers and discretionary fiscal policy?
 - b) fiscal deficits and national debt?
 - c) structural deficits and cyclical deficits?
8. What three factors influence the size of a fiscal deficit
9.
 - a) What two things are impacted by fiscal deficits and national debts, explain
 - b) What policies could a government adopt to reduce fiscal deficits and national debts?
10.
 - a) What policies do Keynesians and Monetarists advocate?
 - b) According to monetarists, what is the relationship between money supply and GDP?
 - c) Keynesians oppose monetarists, what do they believe the relationship between money demand, inflation and GDP is?
11. What policies could a government adopt to...
 - a) reduce poverty and inequality?
 - b) increase international competitiveness?
12.
 - a) What issues do global companies pose?
 - b) What two limitations do governments encounter when attempting to regulate global companies?
13. What three problems do policymakers face when applying policies?

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Exam-style Questions (3): The Financial Sector and the

1. Explain how a high level of public spending might lead to **crowding out** of investment.

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2. Explain how a **proportional** taxation system works.

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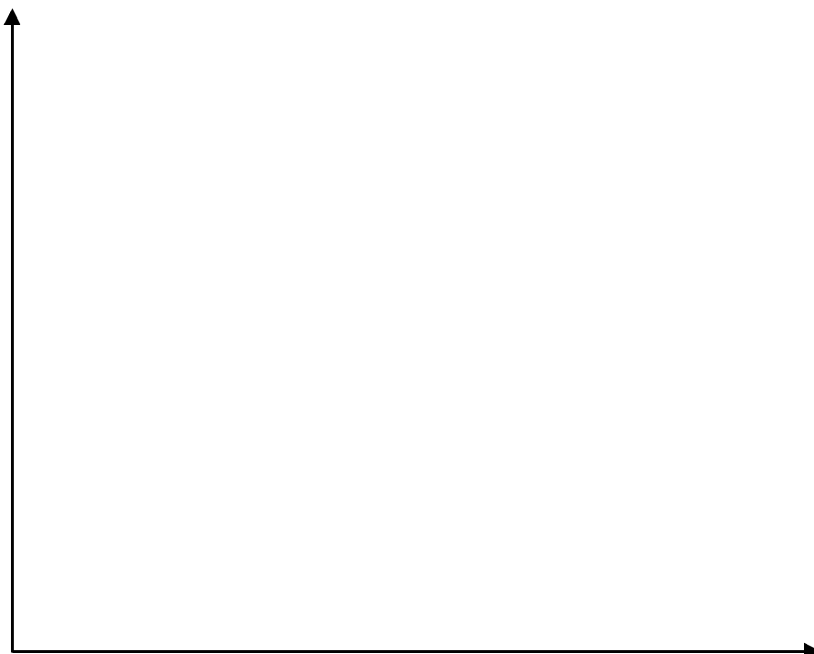
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3. Read the following extract before answering the question:

After the 2008 financial crisis governments across the world bailed out banks. The banks were too big and too important to fail. If one large bank collapsed then it would affect the other banks that had expected money flows from the first bank. The result would be a collapse of the whole banking sector. However, the problem is the message that this sends: if they will never be allowed to fail then their actions will be affected.

With reference to moral hazard, explain how banks may act differently if they are not allowed to fail. [2]

4. Sketch the **Laffer curve** on the axes below to show how the government's tax revenue changes with the tax rate.



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5. Explain how automatic stabilisers can smooth fluctuations in real GDP without policies.

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Answers to Theme

International Economics (Part 1)

1. a) List four characteristics of globalisation

- Removal of trade barriers
- Increased global activity
- Standardisation, McDonaldisation, homogenisation
- Increased activity of TNCs and MNCs
- International interdependence
- Increased global branding and global sourcing
- Outsourcing factors of production
- A bigger more integrated global market
- Free mobility of resources
- Integration
- Increasing trade between countries
- Increased foreign ownership
- Cultural dilution
- Environmental damage

b) Why has globalisation increased in the last 50 years? Name three reasons

Any three of the following:

- Transport Infrastructure and Operations: The improvement in transport around the globe means goods, services and factors of production can move more easily and it is less costly to do so.
- Communication Technology and IT: The improvements in the ability to communicate around the world mean information is more free-flowing, and imperfect information is reduced. The increased use of the Internet has allowed and allows for more social experiences.
- Trade Liberalisation (WTO): The World Trade Organisation (WTO) encourages the removal of trade barriers and, as they diminish, economic agents are able to move more freely. Resources are traded more easily across nations.
- Increasing TNCs: Transnational companies spread across countries, operating in various economies and nations. The increasing number and the influence of TNCs has increased activity in the global market.
- The Cold War: At the end of the cold war, economies that were formerly closed began to open up to the global market.
- International Financial Markets: As financial markets grow across countries, companies are able to operate in various countries, causing the flow of money to increase.

2. Create a mind-map showing the impacts of globalisation on:

a) Individual countries

- Interdependence: As countries become interdependent, individual countries experience a positive spill over effect from other countries, such as increased exports and foreign partners. Equally, however, individual countries are at risk of economic downturns between integrated countries.
- Increased Living Standards: Individual countries will see a general rise in living standards across the whole economy.
- Decrease in Global Superpowers: Individual nations will become more competitive in the global market as countries that originally were superpowers begin to lose their competitive edge.
- Lower Inflation and Lower Prices: As countries are exposed to goods and services (e.g. resources outsourcing) and cheaper prices, then they may find a fall in inflation and lower levels of inflation.
- Loss of Culture: Countries will find their culture becomes diluted and traditional products may disappear.
- Movement of Resources: As resources move between countries freely, there may be an abundance of resources or lack of resources, such as the effect of globalisation on the environment.

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b) Governments

- Interdependence: Governments may find it harder to stabilise and control foreign influences and the spread of instability.
- Decrease in Global Superpowers: As the influence of powerful economies decreases, more influence other countries and their governments will have.
- Lower Inflation and Lower Prices: As countries are exposed to good resources (outsourcing) and cheaper prices, then they may find a fall in inflation and lower levels of inflation. This is better for economic stability and economic growth.
- Tax Avoidance: Governments may lose or gain tax revenue as firms move to countries with better tax systems.

c) Producers

- Interdependence: Firms that operate on the international market (exporting resources) will find their business is dependent on the stability and economic growth of other countries.
- Audience: Producers will be open to the global market and with that, more competition.
- Greater Competition: As economies become exposed to lower prices, firms will find they are up against more competition from global competitors.
- Global Monopolies: Producers will find it harder to compete against global monopolies.
- Global Monopsonies: Global monopsonies will have impacts on costs and prices.
- Free Movement of Resources: As resources freely move between countries, there may be an influx and excess supply of resources (so prices will fall) or a shortage of resources.
- Economies of Scale: A bigger market in which to sell means countries can benefit from economies of scale. Equally, they can then suffer from diseconomies of scale.

d) Consumers

- Greater Choice: Globalisation means there are more goods available to consumers.
- Lower Prices: The global market offers, not only more goods, but also lower prices that have been reduced from outsourcing.
- Increased Global Monopolies: Consumers will be susceptible to reduction in choice from global monopolies.

e) Workers

- Interdependence: Workers' jobs are reliant on the performance of the economy and the climate of its trading partners. This means workers' jobs are susceptible to global market changes.
- Worker Exploitation: Workers are susceptible to TNCs who wish to reduce costs. This is particularly notable in countries that may have relaxed employment laws.
- Increased Monopsonies: Global monopsonies will have greater power over the supply of workers and will be able to bargain for lower wage rates.
- Free Resource Movement: Workers are able to move to where there are better opportunities, being able to improve their lives.

f) The environment

- Environmental Damage: Greater production and transportation of goods can lead to environmental damage and degrade the environment.
- Use of Scarce Resources: As more firms start and increase production, the use of scarce resources and greenhouse gases will increase.

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3. a) **Explain the difference between absolute and comparative advantage**
 A country has an absolute advantage if it can produce more of each type of good than any other country. A country is said to have a comparative advantage if they are able to produce a good at a lower cost than other countries.
- b) **Possible advantages of specialisation:**
- Lower Prices: By producing the goods in which a country has a comparative advantage, it can produce the goods cheaper than another country could. Therefore, if each good is produced by the country that had the comparative advantage, then the world will have lower prices for each good.
 - Increased Living Standards: If countries follow the suggestions of David Ricardo, then they can find they have an increase in living standards. By producing goods in which they have a comparative or absolute advantage and trading for the rest, they can have lower prices and increased consumer choice from international goods. This leads to an increase in growth rates and production increases.
- Possible advantages of trade:**
- More Consumer Choice: By trading, consumers have access to more goods than they could produce on their own.
 - Larger Markets: Firms can benefit from global trade because their market is larger (global) market.
 - Economies of Scale: Because firms have a greater audience, there is a greater incentive to produce more. This means they have the opportunity to expand and gain from economies of scale.
- Possible disadvantages of specialisation:**
- Reliance on commodities: prices can be volatile, if demand for a good falls, a country that specialises in this commodity would be harmed
- Possible disadvantages of trade:**
- Any three of the following:
- Trade Deficit: If a country is uncompetitive, then it could end up with a trade deficit.
 - Dumping: Countries with excess goods can sell them in foreign markets at a price below the market price in order to get rid of them. The economy of the country 'dumped' into will be damaged as the increase in supply and fallen prices will drive producers out of business as it shocks the market.
 - Contagion: As has been seen by the recent global financial crisis, economic shocks can spread across economies. This is due to the interdependence of economies. When one economy crashes, the countries that were dependent on its trade will find they are also affected, so economic shocks will be spread across economies.
 - Global Monopolies: International trade can allow the rise of global monopolies, which have influence and power for market manipulation.
 - The Problem's Emerging and Developing: Emerging economies and developing countries are generally susceptible to exploitation from global monopolies and developed countries that have access to the necessary finance, capital and knowledge.
4. a) **What is the equation for terms of trade?**

$$\text{Terms of trade} = \frac{\text{Index of Export Prices}}{\text{Index of Import Prices}} \times 100$$

- b) **Explain three factors that influence a country's terms of trade**
- Relative Inflation Rates: If one country's inflation rates are higher than another's, then its goods will be rising quicker than another's and will appear more expensive in the foreign market.
 - Relative Productivity: Countries that are relatively more productive than others will be able to produce more with the resources available to them. This means they are able to reduce the price of their goods, become more competitive, thereby increasing their terms of trade.
 - Exchange Rate: The exchange rate shows the price of one country's goods in terms of another's. If the currency falls then goods will appear to have fallen in price.

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c) Using one of the factors you've listed and the terms of trade, explain

i. Demand for Imports and exports

- [The inflation rate increases / relative productivity falls / current export prices will rise and possibly also its import prices will fall decrease. This means it will lose competitiveness and its demand for imports will rise.
- [The inflation rate decreases/relative productivity increases/current country's export prices will fall and possibly also its import prices will increase. This means it will gain competitiveness and its demand for imports will fall.

ii. Current Account

- [The inflation rate increases / relative productivity falls / current export prices will rise and possibly also its import prices will fall decrease. This means it will lose competitiveness and its demand for imports will rise. Exports fall and imports rises causing account deficit.
- [The inflation rate decreases / relative productivity increases / current country's export prices will fall and possibly also their import prices will increase. This means it will gain competitiveness and its demand for imports will fall. Imports fall and exports rise even causing a trade surplus.

iii. Living Standards

- [The inflation rate increases / relative productivity falls / current export prices will rise and possibly also its import prices will fall decrease. This means it will lose competitiveness. Export businesses consumers will switch to buying imports. The economy will be in recession employment will fall. The lack of wages will cause living standards to fall.
- [The inflation rate decreases / relative productivity increases / current country's export prices will fall and possibly also its import prices will increase. This means it will gain competitiveness. Export businesses UK consumers will switch to buying domestically produced goods expand as output increases, so employment will rise. The increase in living standards to increase.

5. What type of trade bloc is...

a) the European Union?

A common market

b) the eurozone?

Monetary union

6. List and explain two costs of regional trade agreements

- Transition Costs of a Single Currency: There are costs involved with changing into the new currency. There will also be a period of adjustment while expectations into the new valuation.
- Loss of Sovereignty: As countries join together and agree to change to a monetary union, they will lose their independence to change monetary policy, and lose exchange rate flexibility.

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7. List and explain three benefits of regional trade agreements

- Eliminating Transaction Costs: Once all the countries are on the same currency, attempting to switch from one currency to another in order to make transactions is much easier.
- Price Transparency: It is much easier to make price comparisons if all goods are in the same currency.
- Reduction in Exchange Rate Uncertainty: Exchange rates are constantly changing. Countries may adopt fixed exchange rates, where the government makes small adjustments in order to keep their currency at the same rate, but this is costly and still not perfect. Transactions between France and Germany, for example, can occur without the need for changing.

8. a) Despite the benefits of trade, list and explain five reasons why a country might want to restrict trade.

Any five from the following:

- Infant and Sunset Industry Argument: Countries may wish to put trade barriers in place to protect these industries from global competition and facilitate their growth. Infant industries are old and declining industries but they need to be protected to grow into export-oriented economies. Infant industries are the opposite; they are new and need government support until they have gained the finance, demand and knowledge to compete.
- Protect Employment: By increasing the prices of foreign goods, domestic producers can sell more of their produced goods from imports and the domestic industry will increase. This is often done in a particular industry, by applying trade restrictions to certain goods. This can protect the employment levels in the whole economy by setting a 'floor' on the price of imports.
- Retain Self-sufficiency: Countries may enforce trade restrictions in order to remain producing certain goods so they don't become reliant on imports.
- Balance the Balance of Payments: As imports fall it is hoped a trade surplus will be achieved, which can even cause a trade surplus.
- Retaliation: Trade barriers may be a response or retaliation to another country's trade measures.
- Prevent Dumping: Trade barriers restrict the amount of goods a country can import and may prevent a country from dumping its goods.
- Reduces Competition: A country may impose a trade restriction in order to protect its domestic industry from competition threatening from foreign markets.
- Protect Strategic/Important Industries: Some countries may want to protect industries that produce goods that are invaluable to the economy even if they are not competitive. This is because during times of disrupted trade patterns, the economy will still have these goods.

b) What are the impacts of these trade restrictions on...

i. consumers?

Protectionist policies increase the prices of more competitive foreign goods. Domestic consumers face higher prices from trade barriers as they face higher prices.

ii. producers?

Domestic producers should find demand for their products increases as consumers turn away from domestic demand away from imported goods and towards domestic goods. Domestic exporting producers may find they encounter protectionist policies which will damage their business.

Some producers may import parts for production and will find their costs increase as protectionist policies are aimed at increasing the prices of imported goods.

Foreign producers who sell goods in the country will find demand for their goods decreases as protectionist policies increase their prices.

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iii. governments?

Protectionist policies, such as subsidies, can be very costly. This can lead to a large increase in government debt. Alternatively, the government may impose a tariff on imports, which can also be costly, although the bureaucratic procedures can be just as costly as the market distortions. Governments can find they are met with tit-for-tat retaliation policies, which can be politically and economically damaging.

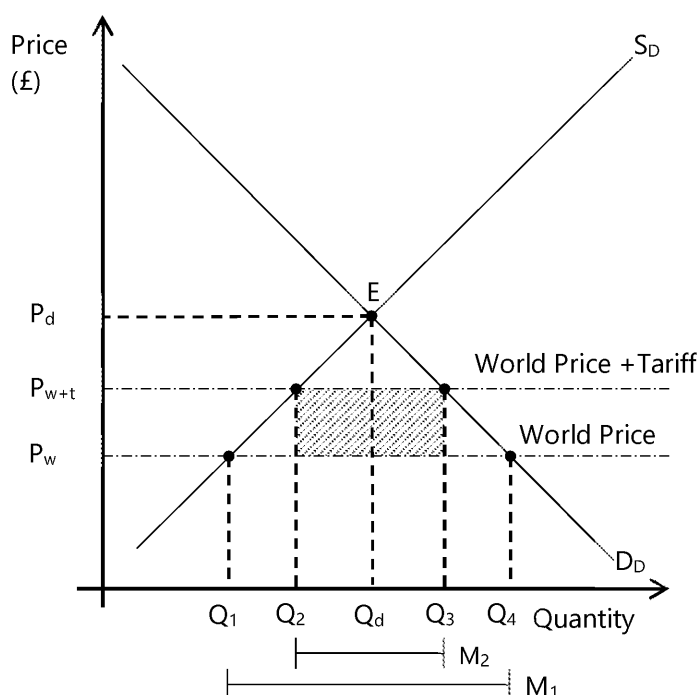
iv. **living standards and equality?**

Protectionist policies are designed to protect the domestic economy of the country, such as domestic producers, and the jobs of the workers. If people may find they lose their incomes, pushing them into poverty. By increasing demand for domestically produced goods, jobs can be created. However, income inequality as those previously without jobs are now earning. Those who face the protectionist policies will find it harder and harder to compete. As economies decline, businesses to shut, living standards to fall and unemployment to rise. Developing countries who bear the brunt of protectionist policies by other countries need trade the most. Protecting developing countries from competition with other countries' chances to trade and grow, will increase inequality.

9. a) What is a tariff?

A tax on imported goods.

b) Draw a tariff diagram showing the world price, domestic price and would cost with the additional tariff



i. Now, assuming the economy was closed, what would the quan

The price and quantity of the goods in a closed economy would be which on the diagram is P_d and Q_d .

ii. If the economy opened up to international trade, what would the domestically supplied be?

The price of the goods would be the international price because the quantity demanded at this price would be Q_4 , only a few domestic supply the goods at this price and so the domestic quantity supplied

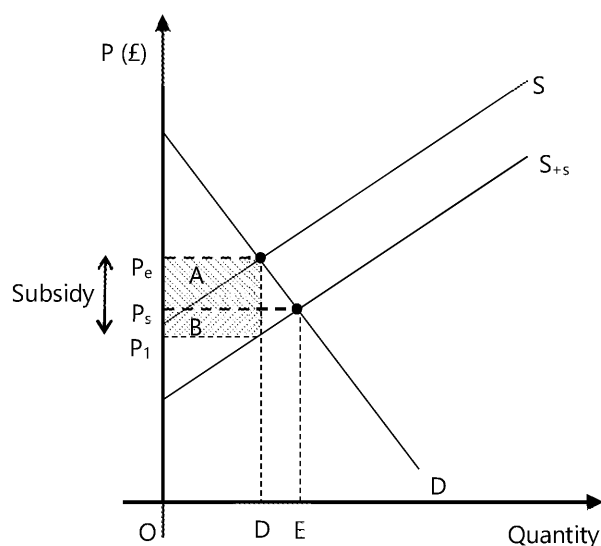
iii. What could a possible solution be to this misalignment of demand and supply? Show this on the diagram?

To satisfy this excess in demand, consumers could import the good by M_2 which is the difference between Q_1 and Q_4 .

- iv. If the government imposed a tariff on imported goods, what would be demanded and what would the price be?

The price of the goods would be domestic price plus the cost of the lowest price, P_{w+t} . The domestic demand at this price would be Q_3 .

- c) Draw a subsidy diagram:



- i. Using the concept of price, how does a subsidy change quantity?

A subsidy to producers means they can reduce their costs. The supply producers will be more willing to supply the goods and with the price lowered. This will mean more consumers will be willing and able to demand more. With the increasing willingness to purchase and the goods will be more supplied and demanded.

- d) Can you explain two other trade barriers?

Quotas: The government can limit the number of goods an economy can

Non-tariff barriers: These are a variety of hidden costs, such as bureaucracy, safety regulations.

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International Economics (Part 2)

1. What are the four accounts in the balance of payments?

Financial account, current account, capital account, international investment position

2. List and explain four causes of...

a) current account deficit

- Appreciated Currency: If a currency is relatively higher than other currencies, exports will appear cheaper and imports will appear expensive. So the demand for imports will fall which can cause a trade deficit.
- High Levels of Inflation: If a country's inflation rates are relatively higher than other countries, its goods will appear more expensive and foreign goods will appear cheaper. So the demand for their exports will fall and demand for imports will rise, causing a trade deficit.
- Economic Growth: If growth results from increases in aggregate demand, then supply cannot match it, then consumers will need to import to satisfy demand. As economic growth comes greater incomes. As consumers' incomes increase, their spending on imports as imports are seen as a wealthy product will increase, causing a trade deficit.
- Non-price Factors: If foreign producers produce goods that are better than domestic goods, consumers are likely to import the goods and so imports will increase and could cause a trade deficit.

b) current account surplus

- Appreciated Currency: If a currency is relatively lower than other currencies, exports will appear more expensive and imports will appear cheaper. So the demand for exports will rise which can cause a trade surplus.
- High levels of Inflation: If a country's inflation rates are relatively lower than other countries, its goods will appear cheaper and foreign goods will appear more expensive. So the demand for their exports will rise and demand for imports will fall, causing a trade surplus.
- Economic Growth: If economic growth falls, then people's incomes will fall. As incomes fall, imports will fall. This could cause a trade surplus.
- Non-price Factors: If foreign domestic producers produce goods of higher quality than domestic goods, consumers are likely to increase their consumption of exports, thus causing a trade surplus.

3. a) Explain three measures that a country can take to reduce a current account deficit

- Expenditure Reducing: Deflationary fiscal policy will reduce aggregate demand, which will reduce inflation and cause exports to appear more competitive. A fall in aggregate demand will also have fallen; it is hoped that domestic production will fall and thus increase exports.
- Expenditure Switching: The government could add trade barriers to reduce their consumption from imports to consuming domestically produced goods.
- Supply-side Policies: The government could invest in reducing costs and supply-side policies to increase productivity. This will lower the price of exports and thus increase exports.

b) What problems might arise from each of these measures?

- Expenditure Reducing: Reducing aggregate demand may decrease output, which can also result in negative, or at least slowed, growth rates. This could lead to production and unemployment will rise.
- Expenditure Switching: Adding barriers to trade can cause other countries to retaliate in kind, which will result in damaging the export sector. Ultimately, it could lead to a change to the deficit.
- Supply-side Policies: The time lags that result from supply-side policies may not occur in time to react to short-term problems.

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4. **What is a...**
- floating exchange rate regime?**
When the value of a currency is allowed to 'float' or change in line with the market.
 - fixed exchange rate regime?**
The government intervenes in the market to keep currency at a certain value.
 - managed exchange rate regime?**
Monetary authorities 'manage' or control demand and supply in order to influence the value of the currency.
5. **List and explain three factors that influence a floating exchange rate**
Any three of the following:
- Relative Interest Rates:** The UK interest rate affects the rate of return on UK assets. If the rate increases, investors will switch their currency for pounds in order to get a higher return. This increases the demand for and value of pounds. This short-run result is called 'hot money'.
 - Relative Inflation Rates (Purchasing Power Parity):** If the UK has lower inflation than other countries then UK goods will be more competitive. More people will demand UK exports. Rising demand for pounds will cause the pound to appreciate.
 - The Level of Imports and Exports (Current Account):** Buying imports will increase the demand for pounds in the market because UK consumers will need to swap their UK currency for foreign currency to buy goods. If a country has a current account deficit, then their imports are bigger than their exports. The demand for pounds is greater than the supply of pounds. Excess demand means the pound will appreciate.
 - Speculation:** As investors speculate, the stock market varies the demand for pounds. If investors believe the pound will appreciate, investors will demand lots of pounds at an increased price. As they buy more pounds, the demand for pounds increases and the pound appreciates.
 - Quantitative Easing:** Increasing the supply of money will cause the value of the pound to fall.
6. **Explain two ways a government can manage an exchange rate**
- Changing Interest Rate:** Changing the interest rate can change the demand for pounds. Higher interest rates will attract foreign investors to domestic investments. Foreign investors will convert their currency into the domestic currency before investing and thus will increase the demand for pounds and push up the price of the currency.
 - Influencing Foreign Exchange Market:** If the central bank buys its own currency on the foreign exchange market, it increases the supply of the currency. The value of the currency falls. If the central bank sells its own currency, it decreases the supply of the currency. The value of the currency rises.
7. **a) What might a depreciation or devaluation in a country's current account?**
A depreciated currency will mean exports will appear more competitive and exports will increase. Equally, domestically produced goods will appear more expensive to imports and so the demand for imports will fall. An increase in exports and a decrease in imports will improve a deficit and could cause a trade surplus.
- b) What does the Marshall Lerner condition state?**
There will only be an improvement in a trade deficit if the elasticity sum is greater than one.
- c) What is the J-curve effect?**
The J-curve effect explains that the current account deficit will worsen before it improves.
- d) What three other impacts might a depreciation or devaluation have?**
- Economic Growth and Unemployment:** A depreciated currency will mean exports will appear more competitive. Foreign and domestic demand for exports will increase and boost the economy. This will increase growth, but equally, as the economy grows, there will be more jobs and reduced unemployment.
 - Rate of Inflation:** If the pound depreciates and the demand for exports increases, then aggregate demand will increase and cause higher inflation.
 - FDI Flows:** A devalued currency will mean investors will gain a greater return on investment in the country. This will mean there will be a greater inflow of foreign direct investment.

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8. a) What is meant by international competitiveness?

Competitiveness is the ability of a country or firm to compete and provide goods and services. This is usually measured in price and so competitiveness measures the price of goods. International competitiveness looks at the price of goods across countries.

b) What three factors influence a country's international competitiveness?

Relative unit labour costs (productivity and wages), relative non-wage costs

9. Explain three benefits of being internationally competitive

- Greater Exports: A country that is more internationally competitive will see an increase in exports and a reduction in demand for its imports. Exporting firms will earn more revenue.
- Job Creation and Economic Growth: An increase in exports will increase aggregate demand, which indicates a growth in the economy. Although initially found in the exporting markets, the overflow of the injection of income into the economy, causing widespread economic growth and job creation.
- Improve a Current Account Deficit: An increase in exports and a decrease in imports can turn a deficit a country may have into a surplus.

10. Explain two costs of being internationally competitive

- Worsen a Current Account Surplus: If a country has a trade surplus, then becoming more competitive will only worsen the trade surplus.
- Inflation: If goods become more competitive then exports will increase and aggregate demand will rise. Increased aggregate demand can increase prices and cause inflation.

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Poverty and Inequality

1. What is absolute poverty?

When a person is unable to afford their basic needs

a) How is it measured?

By using a boundary mark to see if people fall above or below

2. a) What is relative poverty?

When a person has relatively less than others

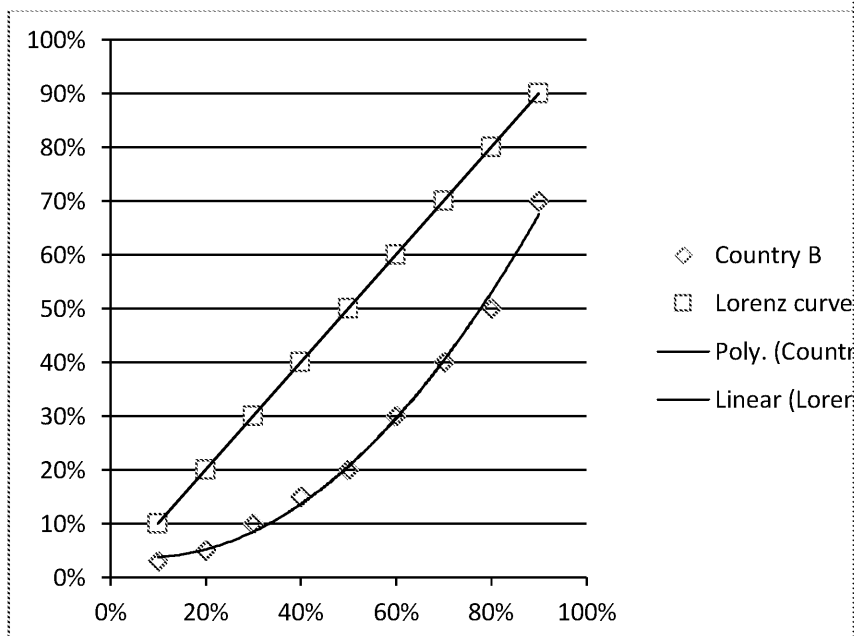
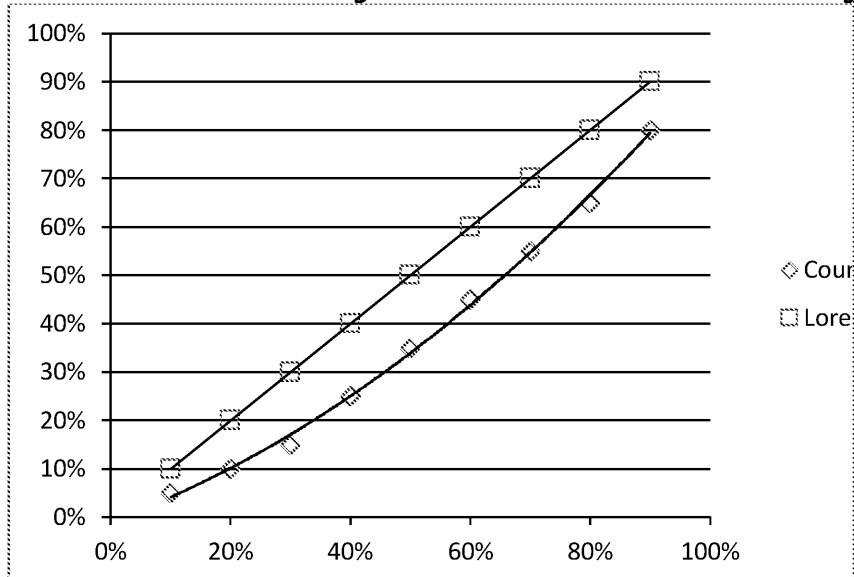
b) How is it measured?

By looking at the lower proportion of median income

3. How do wealth and income differ?

Wealth is static, 'stock' concept of money whereas income is 'flow' concept of money

4. a) Plot two Lorenz curves using the data below and include the 45 degree line



b) What is the equation for the Gini coefficient?

$$\text{Gini Coefficient} = \frac{\text{Area A}}{\text{Area A} + \text{Area B}}$$

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- c) **Without calculating, which country would have a higher Gini coefficient?**
Country B, because the Area A is bigger for Country B than it is for Country A.
- d) **Which country has higher levels of inequality?**
Country B, because it has a higher Gini coefficient

5. **Explain five causes of inequality within countries**

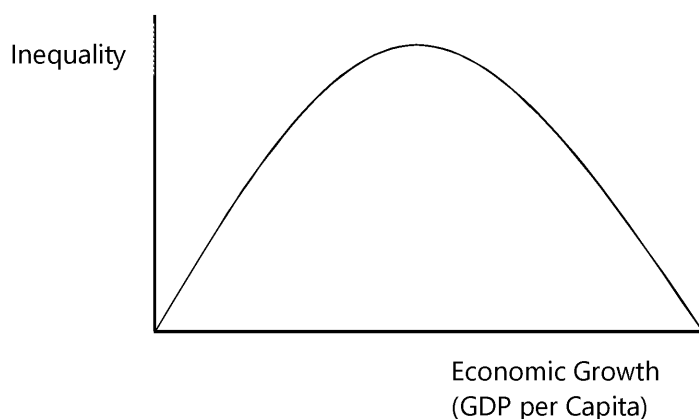
Any five of the following:

- **Education and Training:** A labour with greater human capital will have a higher wage. Those workers with an increased human capital will have a higher income. Equally, those countries that have little human capital will have workers with less human capital and lower incomes than those with more human capital.
- **Wage Rate (Minimum Wage):** A minimum wage ensures workers earn at least a minimum wage. Countries with a national minimum wage rate will generally have less inequality than countries without a national minimum wage rate. Largely varying wage rates can cause inequality.
- **Strength of Trade Unions:** Trade unions can help provide workers with their fair wage rates and reduce any income inequalities. A lack of trade unions can lead to higher inequality.
- **Degree of Employment Protection:** Employment protection policies can lead to higher inequality.
- **Social Benefits:** Social benefits can be given to support those in absolute poverty. However, if social benefits are too high, inequality may occur.
- **Progression of the Tax System:** The progression of tax system can change inequality in a country or can explain the differences across countries. The theory is that the higher earners, the top range of income earners can be restricted and the tax can be distributed to the low earners in order to bring the two ends closer together.
- **Pension Entitlements:** Pensioners no longer have a steady income, as they have retired but still needing to cover living costs can push some people into poverty.
- **Ownership of Assets and Inheritance:** Wealth, due to its characteristics, tends to stay within the same economy and instead stays within the same households. Assets are passed on to those with little wealth are unlikely to own assets.

6. a) **Draw the Kuznets curve**

b) **Explain the relationship economic growth has on inequality depicted by the Kuznets curve**

To start, there is very little inequality because all economic agents have little income. As the economy begins to grow and jobs are created, everybody benefits and the inequality in the economy. However, some will have greater incomes than others and the inequality through the economy. However, some will have greater incomes than others and the inequality in the economy will be exaggerated. Once the economy gets to the peak of the Kuznets curve, the economy will have gained enough revenue to begin to invest in inequality policies and reduce inequality.



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Emerging and Developing Economies

1. What are the three measures in the Human Development Index?

Education, Health, Real GNI per Capita

2. Name and explain four other indicators for development.

Any four from the following:

- Economic Indicators: There is often a correlation between growth and development. However, economic measures are not accurate at showing development. A large economy has a progressed society with high living standards and a high GDP. However, it does not mean that the country is developed.
- Inequality: Because development is looking at people and not figures, average figures are not always significant but unfortunately ignored. The Lorenz curve and Gini coefficient are used to measure income inequality, and focus on what proportion of the population actually are and development averages.
- Inequality-adjusted Human Development Index: IHDI attempts to take into account the effect of inequality. It does this by altering the averages that were calculated and then dividing by the inequality. If inequality is high, then the averages will be lowered.
- Multidimensional Poverty Index: MPI looks at not only an income-based poverty index but also a variety of measures, such as sanitation, and considers a person to be in poverty if they lack one-third or more of the items measured.
- Access to Clean Water: Clean water is a basic human right and the access to it is a measure of a country's level of development.

3. Name and explain five factors that influence growth and development.

Any five from the following:

- Primary Product Dependency: Primary products generally have little return on investment, sometimes called 'low-value-added goods'. This means the value of exports is only a small inflow of income into the economy. Equally, commodity prices can fluctuate in a country's revenue, aggregate demand and exchange rate which can limit the ability to grow. Lastly, primary products are income-elastic, so a small change in demand can lead to a large change to the demand for these products.
- Volatility of Commodity Prices: Commodity price volatility can create economic fluctuations and commodity producers varying revenue. This will deter production and thus prevent countries gaining the influx of income they may need to grow.
- Harrod-Domar Model (Savings Gap): There are two factors that affect the growth of a country: the savings ratio and the capital-output ratio. The capital-output ratio is the amount of capital to produce goods; the more productive capital is, the more goods can be produced and so the quicker they will grow. The savings ratio looks at the proportion of income that is saved. The higher the savings rate the easier it is for banks to lend money, and therefore the quicker the country will grow.
- Foreign Currency Gap: This occurs when an economy is a net importer. They must pay in foreign currencies. If exports do not generate enough foreign currency, they will have a 'foreign currency gap'. To pay for imports in the case of a foreign currency gap, they either borrow the amounts required in the foreign currency or draw from foreign currency reserves. Both are only short-term options.
- Capital Flight: When investors rapidly withdraw their investments and savings, perhaps because of unfavourable tax changes or economic instability.
- Demographic Factors: Countries with an ageing population are likely to have a lower growth rate because a lot of the population will not be part of the workforce because they are too old.
- Debt: If countries are spending money to repay old debts, then they are not able to invest in growth or development policies. Debt repayments represent an outflow of money from the country.
- Access to Credit and Banking: If the people in a country do not have access to banks to store their money safely, then they will not be able to protect and grow their money or start businesses. Low accessibility can prevent a country from growing and developing.

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- **Infrastructure:** Infrastructure will prevent businesses from transporting the trade, and from acquiring the resources they need for production, therefore manufacturing. These barriers will prevent a country from developing an economy.
- **Education and Skills:** Countries who invest in human-capital-increasing policies will increase as they have a better and improved workforce.
- **Absence of Property Rights:** If people cannot secure their right to a property from obtaining a loan and hence a country's growth and development rate.

4. a) **What are market-orientated strategies?**

Policy strategies that use the market to promote development

b) **Can you describe five market-orientated strategies?**

Any five of the following:

- **Trade Liberalisation:** By reducing trade barriers and liberalising trade from trade and specialisation.
- **Promotion of FDI:** Foreign multinational companies can bring an inflow via investment, which can boost economic growth and development.
- **Removal of Government Subsidies:** Although inefficient industries will close in the long run, it is hoped that removing subsidies will improve resource allocation.
- **Floating Exchange Rate Systems:** Countries that have spent money on a currency high will benefit from changing to a floating exchange rate. The currency to appreciate and depreciate in line with change in demand. The currency will depreciate from its artificially high value and there will be a boost in exports. This inflow of money will boost the economy.
- **Microfinance Schemes:** By providing finance to those who lack the capital, it can find a positive impact on its growth and development levels.
- **Privatisation:** Any resources a government had spent on the organisation for development and growth policies. The private firm that took on the organisation's profits, which will be taxed and add to the inflow of money to the government.

5. a) **What are interventionist strategies?**

The government directly changes the market in order to promote development.

b) **Can you describe five interventionist strategies?**

- **Human Capital:** By increasing the human capital of a country, through education, the country's workforce will be more productive and efficient, thus being able to grow.
- **Protectionism:** By protecting infant industries, an economy can grow. Tariff policies will also keep industries in business and any income generated will be multiplied to boost the whole economy.
- **Managed Exchange Rates:** A government can depreciate the value of its currency to increase exports. The inflow of income from greater exports can increase economic growth.
- **Infrastructure Development:** Good infrastructure will remove inefficiencies in businesses, an economy can grow.
- **Promoting Joint Venture with Global Companies:** A country can benefit from direct investment which can inject money into the economy for growth. It can create new jobs and provide incomes to the people within the country, which will increase rates through increased aggregate demand, but will improve development. It will be able to afford the goods and service they require.
- **Buffer Stock Schemes:** Agricultural goods and commodities are subject to fluctuations. Buffer stocks are designed to mitigate these fluctuations and allow farmers to grow.

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6. a) **What is a dual economy?**
An economy that has two sectors, typically agricultural and manufacturing.
- b) **Explain how a country industrialises using the Lewis model**
A country that has both an expanding manufacturing sector and a large agricultural economy. People from the agricultural sector will be attracted to the high wages in the manufacturing sector. An expanding manufacturing sector and a diminishing agricultural sector slowly industrialises into a manufacturing economy.
7. **There are other methods a country can adopt to develop...**
- a) **Evaluate the use of tourism as a strategy for development**
Tourism can represent an inflow of income into an economy and a boom in the service sector is especially noticeable as holidaymakers tend to have inelastic demand. In a labour-intensive sector, it is a good strategy of development for labour-intensive countries. Often resources are used to accommodate holidaymakers rather than local people. Negative externalities such as environmental damage and location degradation, over-transportation and litter.
- b) **How do fair trade schemes affect development?**
These are schemes set out by the WTO who aim to increase the ability of developing countries to compete on the global market.
- i. **What is the negative aspect of fair trade schemes?**
Fair trade schemes can represent a misallocation of resources.
- c) **Explain two other strategies for development**
Aid: There is a divide of opinions when it comes to the effectiveness of aid. Some argue that aid funds can be used to promote growth and development, whereas others argue that the influence of aid can encourage ineffective policies.
Debt Relief: By relieving countries from repaying the interest on their debt, they are freed up and can be allocated to promoting growth and development.
8. a) **What is the WTO?**
The World Trade Organisation
- b) **What are the WTO's aims?**
The WTO aims to increase competition within the global market and reduce trade barriers.
- c) **How does the WTO achieve these aims?**
The WTO increases competition by removing trade barriers. It also provides a forum for countries to negotiate.
9. a) **What is the IMF?**
International Monetary Fund
- b) **What are the IMF aims?**
The IMF aims to achieve macroeconomic stability and reduce poverty.
- c) **What is the role of the IMF in achieving these aims?**
The IMF do this by providing cheap loans or grants to countries pursuing sound economic policies. They also collect worldwide data on a variety of measures in order to monitor economic shocks.
10. a) **What is the World Bank?**
The World Bank is a collection of five institutions: the IBRD, the IDA, the IFC, the MIGA and the ECA.
- b) **What are the World Bank aims?**
The WTO aims to end absolute poverty.
- c) **What is the role of the World Bank in achieving these aims?**
The WTO invests in policies that improve human capital, resource management and infrastructure to stimulate the economy. This will then increase wage growth and improve living standards. The WTO provides loans and grants to struggling countries. The WTO collects and disseminates economic understanding and from this it is able to provide policy advice.

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Financial Sector

1. What are the four roles of the financial market?

To facilitate saving, to lend to businesses and individuals, to provide a market for goods, to provide markets in currencies and commodities, and to facilitate the provision of financial services.

2. a) How does asymmetric information present a problem in the financial sector?

Borrowers have more information on themselves than the lenders do and this information asymmetry exists within the financial sector. This imperfect information means lenders make poor decisions and lend money to people who are unlikely to pay it off. This can lead to a collapse as people default on their loans.

b) What is market rigging?

When two or more people/organisations 'collude' together in order to manipulate the market for their own gain.

c) Explain three market failures in the financial sector

- Externalities: The financial market can adversely affect the whole economy, which is not included within the risk calculations made by lenders.
- Moral Hazard: The banking system may be more careless when making loans because they know they can rely on government bailouts.
- Speculation: Investors act on instinct and predictions. Speculations, based on market movements, and so investors may act irrationally in order to avoid potential losses, which can as such create bubbles.

3. a) What is the role of the Bank of England to the government?

The Bank of England is the banker to the government. This means it holds the government's accounts, provides the government with loans. Equally, the Bank of England is a bank for the public, providing them with loans and a method of making transactions between banks.

b) What are the two roles the Bank of England takes in the banking industry?

The Bank of England (now in conjunction with the FCA) regulates the banking industry through regulations that aim to ensure the banking system runs smoothly. The Bank also acts as a lender of last resort to commercial banks and provides them with loans when banks run into liquidity problems.

c) What policy does the Bank of England implement?

Monetary policy

i. What are the two tools the Bank of England uses to implement monetary policy?

Interest rates and money supply

ii. How are each of these tools used?

- Interest rates: Influence the level of investment and consumption, which in turn determine the cost of borrowing and the return on savings. By adjusting interest rates, the Bank of England is able to adjust aggregate demand and control inflation.
- Money supply: Quantitative easing will increase the money supply, pulling the economy out of a liquidity trap by providing banks with the funds they need to lend.

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Role of the State in the Macroeconomy

1. What is...

a) capital expenditure?

Expenditure on capital, such as infrastructure, machinery or buildings

b) current expenditure?

The government's everyday expenditure on things such as bills, salaries, production for a functioning government)

c) a transfer payment?

Payments that are given without the return of a good or service

2. What four reasons (or factors) are there that may change the size or composition of public expenditure?

- Incomes: People of different incomes need different things; as incomes rise, demand for public services (state-provided services), instead people may pay for private services.
- Demographic: Different ages require different things. An ageing population increases demand for public services (current and capital expenditure), whereas a baby boom increases demand for public services.
- Expectations: Because government expenditure is subject to public opinion, government expenditure can change depending on the changing expectations of the public. The government may increase its expenditure in certain areas depending on its expectations.
- Financial Crisis: Due to the recent bank bailouts, the government has had to increase its loan repayments. The recession resulting from the banking crisis also meant that unemployment went up, which changed the size of expenditure on transfer payments.

3. What is the effect of public expenditure on...

a) productivity and growth?

Critics of state intervention believe that expenditure inhibits growth and that the government will inefficiently use resources that have been taken away from the private sector. However, supporters of state intervention believe the government can use expenditure on growth and that expenditure is an injection into the circular flow of income and so expenditure increases growth.

b) living standards?

Expenditure improves living standards because money has been spent to provide public services that improve the quality of life for those who need it.

c) crowding out?

Resources are limited, and if the government increases the use of its resources, it may crowd out resources for the private sector to use.

d) taxation?

An increase in expenditure means taxes will have to increase in order to fund the expenditure.

e) equality?

Transfer payment and proportional tax systems are designed to even up income and wealth.

f) national debt?

Unless taxes are raised, an increase in expenditure must be funded through borrowing, which increases the national debt.

4. What is...

a) a progressive tax?

b) a proportional tax?

A tax where the percentage paid remains the same regardless of income.

c) a regressive tax?

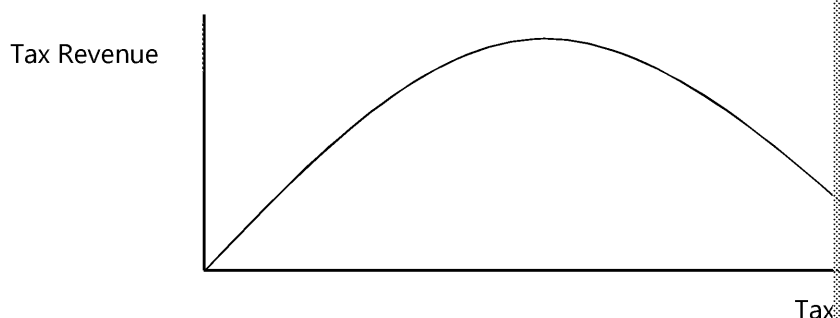
A tax that has a larger impact on lower-income earners than on higher-income earners. Typically lower income earners encounter the tax more often.

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5. a) **Draw a Laffer curve**



b) **Using the curve, explain the effect of changing the tax rate on the tax revenue the government receives**

As the government increases the tax rate, the return the government will increase (as people are paying more tax). However, this relationship is only true up to a point. Beyond this point, increasing the tax rate will only disincentivise people to work or take promotion. Instead, people will be tempted to avoid paying taxes.

6. **Explain five other economic effects changing tax rates have**

Any five from the following:

- **Incentive to Work:** People can become discouraged if their disposable income is low as wages are spent on taxes.
- **Income Distribution:** Taxing high-income earners can reduce the higher end of the income distribution.
- **Real Output and Employment:** If taxes decrease the incentive to work, the people may choose to leave the labour market, and/or unemployment may increase. This fall in labour resources can decrease the country's productive potential. Equally, taxes are a withdrawal from the circular flow of income, reducing firms' spending and investing their income.
- **Price Level (Inflation):** Increased taxes mean a decrease in disposable income. Firms may increase wages to compensate. This will increase the costs of production, leading to higher prices to cover the increasing tax costs. As a response, firms will increase their prices.
- **Trade Balance:** An increase in the tax rate could increase the costs of production. Firms may increase their prices as a response. This means their goods will appear less competitive, so exports will fall (potentially worsening a trade deficit). A rise in direct taxes on imports will mean people reduce their spending on imports, and potentially improve the trade balance.

7. **Can you distinguish between...**

a) **automatic stabilisers and discretionary fiscal policy?**

Automatic stabilisers are counteractive actions of the economy that happen automatically, whereas discretionary fiscal policies are actions that the government have to decide on.

b) **fiscal deficits and national debt?**

Fiscal deficits are when the government has spent more money than it has received. National debt is the result of a persistent fiscal deficit because the government has had to borrow money to cover the deficits.

c) **structural deficits and cyclical deficits?**

Cyclical deficits are understandable deficits that exist due to recessions in the economy. Structural deficits are bad because they will still exist even when the economy is in a growth phase.

8. **What three factors influence the size of a fiscal deficit?**

- **State of the Economy:** If the economy is booming, then the government's tax revenue will be higher than it is spending, then the deficit will be lower. However, during times of recession, government spending often increases and tax revenue falls and so the government is likely to have a larger deficit.
- **Housing Market:** Because houses represent a large proportion of tax revenue, a boom or bust in the housing market will have an influential impact on the amount of tax a government receives, which will change the size of a deficit.
- **Political Priorities:** Depending on the priorities of a government, the amount of spending and tax revenue which will change the size of a fiscal deficit.

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9. a) **What two things are impacted by fiscal deficits and national debts?**
- Living Standards: Government spending, which is typically spent on standards of living, will need to be cut if it wishes to reduce a deficit. This will reduce disposable income, which can reduce happiness. The government may need to increase taxes in order to prevent national debt. Debt repayments mean money is being used for interest payments on development policies and so this will reduce living standards.
 - Credit Rating: Just like with any borrower, if the government has high levels of debt, it is seen as a riskier investment. This means lenders are less likely to give them loans at low interest rates, leading to high levels of interest repayments.
- b) **What policies could a government adopt to reduce fiscal deficits and national debts?**
Austerity measures, tax increases and spending cuts (Deflationary fiscal policy)
10. a) **What policies do Keynesians and monetarists advocate?**
Keynesians advocate fiscal policy while Monetarists advocate monetary policy.
- b) **According to monetarists, what is the relationship between money supply, inflation and GDP?**
Monetarists believe that any increase in money supply can cause inflation. In the short run, monetarists believe an increase in money supply can increase output and inflation and as a consequence this will increase GDP.
- c) **Keynesians oppose monetarists; what do they believe the relationship between money supply, aggregate demand, inflation and GDP is?**
Keynesians do not believe the relationship between the money supply, as simple as Monetarists do. Keynesians believe an increase in money supply can increase aggregate demand because it is easier for banks to offer loans, and this *may* increase consumption. However, there is no guarantee individuals and firms will increase their consumption. It is dependent on confidence, expectations and 'animal spirit' over the influence of interest rates.
11. **What policies could a government adopt to...**
- a) **reduce poverty and inequality?**
Making the tax system more progressive can help to even out inequality. Social security for those in need can help to support people out of poverty. Similarly, supply-side policies, such as occupational and geographical mobility can help assist people to acquire higher wages.
- b) **increase international competitiveness?**
Supply-side policies can be used to improve efficiency and productivity, which can improve competitiveness. Reducing taxes can also reduce the cost of goods in the international market. The government could also adopt an exchange rate policy to adjust its currency to make exports appear cheaper.
12. a) **What issue do global companies pose?**
There is no authoritative body that can control global companies because they can easily avoid regulations. Global companies are footloose and can be based in any country.
- b) **What two limitations do governments encounter when attempting to regulate global companies?**
Global companies are footloose, which means they can avoid regulations by moving their operations across borders. Transfer pricing means they can transfer goods at a discount rate between their subsidiaries across countries.
13. **What three problems do policymakers face when applying policies?**
Policymakers may create policy on incorrect and inaccurate information. Equal policies may be ineffective due to the uncertainties that exist within an economy. Lastly, policies may be overridden by the overriding effects of globalisation and the external shocks that come from international trade.

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Answers to Exam-style Questions

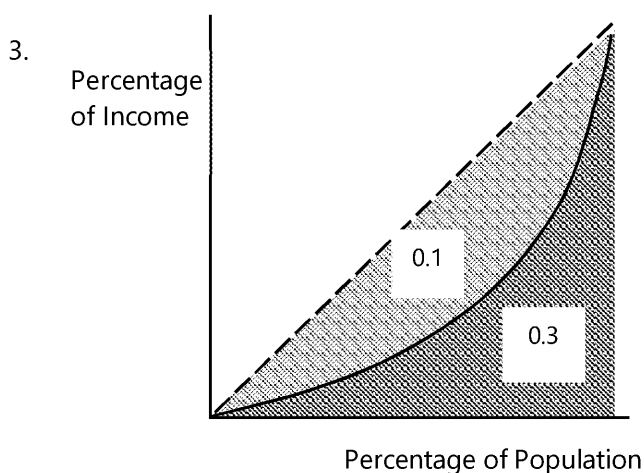
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Exam-style Questions (1): International Economics

1. a) The main trend shown is a generally worsening balance of payments on the current account in the 1970s. It was brought back to parity at the end of the 1990s but the deficit has increased again, becoming greater following the 2008 financial crisis. Award 2 marks for correct interpretation of the graph. Award 1 mark for identifying the current account deficit. Award 1 mark for identifying the balance of payments on the current account. Award 2 marks for correct interpretation of the graph. Award 2 marks for a correct interpretation. Be aware of confusion between nominal and constant prices. Constant prices have been adjusted for inflation (they are in real terms).
1. b) Since the data is shown in nominal (rather than real) terms, this means that the effect of inflation has not been taken into account. The current account deficit shown in the past, is likely to be smaller than the graph. Award 2 marks for a correct interpretation. Be aware of confusion between nominal and constant prices. Constant prices have been adjusted for inflation (they are in real terms).
2. A floating exchange rate system simply means a country allows the value of its currency to be determined by the free market forces of demand for its currency and the (somewhat constrained) supply. Decreases and increases in a country's currency are described as depreciation and appreciation respectively when under a floating exchange rate regime. Award 3 marks for a good answer.
3. The J-Curve effect explains that the current account deficit will worsen before it improves. In the short run, both exports and imports tend to have an inelastic demand (particularly imports). This means that changes in prices do not have an impact on the quantity demanded immediately. In the long run, however, demand for both exports and imports tends to be more elastic and the current account balance improves. Award 3 marks for a good answer.
4. Potential disadvantages of globalisation are numerous and include high interest rates which can cause recessions that are global in nature. It can lead to the rise of multinational corporations which can abuse their market power. It can lead to cultural homogenisation. It can mean that jobs are moved to countries where companies can base themselves in tax havens. It can lead to a 'brain drain' from developing countries as educated people want to emigrate and work in richer countries. There are numerous other disadvantages that could be named too. Award 1 mark for identifying a disadvantage and 1 mark for explaining it.
5. Describe how a non-tariff barrier can restrict trade without the use of tariffs, or quotas. Governments can impose all sorts of regulations and red tape to hinder trade. They can also impose standards that can stipulate that all products entering the country must adhere to certain standards. This can restrict trade and promote domestic industry. Award 2 marks for correct understanding and 1 mark for explaining it.

Exam-style Questions (2): Poverty and Inequality, Developing Economies

1. The correct answer is D: Romania and Greece tend to have the worst poverty rates in the world during the time period studied. Award 1 mark.
2. a) The correct answer is C: part-time work as a share of unemployment remains relatively stable over the total employment during the period shown.
- b) There are a few things that could be discussed here. More people in part-time work have lower incomes as people work fewer hours. If people are unable to claim jobseeker's allowance so the government's benefits payments are lower for those in part-time work than those in full-time work might widen, increasing income inequality. Award 1 mark for sensible interpretations and discussion.



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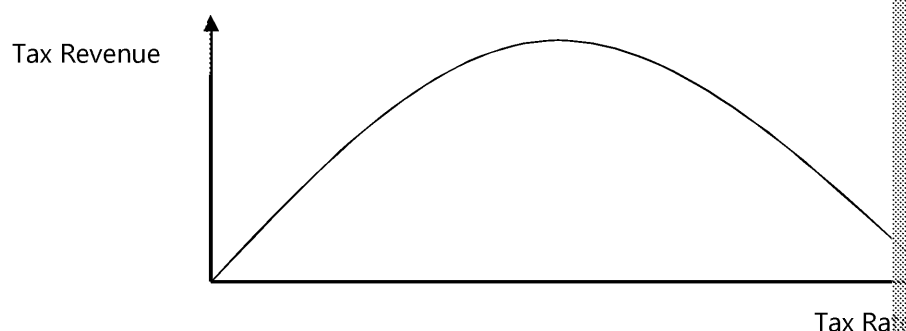


- a) $Gini = (A/A+B) = (0.1/0.1+0.3) = 0.25$
- b) There are a few things that the government could do: higher benefits pay rates (progressive tax system); improving education and training to increase the minimum wage.
- Award 1 mark for a suitable idea and 1 mark for an explanation.

4. From the text: 'William Arthur Lewis came up with a development model to explain the process of countries moving from being agricultural to becoming industrialised. He believed countries would follow a dual economy model. This he meant the economy would have a large agricultural sector and a small manufacturing sector. The model of a dual economy assumes the agricultural sector would have a surplus and the manufacturing sector had higher wages, but that these would be fixed. If the agricultural sector was attracted by the higher wages and move to the manufacturing sector, the manufacturing sector would invest their profits in expansionary projects. As the agricultural sector left, leaving the agricultural sector, and as firms grew, the manufacturing sector would expand. As the agricultural sector diminishes the economy would become industrialised.' Award 2 marks for a suitable idea and 1 mark for an explanation.

Exam-style Questions (3): The Financial Sector and the Role of the Government

1. If a good or service is provided by the government then there is less reason for the private sector to provide it (even if it would be provided more efficiently by the private sector). If the government offers good deals on bonds and other investments then the demand for investment from private banks will fall. Award up to 3 marks for correct interpretation and discussion.
2. Under a proportional taxation system the tax rate is fixed at a certain percentage of income. If the tax paid rises with income. Award 1 mark for a definition and 1 mark for a suitable example.
3. The key idea is that banks may behave differently if they know they have an implicit guarantee provided by the government. That is, if they know that the government will bail them out, they will behave differently by taking on riskier loans, holding low reserves, and so on. This is the moral hazard problem. Award 2 marks for a suitable answer.
4. Award 2 marks for a diagram drawn like below:



5. Certain government payments and incomes vary automatically with the business cycle. For instance, unemployment benefits increase during recessions as more people become unemployed. Corporate taxes increase during booms because more people are working and earning. This means that the budget deficit varies somewhat. The government might automatically run a surplus in the good times and a deficit in the bad times. Award up to 3 marks for a correct answer.

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Glossary

Absolute Poverty	When a person has an inability to afford basic needs across all countries regardless of differing living costs.
Asymmetric Information	When one party in a transaction knows more than the other about the benefits or costs of a transaction, leading to inefficiencies.
Automatic Stabilisers	Countercyclical responses that occur without guidance from the government. For example, during a recession unemployed people are out of work. During a boom, tax revenues increase more.
Balance of Trade	A comparison between the value of goods and services that are imported and those that are exported. Sometimes it will be separated into goods or just services.
Brain Drain	This occurs when skilled workers leave an economy – often due to high unemployment. It can have long-term consequences on the economy permanently.
Common Market	A customs union that has free movement of factors of production between member countries.
Comparative Advantage	If an economy can produce a good at a lower opportunity cost than another economy.
Crowding Out	This occurs if an expansion of the public sector leads to a reduction in the private sector – for example, if the government provides goods that are normally provided by private firms.
Customs Union	A free trade area with common external barriers (e.g. tariffs) against non-member countries.
Cyclical Deficit	A deficit that occurs due to downturns as part of the business cycle. Automatic stabilisers are a relevant idea: tax receipts fall during a recession, unemployment payments increase, increasing the deficit.
Depreciation	When a country's currency falls in value relative to another country's currency.
Devaluation	When a country's central bank decides to decrease the value of its currency relative to a different specific foreign currency.
Exchange Rate	The exchange rate shows the price of one country's currency in terms of another country's currency.
Externalities	A cost or benefit of a transaction that affects an agent who is not directly involved in the transaction. Externalities can be positive or negative.
Fiscal Deficit	When the money raised from taxation is lower than the government's expenditure.
Fixed Exchange Rate	A fixed exchange rate is when a country's governing body pegs the value of the currency, in terms of another, at the same level.
Floating Exchange Rate	A system which allows the value of a currency to fluctuate based on the market forces of demand and supply.
Free Trade Area	A group of countries who have an agreement to allow free trade between them. This means that there are low trade restrictions on goods and services between the countries involved.

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Gini Coefficient	A number that is calculated from the Lorenz curve ranked according to inequality levels.
Globalisation	A broad notion referring to the idea that the world is interconnected.
Human Development Index	An index that ranks countries based on a measure of education.
Infant Industries	New 'baby' industries that are undeveloped and need knowledge to survive in the market. They are often protected by the government until they have 'grown' and are self-sufficient.
J-Curve Effect	The idea that following a change in exchange rate, the trade balance worsen before it improves because of inflexibility in prices. This is due to varying elasticities of demand and supply which can negate the effect of a rate change.
Keynesian Economics	An economic school of thought that believes that aggregate demand determines output, especially during downturns, and that government intervention is effective in the effectiveness of fiscal policy measures.
Laffer Curve	The Laffer curve describes how the government's tax revenue will rise with an increasing tax rate <i>up until a certain point</i> , after which revenue will decrease as there is less incentive for people to work. It is an optimum tax rate the government can impose to maximize revenue.
Lorenz Curve	The Lorenz curve is used to show the distribution of income. It plots the cumulative income against the cumulative population.
Managed Exchange Rate	When an exchange rate can fluctuate but the government can influence the demand and supply of the country's currency by the currency itself or by changing the interest rate to 'float'.
Market Rigging	Market rigging is similar to collusion; it occurs when a group of market participants act in a way that prevents the market from functioning properly.
Monetarists	Monetarists believe that using monetary policy to control the money supply is more effective than using fiscal policy.
Monetary Union	Two or more separate countries that share a single currency union.
Monopoly	A market structure in which there is only one firm producing a good or service.
Monopsony	A market structure in which there is only one buyer of a good or service.
Moral Hazard	The idea that a party might behave differently if they are not held accountable for their activity themselves. For example, banks might take on more risk knowing that ultimately the government will bear the risk.
Multinational Corporation (MNC)	A company that has assets in at least one other country.

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National Debt	Money borrowed by the government to fund a deficit in the public sector. It is often funded by issuing interest-paying bonds.
Progressive Taxation	Tax rates that increase as income increases. Those with higher income pay a <i>greater proportion</i> of their income in taxes than lower earners.
Proportional Taxation	Taxes that are set at a constant rate regardless of income. Those earning £10,000 will pay the same proportion of their salary as those earning £100,000.
Quantitative Easing	A monetary tool used by central banks to increase the money supply and encourage private spending.
Quotas	A restriction or limit on how many goods and services can be imported or exported.
Regressive Taxation	Tax rates that decrease as income increases. Those with higher income pay a <i>smaller proportion</i> of their income in taxes than lower earners.
Relative Poverty	When a person has relatively less in relation to others in the society they live in.
Speculation	The act of trading on the anticipated price movements of an asset.
Structural Deficit	A persistent deficit that is not caused by short-term economic fluctuations.
Subsidies	Grants given by the government to domestic producers to encourage an increase in production.
Supply-side Policies	Policies that are designed to increase an economy's long-term growth and maximum productive potential <i>without causing inflation</i> .
Tariffs	Taxes imposed by governments on imports to protect domestic industries. The rate can vary depending on the type of good imported.
Terms of Trade	How many import goods a country can buy for each unit of its exports. It is a measure of a country's international competitiveness.
The Capital Account	The capital account is a relatively small part of the balance of payments such as remittances by migrants and payments for foreign investment (money received by the EU).
The Current Account	An account that measures the inflow and outflow of money from trade in goods and services, investment, to and from an economy.
The Financial Account	The account that records transfers of financial elements such as foreign property, loans, government bonds, etc. in and out of the country.
Trade Liberalisation	The reduction of barriers to trade such as tariffs, subsidies and quotas.
Trading Bloc	A set of countries that have an agreement on the terms of trade between each other.
Transfer Pricing	A method used by transnational companies to reduce their tax liability by using different accounting methods to pay corporation tax in countries with lower tax rates.
WTO	The World Trade Organization. It aims to increase international trade, liberalise trade and resolve trade disputes.

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Exam Tips!



Edexcel has designed this specification to create critical and broad-thinking economic objectives when you write your answers because these are the skills they will be looking for in 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 (there is no need to remember exact figures – knowing a few relevant case studies means you can add in a sentence or two)
- make connections and links across all the topics in each theme relevant to the question

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 microeconomics. Paper 2 looks at Themes 2 and 4, which are macroeconomics. 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 (2–4 marks). This section tests a broad spectrum of your knowledge. Questions focus on your knowledge (AO1) and application (AO2) with a few marks for analysis (AO3).
- **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-level answers.
- **Section C** provides two questions; you have a choice as to which one you answer. These are 'open response' questions, which means they require an essay-style answer. In the form of 'evaluating' a topic or point, or 'to what extent do you agree?' a question will require an AO1 and AO2 response, but do not focus too highly on AO3. You will mainly be looking at higher-order skills and AO3- and AO4-level answers.

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 micro and macro concepts.

The paper is split into two sections, and you will need to answer questions from both. There will be a 'data-response' question which will be split into sub-questions. Also in each section there will be 'open response' questions and you can choose which one you answer. Each section begins with a list of points which you should remember to analyse and refer to in your answers, as required. There will also be questions asking you to refer to the data, and references in the questions such as 'the data shows...' make sure you only answer questions you need to where there is an either/or choice.

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How the Examiner Awards Marks

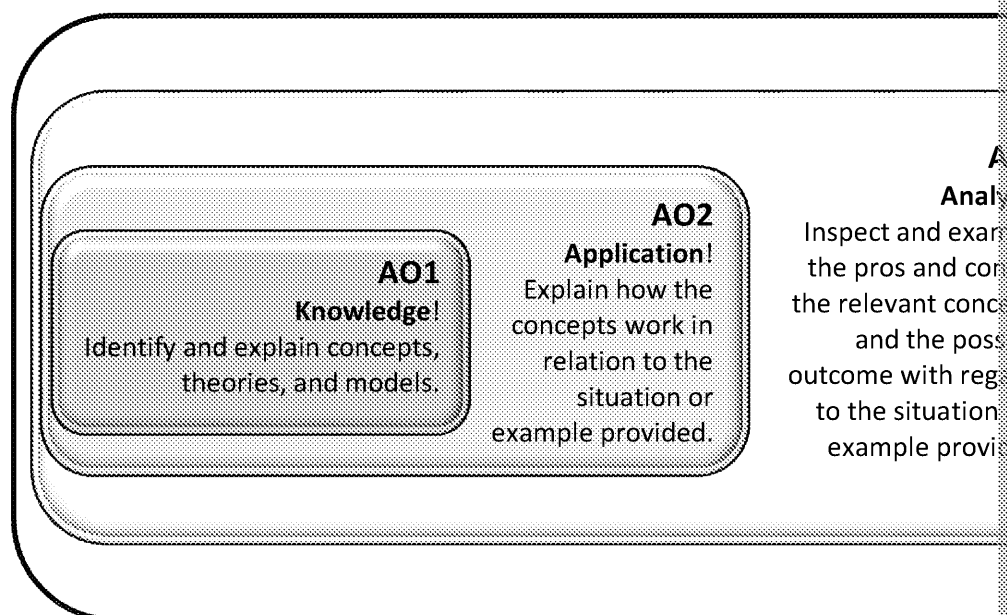
Show the examiner you know your stuff and how to make it easy for them to give you marks.

This section will guide you on how best to present your answers in a way that the examiner is looking for, what the question is asking and what an Economics student will mean you are better able to demonstrate you know your stuff in a way that is easier for the 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 examiner what they should award. Not all questions will require all the levels; make sure you have full answers to gain the highest marks, without wasting time on answers that go above and beyond what is asked.



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 give both sides of the topic. You will need to give points and concepts but 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 give a decision and a judgment is not needed.
- **‘Evaluate...’ / ‘To what extent...’**
For this question, you will need to consider the information provided, then consider 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.

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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 shows 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, strong 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. 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 it easier to remember. Equally, this gives you a chance to trawl through your memory and draw upon relevant points. It's easy to get through writing and forgotten the other point you were going to mention, or that you have to tack on? If you have a plan, it can guide you through all the points you have to cover.

Timing

In the **A Level** exams you have two hours (120 minutes) to answer the questions. It's important to keep 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 have 10 minutes for checking and this leaves you with 120 minutes to write 100 marks.
- 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.

Things to Always Check before Finishing

- Each axis on your graph is labelled, and labelled correctly
- Lines/curves on diagrams are labelled, and labelled correctly
- Micro concepts are kept for micro questions
- Macro concepts are kept for macro questions
- Calculations are correct. Start with the end number and work through the calculation, 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 points you are looking for

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