



Economics

AS and A Level | Edexcel B | 8EB0 / 9EB0



Edexcel Economics B Course Companion

Theme 2: Wider Economic Environment

zigzageducation.co.uk

POD
5868

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

Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	ii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity	iii
Terms and Conditions of Use	iv
Teacher's Introduction.....	1
2.1 Business Growth and Competitive Advantage	2
2.1.1 Growth.....	2
2.1.2 Methods of Growth.....	6
2.1.3 Research and Development (R&D) and Innovation	9
2.1.4 How the Digital Economy Affects Markets and Firms	14
2.1.5 How Small Firms Compete	18
2.2 Firms, Consumers and Elasticities of Demand	20
2.2.1 Price Elasticity of Demand (PED).....	20
2.2.2 Competing on Price	24
2.2.3 Types of Non-price Competition	28
2.2.4 Income Elasticity of Demand.....	37
2.3 Productive Efficiency.....	39
2.3.1 Productivity	39
2.3.2 Capacity Utilisation.....	42
2.3.3 Efficiency and Competitiveness Using Lean Production.....	45
2.3.4 Impact on Costs and Sales Revenue.....	48
2.4 Life in a Global Economy	50
2.4.1 Globalisation	50
2.4.2 Developed, Emerging and Developing Economies.....	52
2.4.3 International Trade.....	59
2.4.4 Exchange Rates	62
2.5 The Economic Cycle.....	65
2.5.1 The Economic Cycle.....	65
2.5.2.a Circular Flow of Income, Expenditure and Output.....	67
2.5.2.b Aggregate Demand and Aggregate Supply.....	70
2.5.3 Inflation	77
2.5.4 Employment and Unemployment	83
2.6 Introduction to Macroeconomic Policy	87
2.6.1 Possible Macroeconomic Objectives	87
2.6.2 Policy Instruments.....	89
2.6.3 Potential Policy Conflicts and Trade-offs.....	97
Keyword Glossary.....	100
Answers	102
2.1. Answers.....	102
2.2. Answers	105
2.3. Answers	108
2.4. Answers	110
2.5. Answers	111
2.6. Answers	115

Teacher's Introduction

Economic impact comes in all shapes and sizes and so, when studying the economy, it is important to look at the whole picture, from the largest market to the individual consumer.

This resource has been written to support the learning of Theme 2: The Wider Economic Environment, which forms part of the Edexcel Level 3 Advanced GCE in Economics B. It gives an in-depth view of the new qualification, presenting what specification points students need to know, plus extras along the way for extended learning.

At the beginning of this resource you will find a list of contents showing every specification point that is covered. There are also questions at the end of each topic, with answers at the end of the resource, to help students apply their knowledge to real-life economic contexts. Key terms are revised as a glossary at the end of the resource.

Students are given information about and opportunities to practise quantitative skills in this resource, including all nine of the listed skills from Appendix 3 of the AS specification.

While extremely valuable to a student's revision, this resource should be treated as a companion to the many other textbooks and activity guides available. As with any subject, it is good to read as widely as possible!

The notes included in this resource can be given to students before a lesson as preparation for a topic, afterwards in order to help consolidate their knowledge, or can be used by teachers as a supplement to in-class exercises and activities.

It is hoped that this resource, as well as offering support for teaching the essential elements of the Edexcel examination, will help students build on their research and dissemination skills. The world of economics is a constantly changing one, full of fascinating stories. This resource attempts to utilise some of these stories as a basis for teaching in the most interesting way possible, meanwhile encouraging further study by the next generation of economic analysts!

January 2016



A webpage containing all the links listed in this resource is conveniently provided on ZigZag Education's website at **zzed.uk/5868**

You may find this helpful for accessing the websites rather than typing in each URL.

Free Updates!

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

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

Go to **zzed.uk/freeupdates**

2.1 Business Growth and Competitive Advantage

2.1.1 Growth

Why Businesses Grow

There are many reasons why a business may wish to grow. Primarily, a business will grow to increase profit for the owner. The owner of a firm may be an individual, such as a corner-shop owner, or a company that has issued shares, in which case each shareholder is part-owner of the company. An entrepreneur offers a share in their company (gives part control to the dragon) for a share of the profits. If the owner is an individual, partner or shareholder, the ultimate focus is to obtain an income. The ways in which the income they receive can be done in various ways.

Growing a business can help it gain more control over its financial future. The firm can then enjoy the benefits. Growth indicates more customers and more sales, which will generate more revenue. The firm can benefit from economies of scale, allowing it to lower costs and increase profit. Growth can also help to increase revenue.

Some Businesses Choose Not to Grow

Successful businesses are able to grow and expand and so choose to do so; however, some businesses are unsuccessful and so remain stuck or even diminish in size.

Then, there are firms that are happy with their size and worry that growth will only bring problems. A shopkeeper, for instance, may have no interest in expanding their business and so may be happy with the customers and income they generate. Since business expansion generally requires borrowing money, it may appear quite risky to owners, especially when considering any interest on loans or the risk of losing the business.

Objectives of Growth

Most companies look to grow, but not every company has the same objective when it comes to growth.

Economies of Scale

Economies of scale are a long-run phenomenon that refer to the decrease in the unit costs of production as a firm grows. There are two types of economies of scale: *internal* and *external*.

Internal Economies of Scale

These refer to the decrease in the long-run average costs when a firm itself grows.

- **Bulk buying:** This refers to the ability of large firms to buy their raw materials in bulk. This allows them to buy them at a cheaper price. These cheap raw-material prices translate into lower costs for the firm. Smaller firms cannot take advantage of bulk buying to the same extent as large quantities of raw materials.
- **Financial economies:** These refer to the ease with which large firms are able to borrow money at a low rate. In other words, they can take advantage of borrowing at lower costs. Banks are more likely to lend to large firms because such firms have shown themselves to be successful – and so are less risky.
- **Technical economies:** Large firms are in a position to buy costly equipment, which can help run the business more efficiently and at lower costs. A local grocery store cannot afford refrigerated vans even though they have obvious benefits. However, a large supermarket can invest in these vans. These will have a high one-off cost but will thereafter reduce the cost of stocks without generating any extra costs.
- **Managerial economies:** Large firms are able to employ experts across the board to manage the business and productivity. These experts tend to demand high salaries, which makes it more expensive for them and benefit from their expertise.
- **Marketing economies:** Large firms are able to use their existing marketing infrastructure to promote new products as well. This means that these new products do not require further marketing. And this, in turn, lowers the long-run average cost of a firm.
- **Risk-bearing economies:** These refer to the ability of large firms to produce a wide range of products. The benefit of this is that if the sales for one item fall, a firm can rely on other products. Large product portfolios are, therefore, able to withstand economic downturns better than small firms, so, as they lack the finances to invest in a variety of products.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Let's use another example:

2000 Teas Ltd is a beverage company that specialises in producing high-quality tea. Its classic breakfast tea, which it buys from one main supplier in India. The cost of 1 kg. 2000 Teas Ltd sells its breakfast tea to supermarkets for £200 per 100kg.

The calculation to find the selling price for 1 kg of breakfast tea is:

$$\text{Selling Price of 1 kg} = \frac{\text{Selling Price of 100 kg}}{100}$$

$$\text{Selling Price of 1 kg} = \frac{200}{100}$$

$$\text{Selling Price of 1 kg} = £2.00$$

The difference between the selling price (£2.00) and the cost of raw materials (£0.50) is the profit. 2000 Teas Ltd receives for every 1 kg of breakfast tea it sells. If, however, 2000 Teas Ltd was to buy its raw materials in bulk, the company could negotiate a lower price for its raw materials.

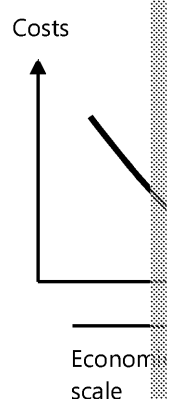
Let's calculate the difference again, but assuming 2000 Teas Ltd negotiates the cost of raw materials at £0.40 per 1 kg:

The difference between the selling price (£2.00) and the cost of raw materials (£0.40) is the profit. If 2000 Teas Ltd continues to sell at the same rate, the company will make much higher profits due to the lower cost of raw materials. This is an example of economies of scale.

Since 2000 Teas Ltd now pays less for its tea, it could bring down the selling price of its tea, which would be *generating more sales and increasing profitability* as a result.

External Economies of Scale

This refers to the decrease in the long-run average costs when the industry that a firm is in grows (rather than the firm itself). Examples may include better infrastructure in the vicinity (transport links, internet access, etc.), research and development institutes nearby that firms can benefit from or the relocation of suppliers in closer proximity to a firm.

**Minimum Efficient Scale (MES) of Production**

This refers to the size (or scale of production) at which the firm experiences the highest levels of economies of scale. This happens when a firm's long-run average costs are at their lowest.

Increased Market Power over Customers and Suppliers

Remember Porter's five forces model? Firms are constantly at odds with one another. Firms have power over their markets' suppliers and customers.

Let's use another example:

Frosty Glazers Ltd is a manufacturer of windows that buys its raw materials from a few suppliers. These same suppliers provide raw materials to most of the window manufacturers in the market and so they can exert a lot of power in the form of setting prices and quantities. Frosty Glazers Ltd understands that if the few suppliers decide to increase the price of raw materials, the company will have no choice but to pay it.

One manager at Frosty Glazers Ltd announces that she has found another supplier who provides raw materials at the same quality and at a lower price. The company starts buying from this supplier and so increases its power as a buyer over the other suppliers. Frosty Glazers Ltd can now reduce its prices in order to become more competitive and gain market share over its competitors.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Increased Market Share and Brand Recognition

Most supermarket chains, such as ASDA and Sainsbury's, work tirelessly to increase their market share (become the one name people think of when they need to do their weekly shop). Firms also try to attract their customers (and potential customers) as well as pushing all manner of advertisements. These could be anything from posters on bus shelters or double-page spreads in magazines to TV advertising. Other free offers, in-store demonstrations and loss leaders (such as selling televisions at a loss to attract customers to other selling price).

Firms often increase their market share and brand recognition as a short- to medium-term goal (strategy) of increased profitability.

Increased Profitability

Profit is the amount of revenue a business has left over after all expenses and taxes have been paid.

Profitability, meanwhile, shows how well a business is of turning revenue into profit (profit is expressed as a ratio). Businesses often pursue the objective of increasing profitability through various means.

- By purchasing raw materials in bulk, a business can decrease its total costs.
- By increasing its output, a business can decrease its average operating costs.
- Through aggressive marketing, a business can increase brand awareness on a national level.
- By decreasing selling prices, a business can make more sales overall.

Problems Arising from Growth

Growth is generally a good thing for business, but there are a few minefields to watch out for.

Diseconomies of Scale

Let's look at 2000 Teas Ltd again:

The company is able to sell 100 tonnes of breakfast tea every month (mostly to supermarkets). It can produce 120 tonnes every month. This amount is enough to fulfil demand and have some left over to deal with fluctuations in demand.

Encouraged by the number of sales generated, 2000 Teas Ltd decides to increase its production to 150 tonnes a month. However, the company soon realises that demand does not meet this supply. It has to buy more raw materials, which increases the total costs and, therefore, the average cost of 1 tonne of tea.

Internal Communication

Another diseconomy of scale can come from the expansion of a company's production processes. As a firm grows in size, the internal network of communication can become more complicated and, therefore, less efficient. If a business grows to an unmanageable point, there is a chance that the bulk of the firm's employees lose sight of whatever vision or strategy they are working towards.

As a manager's *chain of command* grows, it may also become more difficult for subordinate employees to voice their concerns or receive support in pursuing their goals. This can lead to a loss of motivation of a workforce that feels undervalued.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Overtrading and Skill Shortages

This is a common problem with new businesses.

Cool Beans Ltd is a supplier of coffee beans, which it sources from plantations in Chiapas, Mexico. The company imports the beans and then roasts them and packs them for sale in the UK. Cool Beans Ltd is a relatively new company and so has very little in terms of workforce or infrastructure. Nevertheless, the company has been inundated with demand from the get-go.

Motivated by the influx of custom (mostly from local cafés and shops), Cool Beans Ltd has taken on more staff than it can reasonably fulfil. The company is overworking its staff and running its margins too tight to cope with demand. The workforce quickly becomes demotivated as a result and Cool Beans Ltd loses the loyalty of its customers, leading to loss of earnings for the company.

What seemed like a good idea at the beginning (making so many promises to customers) has done more harm to the business than good.

The Role of Corporate Culture

The corporate culture of a business is derived from its values and, importantly, how it communicates these to the rest of the organisation. Business values can include anything from environmental friendliness (e.g. manufacturer Patagonia) to innovation (e.g. firms such as Apple) to supporting underrepresented groups (e.g. Whole Foods Market).

Firms must share their values with their staff; this helps to create a sense of direction and purpose. If a firm does not, regardless of department or function, works towards the same overarching goal. A lack of shared values with its staff may find that each department develops its own agenda as to what it wants to achieve. In turn, can create conflicts of interest and an inefficient, unproductive workplace.

Corporate values, when communicated effectively, can have great influence over the success of a business. If a firm invests very little in the sharing of corporate values, for instance, it may find that its staff accordingly. This can create a culture where workers aim to achieve only the bare minimum to get the business to survive. Conversely, if a firm devotes time and resources to communicating its values, every aspect of the business, staff are likely to feel encouraged to strive for the highest possible standards. This can lead to a noticeable increase in productivity and quality.

People, whether consumers or potential employees, are drawn to companies that have a strong corporate culture. Google is a great example of a company whose core values include continual innovation. Google shares this value with its staff and even allows employees time to work on their own personal projects. Products like Google Maps) have gone on to become essential products in the Google portfolio.

2.1.1. Questions

1. a) Explain how a business benefits from successfully communicating its values to all employees.
b) i) Look up the corporate values of The Coca-Cola Company (www.coca-colabottle.com). List three core values.
ii) Explain how communicating these values to the public can benefit the company.
2. a) What is profitability?
b) Identify and explain two ways in which a business can increase its profitability.



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.1.2 Methods of Growth

Businesses can grow either internally or externally. Internal growth occurs from investment in the business and its products. This can be done either through loans or saved (retained) profits. External growth occurs from combining firms. This can be done through merging and integrating with another (takeover).

Organic Growth

Organic growth occurs when a business grows internally. If a business is successful, it can reinvest its profits which can be reinvested as expansion. Equally, a business could grow by investing in expansion projects. Borrowing money can be done either through a loan, or by issuing shares. As well as gross investment, funding things such as marketing can allow a firm to grow its customer base. Research and development can also allow a firm to expand into new markets.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Organic Growth

- + Organic growth is less risky than attempting to integrate with another firm.
- + The growth can be financed using its own wealth (in the form of retained profits).
- + The rate of growth is generally sustainable for the business; rapid expansion can be achieved.
- + Firms retain full control over their business, whereas firms that merge have less control and may completely give over their control.
- Business growth is dependent on the growth of the market. If the market collapses, the business will also collapse.
- Organic growth tends to be a slower form of growth.

Inorganic Growth

Horizontal integration describes when one business joins another at the same stage of the production process (e.g. two farmers joining together) while *vertical integration* describes when one business joins another at a different stage of the production process (e.g. a supermarket buying out a farmer).

Let's use an example:

Dress Nation Ltd is a British clothes retailer. The company has many competitors, including online traders. The diagram below shows how Dress Nation Ltd's production process works.

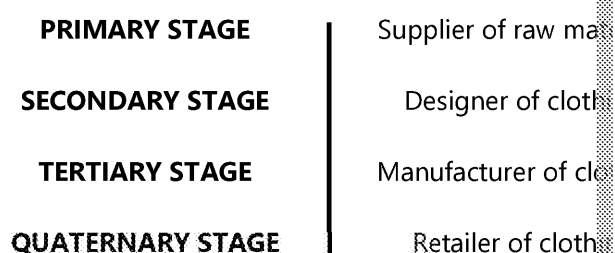


Diagram illustrating the production process of Dress Nation Ltd

Dress Nation Ltd is situated in the quaternary (fourth) stage of the production process. As a retailer, the company is the one selling products that have already been designed, manufactured and supplied. Dress Nation Ltd is now looking to grow and so it might decide to use vertical integration or horizontal integration.

Vertical: if Dress Nation Ltd purchases a clothing manufacturer, it will be integrating into a different business type (i.e. different industry sector) and, therefore, entering another stage of the production process (the tertiary stage).

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Horizontal: if Dress Nation Ltd buys out another clothing retailer, the company is horizontal because Dress Nation Ltd and the other business are the same (i.e. within the same clothing retailers).


Vertical Integration

Vertical integration can move forward (progressing along the production chain) or backward (retreating along the production chain). For example, a doll industry may have one firm collecting the cotton into material; another company stitching the doll together and the last company distributing the dolls to the public. Forward integration is integration towards the customer and the firm one production step closer to distribution. Backward integration is away from the customer and the firm one production step closer to the supplier of raw materials.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Vertical Integration

- + Merging with other businesses can bring about economies of scale (see Topic 10). For example, through bulk buying, which becomes more competitive when they grow larger. This will cut costs and make the company more competitive.
- + Firms can find the best way to produce their goods if their suppliers don't do it for profit. Backwards integration means a firm can control the supply of materials and make it more efficient. Integrating with that company can also reduce the cost of obtaining the materials at a reduced price.
- + The information gained from experience in one stage of production can be used in another. For example, a distributor could have knowledge of what products sell best and use this to inform integration with a producer.
- Firms are more embedded in one market, which can be problematic if the market will have reduced their capacity to adapt, as moving into a different market will be more difficult.
- The other stages of production can require a vastly different skill set and knowledge.


Here is a list of businesses owned by Procter & Gamble:


 http://www.pg.com/en_UK/brands/all-brands.shtml



Go to

PepsiCo are another conglomerate competing with Coca-Cola. Have a look at the company's website and compare the businesses it merged with as a result of its integration actions of the other. For example, when PepsiCo took on Tropicana, it made plans to merge with Innocent Smoothies.

 <http://www.pepsico.co.uk/brands>

 <http://www.theguardian.com/business/2013/feb/22/coca-cola-full-on>

Horizontal Integration

This involves two or more firms that do the same thing, though they often operate as competitors before the integration.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Horizontal Integration

- + The integration of the two workers into the same field means they can learn from each other's experiences. This will improve efficiency and boost innovation as 'two heads are better than one'.
- + Because the integration stays within one production stage, this makes the firm more efficient as they are more deeply rooted into one market.
- Managers may find they have less authority over the integrated workforce as they have not yet built a relationship with and may still have ties to their old company. This could lead to productivity to fall.

Conglomerate Integration

A conglomerate is a company that has merged with a variety of businesses which are not related to each other. The conglomerate can have businesses in unrelated industries and at different levels of the production chain. Procter & Gamble is a well-known conglomerate that didn't publicise the number of businesses it owned as a sponsor of the 2012 Olympics.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Advantages and Disadvantages of Conglomerate Integration

- + By expanding into other markets, a conglomerate can spread and reduce risk. If one market hits a downturn, the business could face the threat of closure. However, the business in other markets can support those in declining ones and keep the conglomerate going. The loss in one market is greater than the loss.
- Spreading across markets can cause a drain and reallocate resources away from the core business.
- The owners of the conglomerate will be inexperienced and lack the knowledge of the new market. This will be a disadvantage as they go up against firms that already have experience in the market.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Internal (Organic) and External (Inorganic) Growth

Corporate Culture Clashes (Structural Friction)

There are no culture clashes with organic growth as the body of the company remains the same. Taking on new managers or employees, but it is much easier to immerse one new person into an entire workforce. Inorganic growth, on the other hand, can be costly in the long run. Their methods of running their companies may be hard to alter the mindset of an entire workforce with the process it follows, and a culture clash could potentially lead to a collapse.

Rate of Growth

Although organic growth may be funded through borrowing, there is less risk, as it is more manageable, making it more stable. Inorganic growth gains a chunk of a business, a new workforce, greater capital and market share. This is a very quick way to grow; however, it is more production is risky. There can be structural friction and managing a new workforce. Organic production may not always go to plan.

Market Share and Control

Horizontal integration gains more market power over one industry than vertical integration. It gives firms an advantage over those firms who haven't merged with another stage in the production process. Firms gain a greater market power within the economy, which means they can manipulate the market to their benefit. Having economic market power can help in individual markets, too, because the conglomerate's lead or at least their decision would be heavily influenced by the market. Even if the non-conglomerate firm has a great market share in that industry. Organic growth does not diminish the number of competitors in the market, whereas horizontal integration does. Organic market power, even cause them to be the biggest firm. However, it is a much slower process. Horizontal integration not diminish the number of competitors in the market, whereas horizontal integration does. Organic growth does not diminish the volume of firms sharing the market.

2.1.2. Questions

3. Monty Video Ltd is an online video-streaming service. The company sends 1000 videos per week to customers throughout the UK.
 - a) The company is looking to buy out one of its competitors. Identify whether this is vertical or horizontal integration.
 - b) Two directors at Monty Video Ltd wish for the business to grow organically. Explain one reason why the directors may feel this way.

4. Copy out and complete the following sentences using the phrases *organic growth*, *horizontal* and *conglomerate*.

When a business grows internally, we call this *organic growth*.
 A business experiencing *organic growth* can do so in three forms of integration. For example, *horizontal* integration might be when one newsagent buys another newsagent, while *conglomerate* integration describes when a business buys up many different businesses from various levels of the production process. For example, *vertical* integration would be if a greengrocer buys a vegetable farm, as they are on different levels of the production process.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.1.3 Research and Development (R&D) and Innovation

Competitive Advantage through Innovation

Businesses improve their competitiveness in a variety of ways, such as by reducing their products, customer care and after-sales service, and by investing in staff training.

Competitiveness reflects the *energy and effectiveness* of all of the business's functions. *Value* to the product or service to make it *more desirable* to buyers. In order to achieve this, businesses need to innovate by doing the following:

1. *Assessing its organisational strengths and weaknesses*, including the skills and knowledge of all employees. This allows a business to analyse its present and future needs and its competitive ability.
2. *Developing strategies for external change*, including the local, national and global economic environment, competition, the environment, technology and the political climate. A business needs to have control over external change.
3. *Ensuring adequate finance is available* to implement strategies and plans.
4. *Using new and appropriate technologies* to reduce costs, increase business flexibility, increase market growth, and gain a competitive advantage over business rivals.
5. *Devising and monitor an integrated human-resources policy* to ensure that employees are motivated and knowledgeable, skilled and experienced enough to contribute to the business.
6. *Knowing who its customers are*, what they want and need and when they want it. A business's marketing mix, coupled with an integrated approach to marketing, will help ensure that its marketing objective is achieved.
7. *Outsourcing work to other businesses when and if appropriate*. This is an extension of the theory; for example, a manufacturing business specialises in the manufacturing of a product and may *have the expertise* to undertake extensive market research and so may employ a *market-research agency* to undertake such research on its behalf.
8. *Ensuring that they provide a top-quality product or service*. Best practice in quality management increases the competitiveness of a business on local, national and global bases. This is because it *guarantees of continuous quality* for a product or service. For example, businesses can achieve *ISO 9000 certification*, which is the *generic name* given to a family of *quality standards*. This provides a framework around which a *quality-management system* can effectively be implemented.

Incentive to Increase Market Power

Much of a firm's competitive advantage comes from its research and development. Firms that have a strong focus on R&D, such as pharmaceuticals, Google, Apple and Facebook, dominate their markets. By investing heavily in R&D, a firm can differentiate itself from any other firm, create a brand presence (so people see the company as different) and developing a certain reputation (so people consider the company's products as high quality).

There is an incentive for companies to invest in R&D since not only do their brand loyalty can increase as a result of this, leading to more regular sales, revenue and profit. If a firm has enough market power through R&D, it is able to be competitive without having to lower its prices. More market power also means the business can set its own prices (perhaps even higher than its rivals) without having to worry about what its rivals are charging. In addition, with more market power, a firm's profit, part of which a company can reinvest into its R&D processes to continue to improve its products.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Product and Process Innovation

While innovations in a company's product are generally quite small (such things as slightly enhancing its efficiency – think of updates to cars or smartphones as examples) they can be extremely large.

Supermarkets are a great example of process innovation: the distribution, purchasing and sales chains use have improved hundredfold since the advent of computer technology. In a supermarket and purchase a bag of crisps, those products are then communicated back to the store room to let workers know that they need to put more crisps out on display. In the future, suppliers are automatically notified how many crisps have been sold throughout the country to provide the right number of products on the next delivery.

Role of State Funding

Investment in R&D, as we discussed previously, can help firms achieve high levels of innovation, grow their market power, influence the market and create loyalty. This represents significant costs for a company but for the local economy where it is located. State governments look to encourage businesses that invest in R&D, as these bring in funds that can be invested in the local economy. Through research and development, governments can attract more people and firms to start businesses in the area, which in turn, has the potential to bring up the average real income of the area and decrease unemployment.

It is common for governments to offer grants and loans to businesses in order to encourage investment in the local area. The incentive brings more industry to the area, which in turn helps to increase the local GDP. Naturally, some disadvantages can come with offering grants to businesses, such as the cost of the grants and the potential for corruption.

Drawbacks of State Funding

Grants are expensive, for a start. If the business receiving the grant is foreign, it may not benefit the local economy but instead send the money back to its home nation. This is also the case if the business has to have to pay. In addition, encouraging new business does not necessarily mean a drop in unemployment. Many firms, especially those that need specialised workers, may not employ their own workforce and so would not do much to increase the number of job openings.

The Product Life Cycle

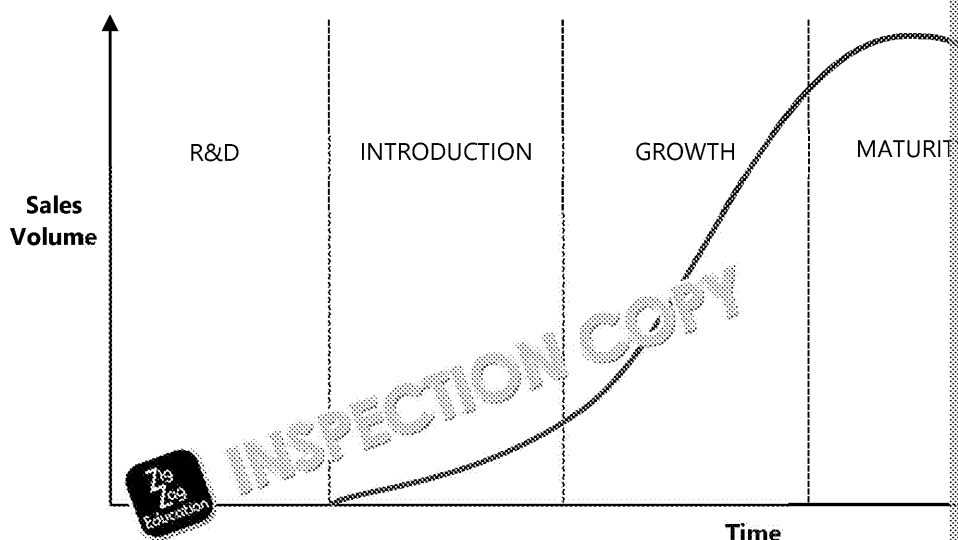


Diagram: The product life cycle

The product life cycle is the basic life story of a product/service. Much like the life cycle of a human, a product/service has a beginning, middle and eventual end. Some life cycles are incredibly long (such as toilet paper) while others have much shorter expectancies (such as mobile phones).

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Stage	Description	Cash flow
Research and Development	The point before any sales can be made	Only costs at this point
Introduction	The product/service is now launched	It is in the beginning stages and so makes few sales, has low profitability and has little market share
Growth	The product/service is becoming established	Sales and profitability are growing, as is the potential for greater market share/growth
Maturity	The product/service comes to its peak and sales have begun to level out	The brand has strong market share and so the company still receives profit at this point
Decline	Sales are falling due to decrease in market share and growth	The company may be making a slight profit or even a loss at this point

Problems with the Product Life Cycle

- It is difficult to understand which section of the life cycle a product/service is in at its life (product death). This is because markets can change and so a product that is popular now may become the ultimate must-have item the next.
- The life cycle works most effectively when markets are stable, without any dynamic changes between trends.
- The classic bell curve ignores the idea that a product/service can continuously be saved from the decline phase thanks to *life-extension strategies*, such as targeting a new audience.
- Some products/services die directly after the introduction stage because the company did not do enough research into their market – the market might not even exist! Other products decline, because companies are forever advertising.
- The product life cycle cannot show any future sales (i.e. businesses cannot tell if a product is in the cycle) and so marketers cannot see whether there are more sales to come or about to start declining.
- If a marketer is looking at a life cycle with up-to-the-minute data, there might be a spike in sales. This could look like a genuine problem for the company, which then starts to decline. If the same marketer looks at the life cycle next year, this spike/dip may now be a normal part of the cycle.
- If decline is long and drawn-out, a business might not realise and confuse this as a temporary dip. The product/service is on its last legs.

Many of today's marketers choose 'benchmarking' over using the product life cycle, comparing their business's achievements with those of the industry standard. A yo-yo company selling thousands of cases of yo-yos this year, but how does that compare with the industry? The product life cycle shows a product/service's life from start to finish and so needs all the parts to tell the whole story.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Extension Strategies

When a product or service is nearing the end of its life, a company will sometimes breathe new life into it. These strategies can prolong the life of a product/service for sometimes indefinitely. Not every strategy works, though.

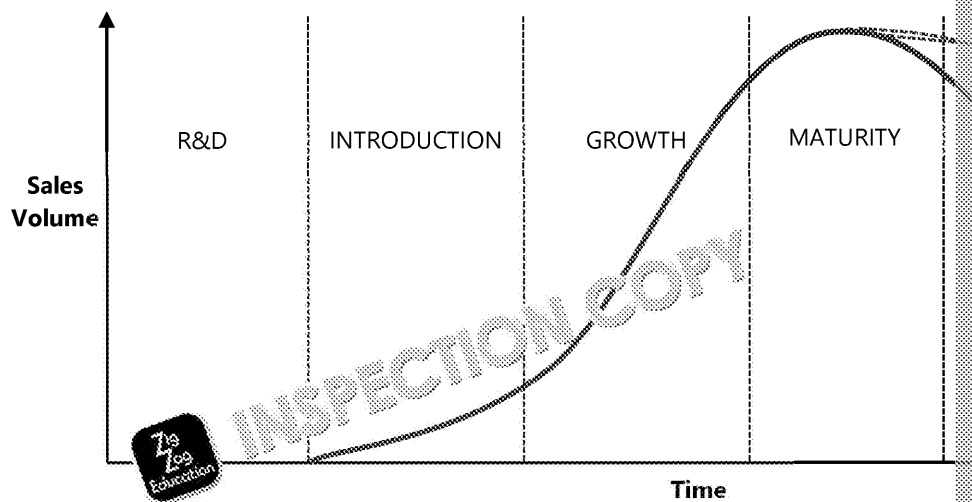


Diagram: The product life cycle with potential extension strategies

Product extension strategies involve techniques such as developing new features and services for an existing product/service. Apple, for instance, have managed to extend the lives of their most popular products by constantly updating the app store, which gives consumers the chance to buy and download new applications and games, creating a new user experience.

Promotion extension strategies involve anything from finding new users for a product to redesigning its packaging. Some products experience a new lease of life through a targeted advertising campaign, while others just get worse. Some companies try increasing the price of a product/service and suddenly get hit with high demand – this happens because many consumers value the high price with quality.

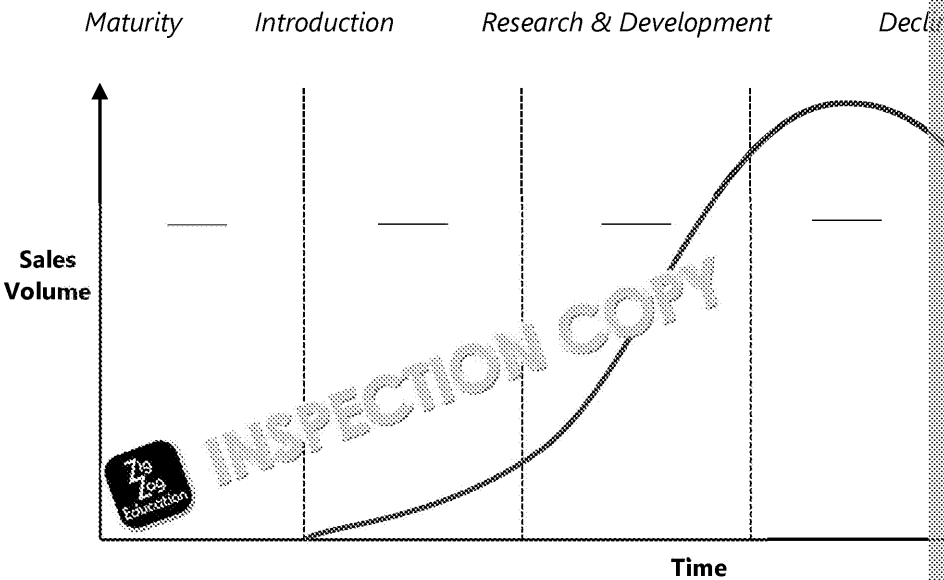
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



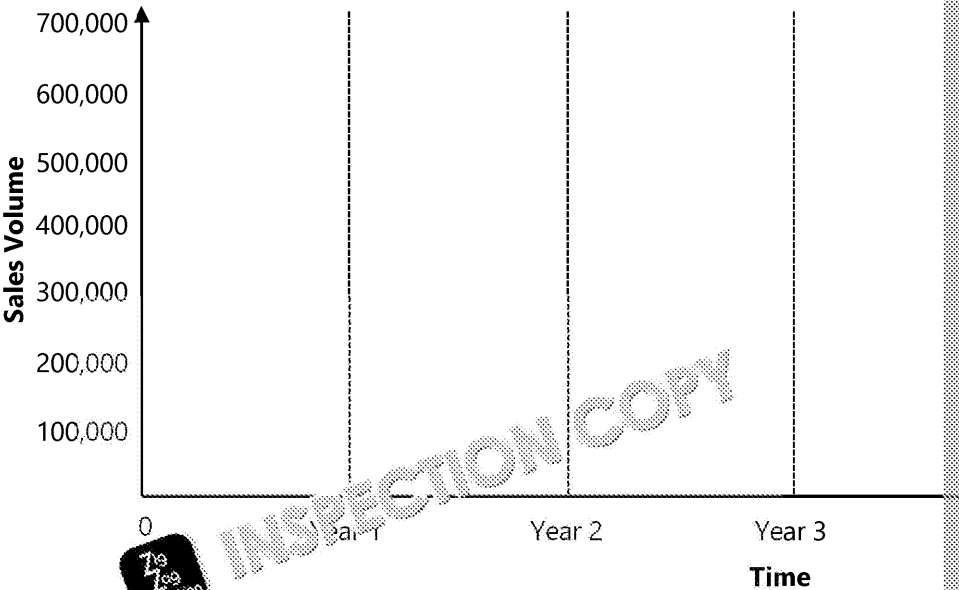
2.1.3. Questions

5. a) Copy out and complete the following product life cycle, putting each stage in the right position.



b) The soap manufacturer Squeaky Kleen is looking at the sales for a new product, Bubble Joy. The product took one and a half years of research and development, then it was introduced to the market. At the Year 2 mark, sales were recorded as 600,000. By Year 3, sales had fallen by 100,000. By Year 4, sales had fallen further and the product was finally put out of production in Year 5.

Copy out the product life cycle below and complete it with a line to show the sales volume for Bubble Joy.



6. Explain one benefit and one drawback for governments offering funding for research and development.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.1.4 How the Digital Economy Affects Markets and

Market Information in the Digital Economy

The Internet plays a major role in most people's daily lives and has changed the way we do things. It has also had a great effect on the customer-to-supplier relationship.

Price Comparison Sites

The amount of information that consumers have at their fingertips has exploded since the Internet. People no longer need to search around each shop on their local high street in order to find the best price. If someone sees a product they like, they can instantly look it up on a price-comparison website, read reviews online to find out whether the shop is offering a fair price. This strengthens the buying power of the consumer.

Viral Marketing

Nowadays, people can share content with each other in seconds – we don't even need to post it anymore. People understand this, and the power it has, so they create content to be published online. This can include video clips, images, infographics, social media campaigns, and much other content. The aim in creating this content is for someone to share it (via social media, text, etc.) that it *goes viral*.

Social Media

Shareable content can be exchanged online via email and message boards, though social media. These channels, such as Twitter, Facebook or Snapchat, can be used by businesses, too. Much like advertising at the top of search engine results, brands can appear higher on consumers' social-media feeds. This sort of brand awareness is hard to manage correctly, can result in high volumes of user-generated content, where consumers are talking to their friends about your brand.

Social-media channels also allow businesses to relate to their customers on a more personal level, responding to any questions or complaints, and to promote their brand's personality. Some entire social-media team to focus on this side of the business – and some teams will even attend events (such as the Academy Awards or BAFTAs) in case they can use their social-media to promote something!

Just as a brand can instantly communicate a message, so too can its consumers. If a consumer posts a negative review of a product or service and tells all their followers, this can easily spiral out of control. Businesses must manage this sort of negative publicity – and quickly!

The Supply Side

Micromarketing

Businesses that use mass marketing communicate their messages to as many potential customers as possible. Niche marketing, on the other hand, looks to sell only to those who have a genuine interest in a product, such as handmade jewellery or luxury vehicles. Micromarketing is a form of niche marketing that aims to attract potential customers. Businesses use social media as a way to create niche marketing offers or discounts to specific users. This technique benefits both the user, who gets a discount on clothing, and the business, which creates organic buzz around its product by sharing the offer on social media or sending the discount offer to their contacts.

Online Retailing and Distribution

The availability of new technology has changed the way firms do business around the world. Consumers can now shop at a desk or on the sofa (or even lie in bed!) and do their shopping at the touch of a button on a tablet/phone.

This change has seen a complete overhaul in retail. Businesses no longer need brick-and-mortar stores to sell their products/services. Online stores are open 24 hours a day – consumers can even shop from their beds. Businesses do not need to employ a team of sales assistants to help customers find

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



required to take physical money. All of this has allowed businesses to cut costs, with the consumer as lower prices, helping businesses retain future sales.

The rise of online retail outlets, such as Amazon, has created a more 'cut-throat' business environment where companies consistently try to outdo one another on price. Due to this, trends do not last long. If a business does not stay ahead of the curve, it will miss out. This is something that HMV and Lewis, have had to adapt to.

Can you think of any ways in which businesses such as HMV had to adapt due to online retail?

Recruiting and Training Staff with Digital Skills

In today's technological economy, there is high demand for workers with digital skills. Companies that need to find the right candidates but also on the other hand, as themselves, many have had to invest in training before the advent of computer technology. Companies can therefore, can either look for people with the desired digital skills or employ people with no experience and then deliver training to them on the job (either in-house or externally).

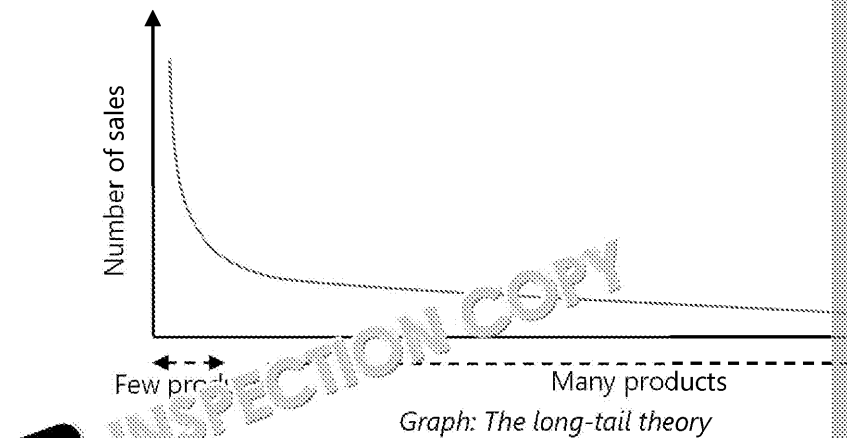
Both of these options can be expensive, however: by taking on workers without digital skills, a company must invest time and money training them to the required level. Conversely, by hiring people with the required skills, businesses will likely need to pay higher wages and work hard to keep them interested. Companies must understand that they are in demand and so can move to the prospect that best suits their needs.

The Demand Side: Long-Tail Theory and Wider Geographical Markets

Large digital companies are benefitting from what economists call the *long-tail theory*. This theory is based on the idea of selling a few choice items to many consumers, companies in the digital age sell to a large number of few consumers.

Take Amazon, for instance: for many shoppers, this is the main stop for online purchases. Amazon sells thousands of different products and, as a result, the company sells a few of each. There are some products that skyrocket in popularity, such as the final instalment of the Harry Potter series. Amazon sells thousands of different products in small quantities.

Using the long-tail theory, a graph of Amazon's sales would look something like this:



The graph of Google Play store would look similar to Amazon's: while some apps like Candy Crush, sell to thousands of consumers, most of the apps on Google Play market have a small number of consumers. A company has an initial spike of just a few popular apps and then a long tail of thousands of apps with a few consumers.

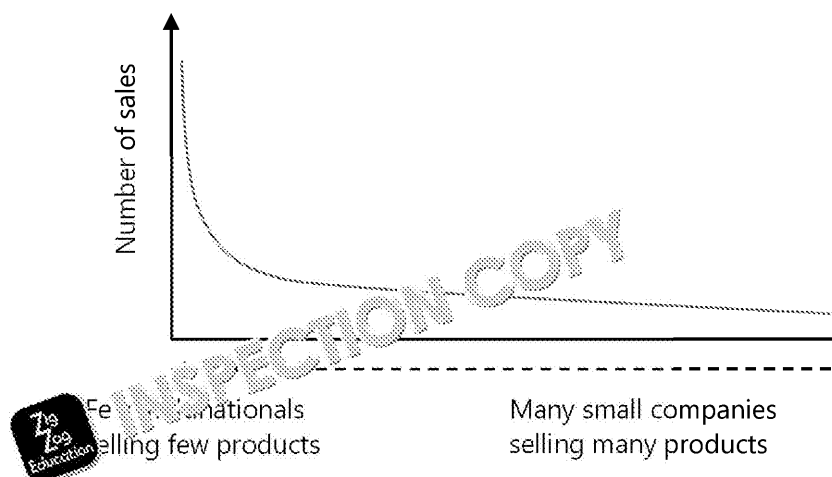
Thanks to the digital age that we live in, even the smallest company can now find a market. Selling niche products (such as handwoven woolly hats) would have previously had a limited market outside their local areas, the advent of the Internet has enabled consumers to search for what they need and order them directly from these businesses.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



This change towards digital lowers geographical borders, making the world a much more entire market, which has developed a long tail much like that of the previous graph. For their audience, they are selling many different products to a small number of consumers. McDonald's, which continues to sell its few key products (e.g. Big Mac, French fries) every day. The graph of this market would then look like this:



Graph: The long-tail theory: the digital market

Impacts on Markets and Firms

The long-tail structure of the digital market has changed the way that most firms do business. A simple bricks-and-mortar store would have been enough to peddle a company's goods, but now they require an online presence.

Getting online has led to an explosion of custom (and, therefore, revenue and profit). For example, an independent bookshop may have had trouble selling products in the past, the Internet has changed that. e-commerce sites, such as eBay, in order to sell to a worldwide audience – sudden jumps from around a couple of hundred to millions of people!

The opposite effect can also occur, however. The advent of digital created a new platform for the market and, therefore, it increased the competition. Woolworths, Comet and VHS were household names eventually all made significant financial losses and failed due, in part, to the lack of foresight from the companies' management. The traditional firms that adapted their business practices in alignment with market trends benefited from this choice and continued to sell their goods and services in a multi-platform format:

- online checkouts
- e-commerce profiles (e.g. Amazon and eBay)
- mobile apps (Apple and Google Play stores) and
- traditional bricks-and-mortar high-street storefronts

There is, of course, a plethora of online firms on the Internet that do business without even needing a physical presence. Consider eBay and Amazon: these highly successful businesses sell products and services without anyone having to set foot in their buildings. This allows digital firms to slash their costs and create more regularly attractive prices to the consumer.

Much of the successes and failures linked to the advent of digital relate to the creation of a new marketplace, i.e. the necessity for certain businesses to collapse so that other new firms can enter. In the case of digital, rather than a gradual collapse and rebirth of the market, we have seen a complete overhaul (in business terms at least). In only a matter of years, the entire marketplace has changed. It is now normal for people to choose, rather than walking into town to do their weekly shop, to use a laptop, tablet or smartphone.

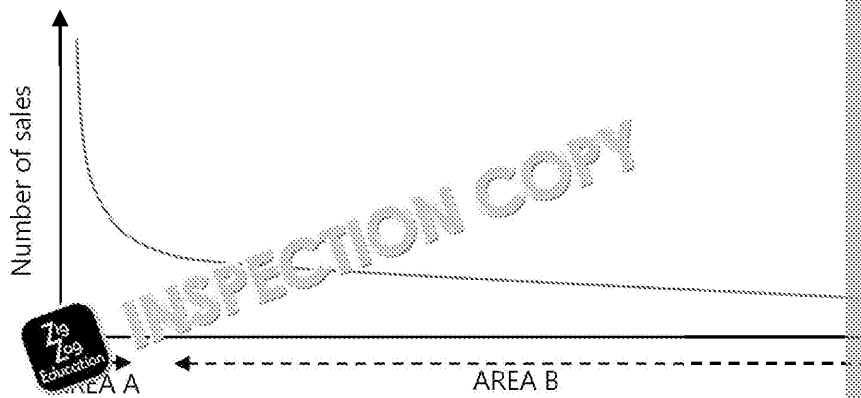
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.1.4. Questions

7. Jam and Banana is a small business that specialises in the production of fruit conserves (marmalade, jam, etc.). The company is owned and operated by two friends, who started Jam and Banana after meeting at a music festival. Banana's products are handmade and so the company's consumer base is small.
- a) Identify on the following graph (Area A or Area B) where you think the company belongs.



- b) Explain how Jam and Banana could potentially move itself into the area you have identified.
8. Which of the following digital elements has had the most effect on the success of your answer.
- Price-comparison sites Viral marketing Social media

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.1.5 How Small Firms Compete

Small-firm Survival in Competitive Markets

As businesses grow, they benefit from economies of scale – from being able to afford to negotiate lower prices to spreading the fixed costs of production across a larger quantity.

Once they reach a peak in profitability, rather than expand, many businesses make the decision to remain small. One reason for this decision is that firms can achieve a form of *competitive advantage*. This can be achieved in three main headings: *innovation*, *architecture*, and *reputation*.

Innovation

By remaining small, businesses can avoid dilution of their core competencies and focus on what they do best.

- **Product differentiation:** small businesses can maintain their differences from the larger firms in certain areas of the market and become the experts in their trade. This, rather than competing thinly across all segments of the market, allows small businesses to improve on their selling points (USPs) and make them stand out from the larger competition.
- **E-commerce:** while many large retailers began as bricks-and-mortar shops and have since moved into the online trade, small startups have the advantage that they can begin trading online and avoid the (often expensive) presence. Moreover, much like product differentiation, small businesses can become the benchmark for quality in the online sector and become the benchmark for quality in this area, too.
- **Niche Markets:** small businesses can take advantage of the demand for specific products or services that larger firms fail to satisfy. In many cases, customers are willing to pay high prices for these products, so companies can earn high profits for each sale.

Architecture

A small business is able to maintain tight controls over its network of internal (employees, suppliers, etc.) relationships. It can also be much easier for small businesses to negotiate with external parties in cooperation than large ones because employees feel more directly responsible for the success of the business.

- **Positive management:** with a relatively short chain of command, business owners can have a direct influence on company processes, which can help with motivation of staff and, ultimately, the success of the business.
- **Shared strategy:** since owners have a closer relationship with their staff, it is easier to implement strategic and tactical decisions. This also means that any changes can be disseminated at an efficient rate, allowing the business to react quickly to internal and external information. By keeping all stakeholders informed of aims and objectives, ensuring that everyone is working towards the same ultimate goals.

Reputation

Quality is vital for a business when it comes to asserting competitive advantage. Reputation is a key factor in operation has its benefits here, too:

- **Flexibility:** with a short chain of command (compared to that of a larger firm), small businesses can react relatively quickly to any changes in customer requirements. This sort of flexibility can be a key to building a reputation with customers and also works as a promotional tactic to entice new customers.
- **Customer service:** the flexibility of a small business is increased by the fact that it is not bogged down by rather than reams of bureaucracy. As such, small businesses are also able to offer a high level of customer service. It comes to customer service. Once again, this improves the business's reputation and makes it a more attractive element to any potential new customers.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.1.5. Questions

9. Identify how firms benefit from staying small with regards to innovation architecture. Choose one firm for each focus.
- a) Innovation
 - b) Reputation
 - c) Architecture
10. Haverford West Caravans is a small business owned and operated by a Nikolai. The pair rent caravans to tourists for anywhere from one night have experienced considerable growth in recent times and demand for increased significantly.
- John would like to expand the business by hiring more employees, who business should stay small.
- Decide who you think is correct in this situation and explain why this is

2.1 Key

Profitability:	how profitable a business is, comparing gross, operational sales revenue
Horizontal integration:	when two or more businesses merge at the same stage
Vertical integration:	when two businesses merge from different stages of production
Conglomerate integration:	merging of multiple businesses that are all at different stages of production
Unique selling point (USP):	a feature that makes a product/service appear different from others
Objective:	a business's objectives are those goals/targets required to achieve its purpose
Competitive advantage:	firms that positively distinguish themselves from the competition, or the competitive advantage, or the edge, over their competitors
Differentiation:	the ways in which a company gains competitive advantage through product branding, price, marketing and customer service

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.2 Firms, Consumers and Elasticities of

2.2.1 Price Elasticity of Demand (PED)

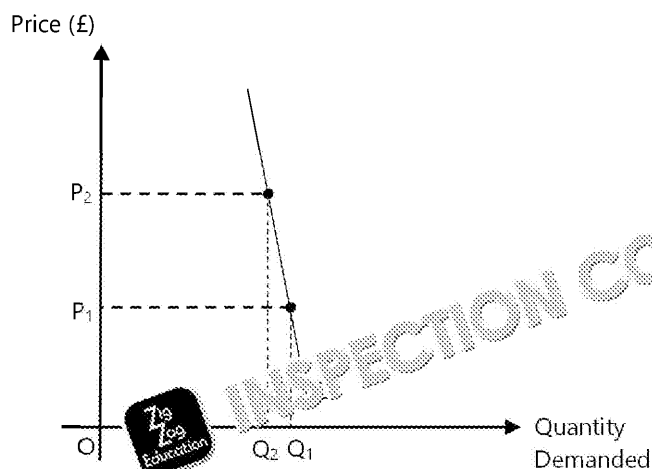


Diagram: Inelastic demand

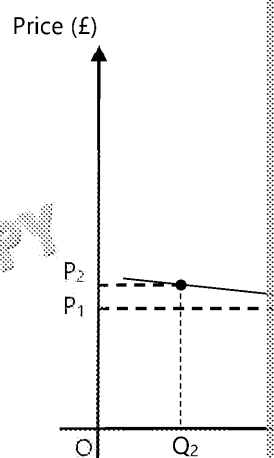


Diagram: Elastic demand

Elasticity of demand measures the amount that quantity demanded will change as a result of a change in its surroundings. Elasticity of demand can be thought of as the sensitivity of demand to a change in price. There are different types of elasticity that measure the responsiveness of demand to different factors. You will only need to know about price elasticity of demand for your exam. This topic will make more sense as you read on.

The type of market in which a product exists has significant effect on its PED. Mass markets, for instance, such as value-brand crisps and toilet paper, are subject to extreme price competition and so consumers can be heavily influenced by the perception of good value. The demand for niche market items on the other hand, such as high-quality journals and glassware, is much less affected by price. Instead, consumers often look for the one product that best fits their needs and that is of a high calibre.

Is the market mass or niche?

Price Elasticity of Demand

Price elasticity of demand measures how much a change in price will change the amount demanded. If prices rise you are likely to buy less of the good. But what elasticity of demand do you have? You will reduce your spending by...

Think of your favourite flavour of crisps: how many packets of crisps would you buy if the price was reduced to £1, and how many would you buy if they rose to £2? You think is... and instead swap to another flavour, or another product.

If something is price inelastic it means you are unlikely to change the quantity you buy as a response to the change in price. As you can see on the diagram of inelastic demand, this is because, although there is a large change in price (P_1 to P_2), there is a relatively small change in quantity demanded (Q_1 to Q_2).

If something is elastic it means you are likely to change your quantity demanded in response to a change in price. As you can see on the diagram of elastic demand, this is because, although there is a small change in price (P_1 to P_2), there is a relatively large change in quantity demanded (Q_1 to Q_2).

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The formula for elasticity is derived by calculating the gradient of the line:

$$\text{gradient} = \frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta X}$$

However, because the demand curve is negative, for ease we use the 'negative reciprocal' to produce a positive number. For those who don't do maths, this means we 'flip' the fraction. As we are concerned with percentage change, we get...

$$\text{PED} = \frac{\Delta \text{Quantity Demanded } \%}{\Delta \text{Price } \%} \quad \text{percentage change is calculated like this =}$$

- If PED is **greater** than 1, then it is **elastic**
- If the PED is **less** than 1, then it is **inelastic**
- If the PED = exactly 1, then this has unitary elasticity, which means a change in price results in an equal change in quantity.

It is the magnitude (size) of the elasticity that is important, not the sign. The negative sign is due to the negative relationship between price and quantity demanded (which is the law of demand). Focus on the size. The example below rounds the elasticity to **1 decimal place!**

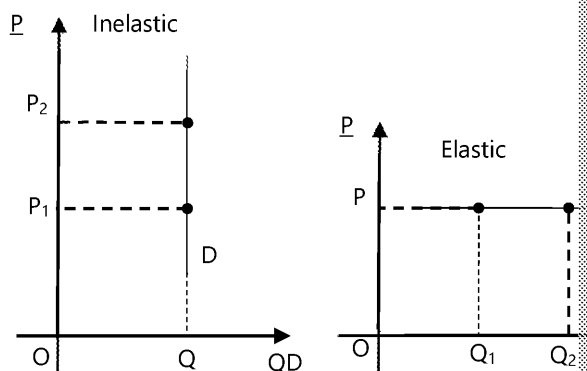
For example: The price for a magazine rose from £3 to £3.50 in a corner shop, and the quantity bought fell from 20 to 15, what would the elasticity be?

$$Q: \text{old} = 20, \text{new} = 15 \quad (\text{percentage change in quantity}) \Delta Q\% = \left[\frac{(15 - 20)}{20} \right] \times 100 = -25\%$$

$$P: \text{old} = £3, \text{new} = £3.50 \quad (\text{percentage change in Price}) \Delta P\% = \left[\frac{(3.50 - 3)}{3} \right] \times 100 = 16.7\%$$

$$\text{PED} = \frac{-0.25}{0.17} = -1.5$$

We ignore the '-', so the PED is 1.5. Because $1.5 > 1$ the demand for the magazine is elastic.



The graphs above only show 'relative elasticity' and 'relative inelasticity'. Perfectly elastic and perfectly inelastic demands are shown in the diagrams below. Perfectly inelastic has a PED of (exactly) 0, as the quantity demanded will not change with a change in price. Perfectly elastic has a PED of infinity, as the quantity demanded changes with no change in price.

The elasticity of a good has a close relationship with the revenue a firm receives.

Factors that Influence Elasticities

Substitutes (Availability of Substitutes)

If there are lots of available alternatives then customers can easily 'substitute' one good for another. They are therefore likely to change their consumption as a response to a small change in price. Goods with many substitutes usually have elastic demands. On the other hand, if the good is unique or has few substitutes, then it is likely to have an inelastic demand. This is because customers cannot easily switch to another good; instead they have to limit the amount they use; reducing their consumption is easier than finding a substitute.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Necessity of Luxury

If the good or service is essential the consumers are unlikely to change the amount. Goods that are fundamental to consumers will have inelastic demands. A luxury good, such as tickets to a football match, will have a more elastic demand because it is not vital and consumers can forgo the good and go to the cinema instead. Demand is more sensitive.

Proportion of Spending

Something that is relatively cheap takes up a smaller proportion of total spending than something that is expensive. Goods and services that make up a smaller proportion of expenditure will have more elastic demands than those which make up a larger proportion. For example, consumers are more likely to change their consumption of electricity if the price were to rise than they would be to change their consumption of food. This is because the price of the good that makes up a larger proportion of expenditure will have a more inelastic demand.

Time Period

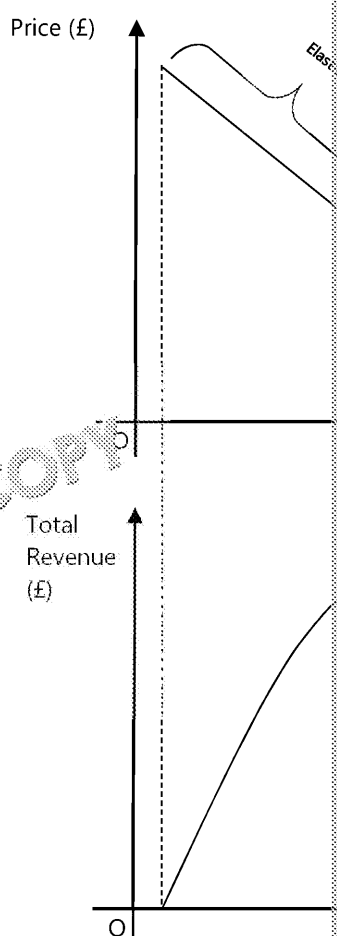
People are more likely to change their consumption in the long term than in the short term for a variety of reasons. First, people may not change their consumption of a good because they are used to it over time. Equally, people may take time to collect information and make decisions before switching. Second, as people may be unable to change immediately because they have commitments. For example, if the price of a mobile phone contract rises, people may not be able to swap for a few months. If the price of a holiday increases, people may not be able to swap for a few months. Demand tends to be inelastic in the short term but elastic in the long term.

Habitual Consumption

If people are used to buying a good, then they are unlikely to change their consumption. For example, if the price of a good rises, it is difficult for people to recognise and adapt habits and therefore people are likely to continue to buy the same amount of goods they are used to buying. Goods that are habitually consumed will have inelastic demands.

Price Elasticity of Demand and Total Revenue

First, let's look at price elasticity over the demand curve. The price elasticity of demand varies as you move across the demand curve. This is because the ratio of quantity to price changes and the significance of a changed price varies. At the top end of the demand curve, prices are high, so a change in price is likely to have little significance, e.g. if a good was £1.50 and rose to £1.70 you're unlikely to change the amount you buy. However, at the bottom of the demand curve, prices are low and a change in price is more noticeable, i.e. if a good was 20p but increased to 40p you are more likely to change your consumption. Additionally, at the top end of the demand curve, prices are high and quantity is low so $\frac{P}{Q}$ is high. As this is the equation for elasticity, at the top end of the demand curve elasticity is high. At the bottom end of the demand curve, prices are low and quantity is high so $\frac{P}{Q}$ is low and elasticity is low. In the middle, quantity and prices are the same. This is where unit elasticity is found, where the change in price will equal the change in quantity.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Total revenue is the total amount of money a firm has received for all its goods and services. It is calculated as the price of a good multiplied by the total number sold. Elasticity affects the total number of goods sold and therefore has an effect on total revenue.

$$TR = P \times Q$$

At the top end of the curve where the price elasticity is elastic, a change in price will have a large effect on quantity. Although price has decreased (which would decrease elasticity), the quantity sold increases enough so that overall total revenue would increase. This can be seen on the diagram.

In the middle, a decrease in price will cause an equal decrease in quantity, the ratio of the change in price to the decreasing quantity is the same and the overall effect is that total revenue will not change.

On the bottom half of the demand curve, where it is price inelastic, a decrease in price will cause a small increase in quantity. At this point, the increase in quantity is not enough to offset the decrease in price and total revenue begins to fall.

2.2.1. Questions

1. a) What is meant when a good has a relatively price-inelastic demand?
b) Draw a perfectly price-inelastic demand curve.
2. a) What is meant when a good has a relatively price-elastic demand?
b) Draw a perfectly price-elastic demand curve.
3. The price of a fizzy drink has increased from £2 to £2.50, while the demand has fallen from 1,000 customers to 700 customers.
 - a) What is the price elasticity of demand?
 - b) Does this value indicate the good is price elastic or price inelastic?
 - c) What is the total revenue of the fizzy-drink company before and after the price increase?
 - d) Does this indicate the fizzy-drink company was at the top end or bottom end of the demand curve and why?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.2.2 Competing on Price

Pricing Strategies

Price Skimming

This involves charging a higher price on release of a product or when it is in the growth stage of the product life cycle. Companies use this technique as a way to make back a significant portion of the funds that lead up to a product’s launch, such as research and development and production costs. This strategy is often used by games console manufacturers. There is a risk, though: if one games company releases its new console at a high price at the same time that another new console enters the market at a similar price or lower, this could result in a significant loss of potential sales.



Microsoft produces new consoles frequently.

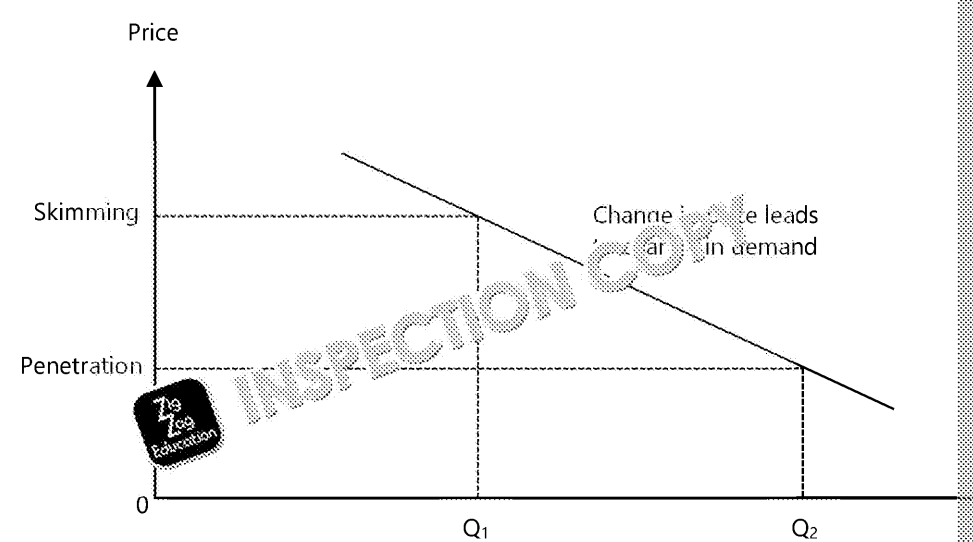
Price Penetration

At the other end of the spectrum is price penetration: this is when a company charges a low price for their product or service. This is sometimes used on the launch of a new product as a way to quickly gain market share. A publisher, for instance, may use this technique to launch a new magazine. One drawback to this technique comes if other businesses decide to start a price war on your hands, which is not good for anyone (except perhaps the consumer).

Price Skimming	Price Penetration
When the price of a product is inelastic	When price is very elastic
Quickly recoup costs of R&D	Recoup costs of R&D over time
Product life cycle is relatively short	Product life cycle is long
Barriers to entry are high	Barriers to entry are low
If PED is unknown, it is better to be safe with a high price on introduction	If a business is able to sell large volumes, it can save money

Table: Why businesses choose price skimming or price penetration

The graph below shows the relationship between demand and price when a business uses price penetration or price-skimming strategy. When a business enters the market with a high price than the rest of the market (price skimming), demand will probably be low. On the other hand, if a business enters at a ludicrously low price, undercutting all competition, demand should go up.



Graph: Price penetration vs price skimming – adapted from Bain & Company

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Competitive Pricing

Price leadership is common in oligopolistic markets, such as the airline industry. One business sets the price for a product or service and then all other businesses will follow. The price is set by the established company that controls the largest market share due to selling high-quality products. By setting the going rate, price leaders demonstrate their dominance and premium status, which helps to retain brand loyalty, as customers perceive them as the high standard. It also means that the business has lower price elasticity of demand (PED) since customers will be more willing to pay a higher price to believe the product is of the highest quality.

A market that has clear price leadership will have a number of *price takers*. These are businesses that accept the market price set by its price leader/leaders. Price takers cannot compete on price as the market price is high – if a price taker decided to increase the price of its product, consumers would switch to a competitor that offers it at the market price.

Price discrimination, or *yield management*, involves a business charging different prices for the same product in the same market. An example of this is the cinema, where businesses will manage their prices according to the day or target audience, e.g. school performances tend to be cheaper.

Perception of Price Leadership

Price leadership can turn into *collusion* if the market price of a product/service increases and businesses are needing to rise.

Nowadays, it is illegal for businesses to get together and decide on the price of a product. A group of businesses that collude together to fix the price of a product/service is called a *cartel*.

Cost-Plus Pricing

One common method that businesses use to determine how much to charge for their products is *Cost-Plus pricing*. This method involves calculating the average cost of producing an individual unit and then adding a *mark-up*, which considers how much consumers would actually be willing to pay for the product.

$$\frac{\text{Total budgeted cost} + \text{Mark-up}}{\text{Budgeted sales in units}}$$

The following data shows figures for Larry Wellington's shoe shop. Larry plans to produce 5,000 pairs of shoes and to charge a mark-up of 25% on each pair of shoes. Larry has budgeted for £10,000 of fixed costs. The variable cost of each sale will be £2.00.

Total budgeted fixed costs	£10,000
Budgeted variable cost per unit	£2.00
Mark-up percentage	25%
Budgeted sales in units	5,000

Total cost:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \text{Total fixed cost} + \text{Total variable cost} \\ &= £10,000 + (£2.00 \times 5,000) \\ &= £20,000 \end{aligned}$$

Mark-up:

$$\begin{aligned} &= £20,000 \times 0.25 \\ &= £5,000 \end{aligned}$$

Total cost + Mark-up:

$$\begin{aligned} &= £20,000 + £5,000 \\ &= £25,000 \end{aligned}$$

Budgeted selling price per unit

$$\begin{aligned} &= £25,000 \div 5,000 \\ &= £5.00 \end{aligned}$$

The final price per unit is £5.00. This includes the cost of the item plus mark-up to cover the business's overheads and profit.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Price Tactics

These are the short-term price manipulations that companies use on a day-to-day over their rivals.

Discounts: Companies offer discounts for a short time as a way to stimulate demand. They include two-for-one offers and buy-now-pay-less schemes.

Special promotions: A company may choose this tactic if sales decline for one of its products. It sometimes uses this tactic, for example, by offering eight cans in a pack instead of six.

Loss leaders: This tactic involves selling one product at an artificially low price in order to attract customers to see what else is on offer. Supermarkets often stock loss leaders, such as a DVD player for £1, to draw the attention of customers and bring them through the door.

Psychological pricing: A company might want to get £10 for its product, but decide on a lower price as an emotional tactic that plays on the fact that £10 is not as much of a bargain as £9.99.

Predatory pricing: When a business sets a price so low that it threatens to destroy a rival, it is using predatory pricing. This sort of pricing should only be done in the short term and the business must be able to afford to make such losses. Businesses must be careful, though, not to go against the Competition and Fair Trading Act.

Factors that Influence Pricing Strategy

Businesses make pricing decisions based on a mix of factors. Some of these factors are internal, while others are external.

Competitors: Are there other similar products or services available on the market? If so, how are they priced? A product differently depending on its price. Product differentiation comes into play here. Unique selling points (USPs) of a good can have significant sway over how much consumers value it. Firms need to decide on appropriate pricing. Firms should take care, though, not to make their product too different from the crowd and they might just lose their audience.

Costs: Can the product be manufactured at a cheaper rate? Businesses need to understand their costs to introduce a product to the market and the profit they wish to make.

Demand: Businesses must understand the price elasticity of demand for their market. If demand is *price elastic*, any increases to its price could *significantly reduce* market demand (e.g. luxury goods). If demand is *price inelastic*, any changes to its price may *not make* much difference (e.g. petrol or bread: these goods are essential to our society and so people will probably buy them even when prices go up).

Pricing objective: What is the business objective? Is it to expand? Increase profit? These objectives will have a bearing on which pricing strategy a business chooses.

Target audience: Does the business want to sell to the general public or to a specific group? If the target audience has a particular age range? A business will need to consider this when setting a price.

Product life cycle: Does the product have a long or short life cycle? If the life cycle is long, the business can afford to charge less because it will make sales over a longer period.

The marketing mix: How different is the product/service from its competitors? Does the brand have a strong presence within the market? A business must also consider its position in the market. Whether it is a price leader or taker. If the business is a leader with a strong brand, its product will be less price elastic.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Changes in Pricing to Reflect Social Trends

The rise of the Internet has given way to more innovations in communication than predicted – and the world continues to change, as does business.

Online sales: Pioneered by Amazon, online selling is a firm fixture in today’s market. If you find something you like, there’s no point putting any money down until you’ve sold online can be much cheaper since producers do not need a physical location.

Price-comparison sites: No one likes buying car insurance, and before price comparison sites, you had to call around. Now, you can go online, choose your price range and instantly find a list of packages.

Both online sales and price-comparison sites have created a climate of competitive work in a price-transparent environment – if customers don’t like your price, they can find the same product. Due to this, marketers need to reconsider their pricing strategies. Some parts of the production process (such as packaging) in order to reduce cost and pass it on to the consumer. Another method is to use social media as a way to encourage consumers to try new businesses, such as subscription boxes, that offer a variety of products and services.

2.2.2. Questions

4. a) Bill Oddity plans to open a birdseed shop. He has projected that he will sell 25,000 bags of seed in his first year and would like to charge a mark-up of 20% on his costs. Use the table below to calculate the price per unit (bag of seed) that Bill should charge.

Total budgeted fixed costs	£1,500
Budgeted variable cost per unit	£0.25
Mark-up percentage	20%
Budgeted sales in units	25,000

- b) What would happen to the price per unit if Bill increased the mark-up to 30%? Do you believe consumers would pay this price? Explain your answer.
5. Identify and explain two factors that can influence a business’s pricing strategy.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.2.3 Types of Non-price Competition

There are many forms of non-price competition (from advertising and promotion to distribution). Each form of competition can affect the *position* of the *demand curve*, and as consumer demand grows ever greater.

Let's look at some of the ways in which companies can increase their competitiveness.

Differentiation in the Design Mix

Markets are always changing and so is consumer expectation. What was acceptable considered out of date today. Businesses often react to consumer trends by creating innovative products or innovating on an existing product to make it more appealing (e.g. changing design). Dyson understood that the vacuum cleaner was a source of frustration for many people, so he invented the 'bagless' vacuum.

Another method is to introduce an existing product to a new market (e.g. repackaging for a different audience or marketing to different countries). Once only found in colder climates, tins of soup are now a thriving market in many African countries.

Whichever method it chooses, a company will ensure it has a complete design mix.

The *design mix* splits into three main areas: function, aesthetics and cost. Some firms prioritise costs first and address the other elements later. Other companies may concentrate on aesthetics first. Airlines, for instance, were once seen as a luxury and so aesthetics were very important (e.g. luxurious comfort). Nowadays, economy airlines have changed the way we think about air travel (e.g. something more people can afford and so the design mix has had to change, too).

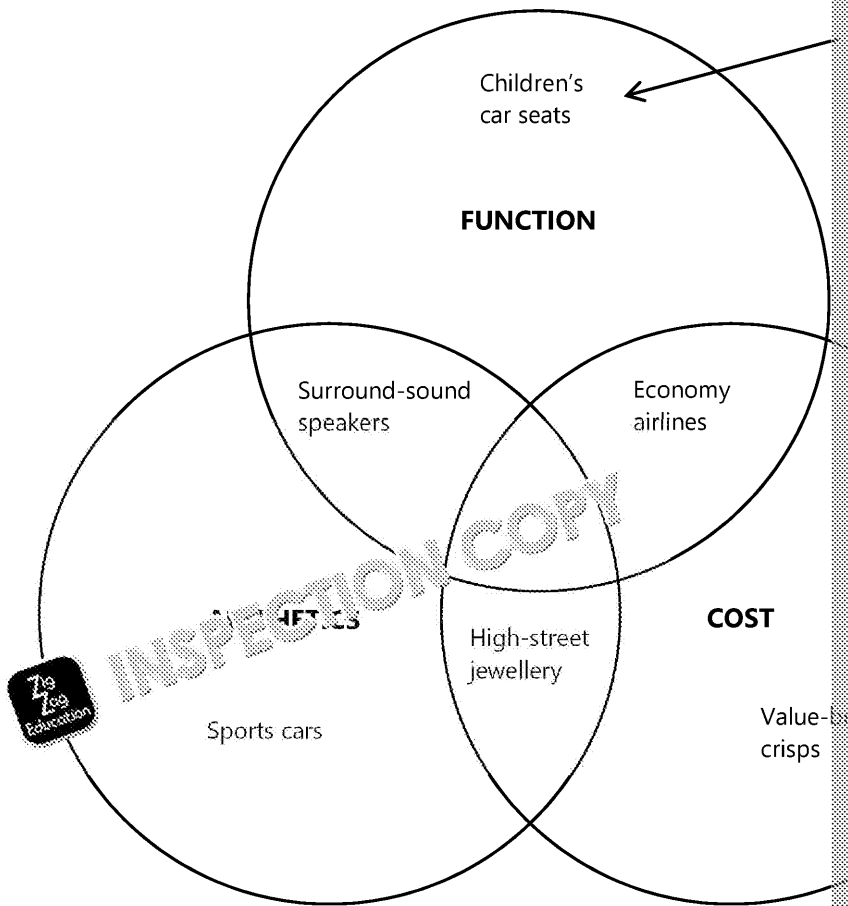


Figure: Example products and services in the design mix

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Some Things Never Change

Businesses have to understand their markets and be aware of what competitors are doing. At the end of its life cycle, for instance, a business should be ready to introduce a new product on the current product.

Some things, however, never seem to go out of fashion. Coca-Cola and Cadbury's have had impressively long life cycles. Even when consumer tastes change, these products are able to survive through an effective design mix.

How the Design Mix Can Change

Firms decide how to manage their design mix using a variety of factors, including competition, customer expectation, environmental issues and the market. They also need to take into account their own business objectives. If a business is looking to maximise profits, it has to consider whether the best way to achieve this is by cutting costs, making the most attractive product or offering a unique selling point that no other brand has.

Changes in Design Mix and Social Trends

The design mix of a firm can change depending on a variety of internal and external factors. A firm may change in a few years. A business must be able to react to this and fulfil customer needs that someone else will!

Sustainability: This has become an integral aspect of business – not just because of environmental concerns but because this is what consumers expect. As such, many firms have led the way in terms of *recycling* by starting or joining schemes that give back to the planet (e.g. reducing the carbon footprint required to ship a product or planting trees for every three products sold).

Ethics: General business practices have had to change, too. In today's digital world, consumers can research an organisation and learn whether their processes are ethical. Firms now promote the fact that they use suppliers that pay fair wages to factory workers, while the fashion industries have worked to stamp out animal cruelty from their business practices.

Health: The modern consumer is no longer willing to just buy something without thinking about its health. Fast-food chains, such as McDonald's, have had to change their product ranges in response to demand for healthier options. This rise in demand has also brought organic food into the spotlight. In certain independent shops, consumers can now buy organic produce in most major cities.

Technology: Technological advancement has the power to influence how firms do business. Consumers have become more powerful as consumers. Online shopping is now the norm – and home delivery, too. You can go to an electronics shop, find a TV you like and look up prices on your phone while you're there. Firms have had to change their models to match this – and you can now order anything you like online. This is true for books, like, too, with films and TV series available directly to your television, laptop, mobile phone and surely there are more to come!

Government: Legislation, such as the Paris Agreement to climate change, has created a need for businesses to behave more responsibly. This can be seen in equal employment policies, but also in environmental regulations. Have you noticed an increase in wind turbines or solar panels?

Business objective: Whether a business is looking to survive, enter a new market, challenge a market leader, it will need to formulate a working design mix. For survival, the business needs to increase sales. However, if it wants to become market leader, it may need to focus on developing a unique selling point.

A unique selling point (USP) is any feature that makes a product appear different from its competitors. It is created through intense research and development while others come out of external factors.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Advertising, Promotion and Branding

The promotional mix, also known as the *marketing communications mix* or *marcom*, consists of all the communications that a company uses to promote its products or services. From public relations to sponsorship and advertising, promotion is an essential part of any business.

Public Relations

Companies use this technique as a way to *increase selling potential* of their products and services. They achieve this in many ways, such as sponsoring events, generating positive media coverage (in the news), encouraging employees to have a respectful attitude towards anyone in contact with the business and understanding how to handle negative publicity.

Advantages of Public Relations:

- Businesses promote themselves through storytelling, which can incite great interest.
- Through this promotion, businesses create a name for themselves, which consumers remember.

Disadvantages of Public Relations:

- It is difficult to measure success with this method.
- Once a business story is released to the press, it can become skewed through the word of mouth.

Direct Marketing

This involves contacting carefully selected target audiences on an individual basis, usually through 'personalised' letters. Direct selling initiatives aim to get an immediate response, create long-lasting relationships and build on their customer database.

Advantages of Direct Marketing:

- Businesses can track the success of their work.
- Companies can test the usefulness of a method before opening it to a full-scale campaign.

Disadvantages of Direct Marketing:

- Many consumers do not want to be contacted, especially in an unsolicited manner.
- This form of promotion can lead to poor-quality leads.

Personal Selling

Businesses will often send a sales representative to meet with potential customers in person. This is done to promote the human side of the business, injecting personality into the marketing process.

Advantages of Personal Selling:

- Person-to-person means the method can be adjusted to whatever the business needs.
- This is a good way to build strong personal relationships.

Disadvantages of Personal Selling:

- Personal selling has a high cost per action (CPA), i.e. the price of finding a customer.
- Employees require training in order to practise personal selling.

Advertising

This consists of any paid form of communication that is not personal. Companies use advertising to reach consumers and persuade them to buy their product or service without having any direct contact. Advertising include newspapers, television, radio, buses and bus shelters, hoardings and cinema.

Advantages of Advertising:

- The potential for consumer reach is great.
- Some types of advertising can be easily tracked.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Disadvantages of Advertising:

- If an advertising campaign becomes too ubiquitous (i.e. you see/hear it everywhere) a backlash from consumers who now hate the company – is all publicity good?
- Potential for reach is great, but targeting can be impersonal and so consumers

Sales Promotion

This is a short-term *incentive technique* designed to encourage and persuade the customer to buy a service. Examples of this include in-store samples and demonstrations, competition, time/inventory offers and buy-now bonuses.

Advantages of Sales Promotion:

- Promotions can help encourage repeat purchases.
- They can also entice customers who previously may have been reluctant to make a purchase.

Disadvantages of Sales Promotion:

- The sales from promotions can often be one-time purchases and then never return.
- They are also expensive to manage (i.e. if the promotion does not work, the firm has lost money).

Sponsorship

Companies use sponsorship to promote their products or services to consumers through live events. Examples of this technique include sponsoring live events, organising product placement and celebrity endorsement.

Advantages of Sponsorship:

- If people like the sponsored event, the business's brand can receive a positive association.
- Since people are already watching the event, the firm can easily disseminate its message.

Disadvantages of Sponsorship:

- If people dislike the event, the brand receives a negative knock-on effect.
- Some events, such as the Olympic Games, are so big that numerous brands sponsor them, leading to clutter and so limited genuine brand exposure.

Digital Communications

Information technologies allow businesses to reach out to more potential customers. Examples include scope for online advertising, product-focused apps, mobile adverts, user-generated content and social-media sponsorship.

Advantages of Digital Communications:

- Businesses can target the consumers they want through paid search results and display advertising.
- Digital is much cheaper than physical communications, such as newspapers and magazines.

Disadvantages of Digital Communications:

- Since most brands are looking to advertise, there is great potential for ad clutter.
- As consumers become more Internet-savvy, they are learning to ignore digital advertising.

What Influences a Business's Choice of Promotional Mix?

Choosing the right promotional mix depends on the business and its objectives. So

- **Budget:** How much money has been allocated to the company's promotional mix?
- **Competition:** Who is the competition, what is their potential threat and what can be done to combat them?
- **Promotion objectives:** Are the promotion objectives to create product awareness, generate sales or enquiries?
- **Product:** What mix would best suit the product?
- **Product life cycle:** What stage is the product at in the life cycle?
- **Target market:** Who are they? What do they need or want? When do they need it and why?

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

What is Branding?

While promotional activities can be used to generate an immediate reaction, so that consumers buy a product or service (e.g. a clothes shop advertising a limited end-of-season sale), companies use branding as a way to increase *consumer recognition* of their product, service or name.

Businesses invest in branding as a way to promote the way they wish to be seen. A strong brand means less reliance on direct selling, sales promotions or price cuts, as the customers will hopefully come to you! Branding also helps create a personality for a product, service or business.

Types of branding include:

- manufacturer/corporate
- product
- own-brand product

Manufacturer/corporate: This branding focuses on the business itself by getting the company along with its logo, who they are and why their products or services stand out. For example, Apple is considered high quality by consumers due, in part, to the products and the brand that the company has managed to create.

Product: Companies that invest in this type of branding want to ensure their product is the first that comes to mind when they have a specific need. Many companies promote a select few products which are the most successful things they sell. Microsoft Corporation's flagship products are Windows and Office.

Own-brand product: This branding started as a way for some supermarkets to offer products to consumers (Tesco Value, for example). Nowadays, most supermarkets offer their own 'Essential' product range. How do you think Waitrose's own-brand products compare to other products?

Rebranding is a marketing strategy in which a company changes a brand to give it a new identity. Companies rebrand by creating a new name, term, symbol or design (or a combination of these). Consumers, stakeholders or suppliers will see the brand differently. Some rebranding is successful while others fail miserably.

Generic vs Branded Products

Strong branding can significantly *add value* to a product, compared with generic, unbranded products. This allows the producer to command large areas of a market. If consumers see a brand as particularly high quality, they might be willing to pay a premium for it and even seek it out directly. This can lead to a reduction in *price elasticity of demand (PED)* for the product, meaning that the producer can charge a higher rate without affecting the number of sales.

Having a strong brand can also help create *barriers to entry*, which keep potential competitors from joining the market.

Creating a brand is still a risk, though; just because a brand is well known doesn't mean it will be successful. If a brand has a history of providing low-quality products, for instance, the producer can have major difficulty when they finally try to turn the business around. Consumer opinion is difficult to shift!

Another pitfall in branding is to make your product so famous that every similar, generic product is sold by the same name. These products are called *brandnomers* or *generic trademarks*. Examples include Velcro, Sellotape, Pritt Stick and Tannoy.



Once the brand is established...

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



How to Build a Brand

Differentiation and Unique Selling Points

Differentiation is how different a product appears compared to its competitors'. Many companies choose to invest in differentiation rather than cutting prices for several reasons:

- Price cutting can create a negative image for a product or service, because many consumers still associate quality with price.
- If a product appears different enough from its competitors (in a positive way), consumers are more likely to remain loyal.
- A brand image of high quality allows the producer to charge a premium without losing sales.

One way that a business can achieve differentiation is through its *unique selling points (USPs)*. Examples of types of USP include:

- design
- after-sales service
- unique features
- distribution
- quality
- durability

A business looking to differentiate itself from competitors must first understand what consumers want in a particular market. For instance, quality is the most important factor, while in other markets, the most convenient form of distribution (e.g. online, home delivery).

Whenever a business considers a promotion or branding strategy, it must also take into account what its competitors are doing – what are other companies doing and where is there a gap? The business strategy as part of its marketing mix, alongside the other three Ps: *Price, Place* and *Promotion*.

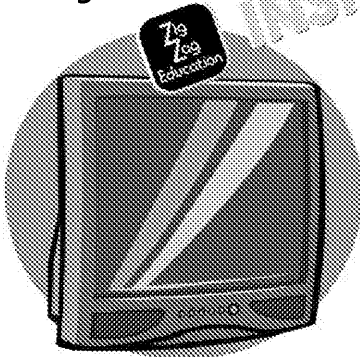
Advertising

Businesses advertise their products and services in many ways, including print (newspapers, magazines, hoardings (or billboards), television and radio (commercial breaks), public spaces (billboards, posters, metro/tube tunnels) and online via web-page banners, search-engine results, and social media advertisements.

Advertising generally comes at a high price. This strategy works well for businesses that can afford to reduce their profit margins, but smaller businesses will struggle to compete with the volume of advertising, such as cereals, this can also prevent new firms from entering the market.

In the 1990s, Budweiser beer were looking for ways to reinvigorate their brand for younger consumers (between ages 21 and 30). The company decided on a TV advertising campaign in which they changed their brand name as 'Bud...weis...er'. The advert played during the Super Bowl and was a huge success, bringing Budweiser to the 21–30 market. The campaign won numerous advertising awards and is considered one of the most brilliant of its time.

Changes in Traditional Advertising



In the past, if you advertised on a TV channel such as the BBC, the whole of the UK would have seen your product. Nowadays, however, with so many different channels, and different ways to watch them, that is no longer the most cost-effective option. Commercial breaks are less effective in grabbing attention any more. Advertisers now use mass media, social media, product placement and live-event sponsorship.

Sponsorship

The use of product placement in television shows and movies is a common practice for brands. Why do you think this is happening?

Dyson is a company that has used technology to create a brand. The design of their products is competitive with other companies. China is a country that has never been only a copycat.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Some brands choose sponsorship over advertising. This involves giving support (usually money) to a person or organisation in exchange for an increase in brand awareness.

Examples of sponsorship include:

- sponsored events
- product placement (film and television)
- social-media sponsorship
- celebrity endorsement

English footballer David Beckham is arguably as famous for his fashion tastes as for his footballing career. In recent years, Beckham has taken part in many sponsorship campaigns with big-name brands such as Adidas, Armani, Samsung and Burger King.

A controversial form of sponsorship is the *advertorial*. This is a printed brand advertisement formatted to seem like a genuine article. Newspapers and magazines receive payment for these advertisements but they must clearly show that they are advertisements. However, it is not always easy to distinguish between article and advertisement.

Emotional Branding

This form of branding plays on the emotional states of consumers; their needs, wants and desires. Companies use advertising to promote its product to consumers and associate it with an emotion. For example, Disneyland Paris, for instance, advertise the theme park Disneyland Paris with a focus on the emotions of joy and excitement. Travel agents often run advertisements showing consumers their 'perfect getaway' with friends and family coming together.

Distribution Methods

Any business that wants to succeed must make sure its product or service is available at the right time and in enough abundance to satisfy demand. In order to achieve this, a business must develop the appropriate distribution network for its product or service.

If a business has not considered these factors, it may fail to draw attention or satisfy demand. For example, the newest technology in the right place, for instance, if there aren't enough products available.

A distribution network shows the journey that a product/service takes to get from the producer to the consumer. The right distribution method is essential. Distribution networks should:

- encourage repeat purchases from consumers
- enable safe delivery of a product/service
- maximise the number of potential customers for a product/service
- ensure quick delivery of a product/service
- provide market information to producers and retailers
- create a positive relationship between producer and consumer

Distribution Channels

A distribution channel is the flow of goods and services that connect a product from producer to consumer. If a small-scale producer was to handle distribution, business expenses would be high, making the product cost more for the consumer. Therefore, a distribution channel is needed.

There are three main flows in distribution and these can be separated into two groups: direct and indirect distribution channels.

Short-channel distribution, or direct marketing, involves just two organisations in the distribution chain: the producer and the consumer.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Two-stage distribution

This method is commonly used by businesses that sell large machinery or equipment. A company, for instance, will manufacture a new product and then use direct selling to reach consumers.



Long-channel distribution, or indirect marketing, involves the producer, consumer and one or more intermediaries in the way. These intermediaries can be anyone from wholesalers and distributors to agents and resellers.

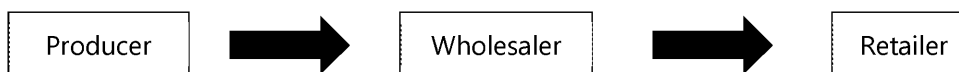
Three-stage distribution

This is the distribution method of choice for electrical goods manufacturers. When a manufacturer creates a new product, it will then sell directly to retailers, who then set a price for the product.



Four-stage distribution

Wholesalers act as *middlemen* between the retailer and producer by buying up large quantities of goods in bulk. In four-stage distribution, the producer could be a cheese farmer, who provides the cheese in bulk. The wholesaler then breaks the cheese into smaller quantities and sells it to distributors in the country, such as supermarkets, newsagents and corner shops. Retailers then sell the cheese to consumers.



Choosing the Right Distribution Network

The aim of a distribution network is to deliver a product/service on time and in good condition. Companies must make sure to choose the right one. In order to choose the most relevant network, they consider the following:

The Product

If the product is *new to the market*, it may need to be introduced to the customer through detailed *explanations*. Consequently, it would be inappropriate to sell it through general retailers. Some types of machinery, equipment and tools may best be sold at trade shows, or through specialist retailers. The sale of such products should be backed by an extensive advertising and marketing campaign.

The Market

Products that are extremely *specialist* or *particularly expensive*, e.g. ships, earth-movers, tend to have a relatively small *customer base* and, therefore, tend to be made available to buyers through *specialist retailers*. This is different for *general household appliances*, which have a very large customer base and, therefore, can be bought from a *large number of outlets*.

Legal Restrictions

The law of the country will determine *where* certain goods can be sold. For example, alcohol can only be purchased from a *licensed premises* or a *pub*.

Customer Expectation

Customers *expect to buy certain goods in traditional establishments*. For example, books are bought from bookshops, supermarkets and glasses from opticians.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Internet Distribution

Those four are not the only factors that drive a company's choice of distribution network. The internet is a global one, with communication instant, and so businesses need to stay informed about the latest trends. This includes methods of distribution.

Consumers expect businesses (especially large ones) to offer their products and services online. They want to allow customers to buy their products/services in all sorts of ways, from website click-and-buy (e.g. PayPal) to mobile phone apps and online stores (e.g. Amazon and eBay).

These outlets, while all digital, are still costly for a business. Amazon, for instance, puts a product in the right 'place' in order for the consumer to see it and make a purchase. Google, meanwhile, sponsors their links so that consumers find certain products before others. These outlets are not like traditional shops and trade shows, but they are still places in the distribution network and, therefore, still have costs.

Devising Appropriate Marketing Approaches

The marketing mix of a company can involve anything from distribution and promotion to product differentiation. Some companies will focus more on the price that they charge, while others will pay more attention to the way they promote their products/services.

The choice of a business's marketing mix depends on three key factors:

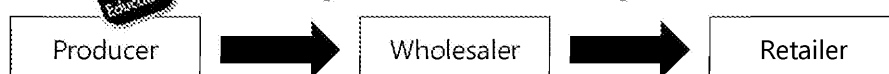
- the nature of the product/service
- the company's potential consumers
- the market

A smartphone on the luxury end of the scale, for example, can sell for a high price. In this market, companies do not need feel the need (at least, not much) to compete on price. In this market, they are more likely to compete with one another on design or distribution than price or promotion. A low-cost stationery manufacturer, on the other hand, may compete on price. In this market, anything else in the marketing mix – customers come for the rock-bottom prices and the company has to invest much in product differentiation or distribution.

Ryanair is a great example of a company that soared above the competition by competing on price. Most of the competition came from high-end airlines and so Ryanair targeted the budget – the people who wanted to fly but could not afford it. The company took away all the frills and focused its efforts on offering the lowest possible price. This price initiative differentiated Ryanair from its rivals, growing shares of a market segment (low-cost air travel) that had previously been ignored. Thus the budget airline was born.

2.2.3. Questions

6. A beverage company wants to introduce a new fizzy drink to the market. It has used traditional advertising (newspapers, TV, radio, etc.). How else could they advertise their new product? Specify any examples.
7. Why are so many companies using social media as a way to advertise their products? Do you think there are any risks involved?
8. There is a four-stage distribution flow diagram.



Name an example for each stage of the flow diagram, e.g. producer =

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.2.4 Income Elasticity of Demand

Price elasticity measures how much a change in people's incomes will change the amount they will demand. If incomes rise you are likely to buy more of a good. But what income change will change your spending.

Think about how often you might go to the cinema with friends if you were paid £20 a week. How many times would you go to the cinema if you were paid £50 or £100 a week.

The formula for income elasticity of demand is $YED = \frac{\Delta \text{Quantity Demanded } \%}{\Delta \text{Income } \%}$.

Percentage change is calculated like this = $\left[\frac{(\text{New value} - \text{Old value})}{\text{Old value}} \right] \times 100$.

Income elasticity can distinguish between a normal good, a luxury or necessity good.

An example of a normal good would be a car. A normal good increases in demand as income rises. For example, as incomes rose, the demand for cars would increase. A normal good can be split into two groups, a necessity or a luxury good.

A luxury good is one where the change in demand is proportionally more than the change in income. A necessity good, such as a car, would have a YED of less than one. A luxury good would have a YED of more than one.

An example of an inferior good would be public transport. With an inferior good, as income rises, the demand for the good falls. So in this example, as incomes rose, the demand for public transport would fall, resulting in a negative YED.

For example:

- a) Quantity demand for good X decreased from 200 to 150 when incomes rose by 20%

$$\Delta Q\% = \left[\frac{(150 - 200)}{200} \right] \times 100 = -0.25$$

$$YED = \frac{-0.25}{0.2} = -1.25, YED \text{ is a negative and therefore Good X is an inferior good}$$

- b) Good Y's quantity demand increased from 180 to 240 when incomes rose by 20%

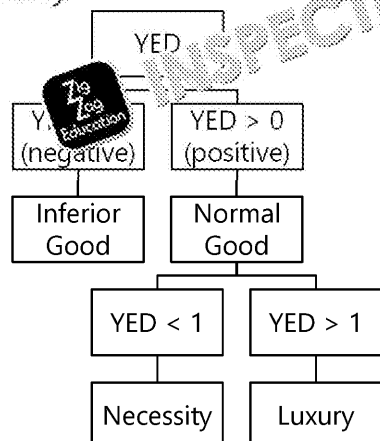
$$\Delta Q\% = \left[\frac{(240 - 180)}{180} \right] \times 100 = 0.33$$

$$YED = \frac{0.33}{0.2} = 1.7, YED \text{ is a positive and therefore Good Y is a normal good, 1.7}$$

- c) Good Z's quantity demand rose from 200 to 210 when incomes rose by 20%

$$\Delta Q\% = \left[\frac{(210 - 200)}{200} \right] \times 100 = 0.05$$

$$YED = \frac{0.05}{0.2} = 0.25, YED \text{ is a positive and therefore Good Z is a normal good, 0.25}$$



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Significance of Elasticity of Demand

For firms it is important to know the elasticity of their goods when making decisions. If a good is price inelastic then they decrease the price without fear of losing sales. However, if a good is price elastic they should carefully consider any price changes. As we have discussed, price elasticity affects a firm's total revenues. Similarly, knowing their income elasticity will allow them to predict the impact that they can predict a rise or fall in incomes, such as knowing the economy is going into a recession.

It is also important for governments to know elasticities when it comes to decisions about taxation. The relationship between total revenue and elasticities for firms, tax revenue has a similar relationship. If demand is price elastic then the producer will pay more of the tax. This is because the producer can increase the price it charges to customers without affecting the quantity demanded. If demand is price inelastic the consumer will pay more of the tax. This is because the producer can easily pass on the tax to the consumer and higher profits without changing the number of goods sold.

Equally, the more elastic the demand, the more revenue is made for the government. If demand is price inelastic then the price will cause the quantity demanded to fall and fewer sales means less tax is paid. However, if demand is price elastic then the government can impose a tax because it is trying to limit consumption, such as on cigarettes. If demand is price elastic then the impact the tax will have.

Influences on Income Elasticity of Demand

There are many factors at play that can influence YED, the main ones being:

- whether goods are luxury, necessity or inferior
- expectations of income, such as promotion, job loss and recession
- the norm of the consumer market, i.e. the presumptions of consumers regarding the future

Simply put, consumers buy more inferior goods when times are tough and more luxury goods when times are good. The rise.

2.2.4. Questions

9. An economy's average income rose from £25,000 to £32,500 a year with the following changes in the quantity demanded for...
- Good A rose from 190 to 250 units. What is the income elasticity of demand for Good A?
 - Good B rose from 180 to 190 units. What is the income elasticity of demand for Good B?
 - Good C fell from 230 to 200 units. What is the income elasticity of demand for Good C?
 - Which good(s) is a...
 - Normal good
 - Luxury
 - Inferior good
 - Necessity

2.2 Keywords

Branding:

This is the image that businesses create for a product or service to make it stand out from the competition.

Promotion:

How businesses build awareness of a product, service or company, such as direct selling and online advertising.

Sponsorship:

When a business supports another person/business in a promotion, such as the sponsorship of sporting events.

Loyalty:

Brand loyalty (for a product, service or company) or customer loyalty (to stay with a business and make repeat purchases).

Competitive advantage:

Firms that positively distinguish themselves from the competition, the competitive advantage, or *the edge*, over their competitors.

Differentiation:

This covers the ways in which a company gains competitive advantage through strong product branding, price, marketing and customer service.

Added value:

When a business turns the sum of raw materials into a product worth more. Value added is calculated as: selling price minus cost to create product/service.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.3 Productive Efficiency

2.3.1 Productivity

Productivity

Production and *productivity* differ in a similar way to distance and speed, e.g. distance shows how far they were able to go while speed shows how quickly they were able to do it. Production shows the output a firm produces in a specific volume of time, while productivity gives the rate of output per given time period (e.g. the hourly rate of output per individual input).

Outputs can include the productivity per person, per factory or per machine. Most firms measure productivity based on their employees on how many sales they make. This productivity is measured through the following methods:

Let's use an example:

A textile worker might be able to produce seven pairs of gloves in one hour, and so their productivity would be seven pairs of gloves per hour. A machine producing the same gloves may be able to produce them more quickly, increasing the productivity to, say, 35 pairs of gloves per hour.

This example shows that machinery is able to achieve higher levels of productivity than the human workforce. However, it is good to note that not all machinery can perform to the same high quality levels as human workers. Many consumers also value handmade goods over their machine-made counterparts and will pay more for the quality.

Factors that Influence Productivity

Businesses use all sorts of methods in order to increase their productivity, including:

- increasing the number of hours that employees work
- making changes to key business processes
- motivating the workforce
- purchasing new equipment, technology and premises
- increasing the amount of training that employees receive

There are downsides to these methods, however, which can lead to pushback from:

- employees very rarely choose to work longer hours
- while a firm may offer new training or change business procedures, their workers may not be motivated to do so
- if a labour force is expected to increase its productivity, it may want to be rewarded for this
- whenever a firm announce changes that affect productivity, some members of the workforce may see this as a threat to their jobs

Productivity and Competitiveness

Both of these terms are closely linked with the success of a business. Firms looking to become more competitive within a market (e.g. gain more market share) will explore productivity as a means of achieving this.

The operations department is normally the business area responsible for increasing productivity. The operations department leads many of the changes with the aims and objectives of the business to become more competitive. Therefore, operations will need to support this by increasing productivity.

Firms concerned with productivity as a method of becoming more competitive for the following reasons:

- Firms that cannot produce enough to fulfil market demand will lose out to more competitive firms. Therefore, increase productivity in order to meet demand and stay relevant.
- Markets that have particularly price-elastic demand are very competitive and so firms need to reduce their costs enough (e.g. by increasing productivity) so that they can compete.
- If a firm's main objective is to decrease their costs by 15 per cent, they can achieve this by increasing productivity. The more goods the firm can produce, the lower their overall costs.
- Service-focused firms will concentrate on productivity as a way to provide a better service. The more goods/materials a business has available at any time, the more quickly it can respond to demand and, hopefully, encourage further sales in future.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Productivity and Wages

With great productivity comes great output. Most businesses look to produce the most they can – this way, they have more products/services to sell to their customers, put their rivals. The higher the output of a company, the more profit it can produce over time.

One way in which firms can motivate their employees to achieve high levels of productivity is by offering attractive wages. As firms earn more profit through greater productivity, they can afford to pay their workforce. The more profit that a company makes, the more it can afford to pay its employees. Human capital occurs in other ways, too, such as providing training (which increases productivity) and allowing staff more responsibility for overall operations and/or business management.

Productivity and Economic Growth

As wages increase with productivity, so does the average disposable income. If all businesses were to raise the wages of their workers, the general consumer would have more money to spend. *Paribus*, would feed back into the business sector, increasing their goods for sale. This increases the demand in the economy in the form of tax that consumers pay on all their goods and services.

In much the same way, that high productivity helps increase the volume of output for the economy. Growth in production levels for a business, and for an area of the national output (GDP).

Once one area of the economy has reached a peak in productivity, the general workforce moves to another economic area which requires more labour capital. Economic improvement has a significant effect on the country as a whole – an economy that becomes well-known for its productivity, for instance, could increase the business it does with foreign nations that require this type of service.

Labour-intensive or Capital-intensive Production?

Businesses make the decision on whether to focus on labour- or capital-intensive production based on the skills and efficiencies available with each factor of production. Is the business's labour force skilled? Is the machinery? Could they produce more at a lower cost if they invested in more equipment? The size and position within the marketplace and the kind of service consumers need are also factors.

Remember Me

Labour-intensive production (e.g. bakeries and hotels) involves mostly labour, while *capital-intensive* production (e.g. car manufacturers and transport) involves mostly capital.

When a firm understands which route is best for them, they can explore the different ways to become more efficient. These include:

- **Productivity of labour:** Encouraging the workforce to increase their productivity through assigning targets, motivation and/or better matching people's skills to the tasks.
- **Nature of processes:** Businesses must use the correct method of production. Some might use flow production since it needs to produce many goods all to the export.
- **Capital utilisation:** The fixed costs of a business stay the same regardless of the level of output, so a business must utilise these (e.g. equipment, machinery) to their maximum. If not, goods/services will become more expensive to produce.
- **Scale:** Businesses are always looking for profit and so they also look to grow. This can lead to economies of scale which help a business lower costs overall. However, if a business grows too fast, it can experience diseconomies of scale, such as poor communication through long chains of command.
- **Innovation:** Firms are always looking for cost savers, ways either to produce more efficiently or to deliver them more cheaply. Retailers that move online, for instance, are no longer needing a shop window.
- **Lean production:** Businesses invest in methods to reduce waste, not only to save money but also as a way to save money. Less waste (as well as fewer repeat processes) helps businesses improve efficiency.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.3.1. Questions

1. Explain which of the following factors can have a positive influence on productivity. There is more than one correct answer:
 - increasing the responsibility of employees
 - purchasing equipment that is more suited to the production task
 - reducing employee wages
 - improving the training process of new employees
2. Identify and explain two ways in which productivity helps a business b



INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.3.2 Capacity Utilisation

Efficiency

This refers to the maximum output a business can achieve through a minimum number of inputs. Efficiency involves everything from a business' workforce to their procedures, scale of production (i.e. equipment and machinery).

Efficiency can be improved either by a firm increasing the number of outputs they produce or by producing their outputs using fewer inputs.

Let's show that visually:

Efficiency method 1:



Efficiency method 2:



Capacity Utilisation

Firms calculate capacity utilisation to show their actual output and how it compares to the maximum output they could produce.

The equation for this is:

$$\text{Capacity Utilisation} = \frac{\text{Current Output}}{\text{Maximum Possible Output}} \times 100$$

Let's use an example:

Plastic People Ltd is a company that manufactures mannequins for fashion retailers. They have their own three factories where they are able to produce a maximum of 50,000 mannequins each month; however, they have only managed to produce 37,000 mannequins each month.

$$\text{Capacity Utilisation for Plastic People Ltd} = \frac{\text{Current Output}}{\text{Maximum Possible Output}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Capacity Utilisation for Plastic People Ltd} = \frac{37,000}{50,000} \times 100$$

$$\text{Capacity Utilisation for Plastic People Ltd} = 0.74 \times 100$$

$$\text{Capacity Utilisation for Plastic People Ltd} = 74\%$$

This calculation shows that Plastic People Ltd are performing at only 74 per cent of their capacity.

Full or Spare?

When a business is working at full capacity, it is using all resources that are available. On the other hand, tells us that the business has some capacity left over and so it is missing out on what could potentially be making.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Implications of Under- and Overutilisation of Capacity

In the previous example for Plastic People Ltd, we showed that the business was under-utilising its capacity. This means that the business was not making the most of the machinery/workforce/equipment available. The opposite of underutilisation is overutilisation, where a business runs at more than 100 per cent of its available capacity.

There are problems that come with underutilisation of capacity, including:

- The fewer resources that are used by a firm, the higher the fixed costs are to produce each unit. If fixed costs are spread across more products, they will work out cheaper per unit.
- Firms that underutilise their capacity run the risk of not meeting demand when it comes. In this case, a firm would have *excess demand* that it is unable to fulfil. This could lead to a negative image for themselves, of a firm that is not strong enough to compete.
- The workforce of a firm that underutilises its capacity could be lacking in motivation to overachieve.

Overutilisation of capacity comes with many issues, too, including:

- The workload can get too intense for a firm's workforce, which then becomes inefficient.
- Whenever machines or people do things quickly, they run the risk of reducing the quality of the product. They are able to produce more goods in the given time, but each product may be unsatisfactory.
- If a business is already producing at over-capacity, they will have problems if demand increases further, as the firm will have no way of fulfilling this surge in custom.
- Maintenance of equipment and machinery becomes near impossible since businesses are running at full capacity all times.

Silver Linings

It is worth noting that there are positives that come from both over- and underutilisation. Under-utilisation, for instance, will have time available to do necessary maintenance on equipment. Overutilisation, on the other hand, will create maximum sales (if quality is maintained), which can be reinvested into the business in order to purchase more capacity to meet demand.

Improving Capacity Utilisation

As we now understand, fixed costs do not change and so businesses should always aim to use as much of the capacity they have available. This will help keep production costs low while still being able to fulfil potential demand.

A firm can make improvements to its utilisation (whether increasing or decreasing capacity) in many ways, including:

- **Estimating the long-term levels of sales:** This will help the business prepare for future demand so that it is always working as close to the necessary capacity as possible.
- **Creating more demand:** This can be done through promotion and brand strategy. If a business has capacity to produce 100,000 units, for example, but does not have enough demand, it needs to work to create that demand.
- **Understanding the consumer:** This is normally done through primary and secondary research. The more a business learns about its customers (and potential customers), the better it can tailor its products to make sure it meets demand.
- **Selling assets:** If a business is continually unable to use its entire capacity to produce goods, it may consider selling some of their machinery/equipment. This money could then be used for other purposes, such as promoting the business in order to create more interest in their goods.
- **Employing more/fewer staff:** Capacity can take the form of equipment, machinery, or staff. If a business has more employees than their consumer demand requires, they may consider employing fewer staff. Likewise, if demand is high, the business could need more staff in order to run the business and produce goods.


**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.3.2. Questions

3. Put the following statements into the correct categories.

- Quality might be ignored and so can decrease to the point of products becoming defective.
- The fewer goods a firm produces, the higher the fixed costs per unit.
- Maintenance of equipment becomes impossible as there is simply not enough time to do it.
- Workforces lack motivation as there is little drive to overachieve.
- Motivation of employees decreases because the amount of work is too intense.
- Firms are unable to meet sudden spikes in demand.

Drawbacks of underutilisation	Drawbacks of overutilisation
	

4. Explain the difference between full capacity and spare capacity.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.3.3 Efficiency and Competitiveness Using Lean Production, Quality Control, Quality Assurance, Kaizen and Total Quality Management

Quality Control vs Quality Assurance

These two terms are frequently used in business and are often confused. Let's set the record straight and see what is *quality assurance* and what is *quality control*.

	Quality Control (QC)	Quality Assurance
Description	Analysis of quality in a finished good/service.	Analysis of quality in business processes used to produce goods/services.
Why used?	QC is a reactive method. It helps identify and fix defects in goods before they are released.	QA is a management process. It helps improve the efficiency of a business's production processes.
When used?	This is a reactive measure. Businesses make improvements to any defects at the end of the production process.	This is a proactive measure. Businesses foresee defects in their processes need to be in place in order to prevent defects from occurring.

Quality Circles: One way for businesses to empower their workforces is to use *quality circles*. These are groups of their employees into groups (quality circles) and give them direct responsibility for improving – business processes. The circles identify potential for enhanced efficiency.

Kaizen

Kaizen businesses work to improve their processes with the idea that this should enhance business outcomes. Unlike quality circles, which give responsibility to some employees, kaizen involves the entire workforce by continually asking for ideas on how employees believe their business can be improved.

The kaizen method (also known as *continuous improvement*) can bring about many benefits, including increase in employee motivation and productivity, reduction in waste, faster production processes, higher quality and overall improvements to a business's final products/services. Firms that use kaizen consider it an integral part of their business practices. A good example of a kaizen-focused business is the Japanese car manufacturer Toyota.

The philosophy behind kaizen is based on *gradual change* and *employee suggestion*. Small, considered steps (rather than focusing on large, revolutionary innovations) with a high volume of changes will eventually result in huge improvement.

Businesses cultivate a culture of *continuous improvement* by encouraging their workforce to make suggestions. These suggestions can be big or small as necessary – sometimes improving the process by a small amount creates the most notable results! Suggestions can be given anonymously, using a suggestion box, or to a specific person. Kaizen businesses focus on the talents of their employees, and their ability to improve processes, rather than invest in expensive machinery in order to get to the same outcome.

Kaizen may seem like a long-winded (and therefore pricey) way of working, but by involving the people most involved in a business's quality procedures day in and day out, these businesses lay the foundation for innovation that gives them the competitive advantage over any rival. It improves quality, but increases motivation, too, as employees feel more valued and are more likely to go the extra mile for their employers.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM is another method that aims to empower employees: unlike kaizen, which involves the entire business; it is the culture of the organisation. Employees act like analysing the work they receive from other departments in order to, as a unit, criticise the best-quality product/service possible.

Competitive Advantage of Quality Management

Keeping goods/services to a high standard of *quality* (i.e. how well the product does) gives a business competitive advantage over its rivals – the higher quality your goods appear to consumers. This high-quality image can also give the perception that they are of a similar value, leading to repeat purchases and word-of-mouth sales. In many cases, high-quality products/services are more willing to pay high prices and so, if you offer quality, high-end consumers may be more likely to purchase from you.

Just-in-time Management of Stock

The just-in-time (JIT) method of managing stock has become more adopted over time. This method keeps a low inventory of stock and produce only to specific orders. This method relies on accurate forecasting, wherein businesses predict how much demand there will be at any given time. To cover this demand, businesses produce to requirements. This method requires a business must be able to inform their suppliers in time when consumer demand rises.

Advantages of JIT Management of Stock

- **Time saver:** Businesses receive an order, request the stock from their supplier, receive the good or put it directly on the shelves. There is no need to keep stock in storage.
- **Money saver:** The business should spend less money on stock until they absorb the demand.
- **Compact production:** With less stock in storage, a company's production line becomes more efficient as a result.
- **Add value:** A business can instantly add value to their stock because it is either on shop shelves or manufactured/converted into a good. There is very little time that would be money wrapped up in stock.
- **Less obsolescence:** This is still a risk, but businesses run much less risk of obsolescence and sell goods when there is demand.
- **Less risk to goods:** If fewer goods are in storage then they are less likely to be damaged.

Disadvantages of JIT Management of Stock

- **Suppliers:** Businesses need suppliers they can trust to do a good job at short notice. If they cannot produce stock in time, the business will suffer greatly.
- **Expensive:** This can be expensive to do on a grand scale, as businesses need to invest in computer systems in order to monitor incoming orders and available stock.
- **Mass orders:** If a business using JIT stock management suddenly receives a large order, it may struggle to cope with the volume of requests. Moreover, the business' suppliers may not be able to handle the order.
- **Unforeseen circumstances:** War, famine and natural disasters can put halts on a business' supplier.

The JIT method of stock control is particularly suited to businesses such as car manufacturers and print on demand. In both of these cases, stock is only required once an order has been placed. It is closely linked with *waste management* and *lean production* since it helps a business to reduce waste and improve efficiency from start to finish.

Waste Minimisation

Businesses reduce the amount of waste they create for many reasons; from addressing customer needs to reacting to consumer demand. By correctly managing their waste, businesses can reduce costs while simultaneously bringing down their costs of production.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Technology has been a major player in the movement toward waste minimisation. These new technologies in order to:

- reduce defective products
- curb overproduction of goods
- decrease wait time for consumers and down time of machinery
- monitor and moderate unnecessary stock
- streamline production

Waste minimisation also relates to actual waste, i.e. overuse of product packaging. Businesses can bring down their packaging costs by using reusable boxes. Transport costs, meanwhile, are reduced by moving their goods in bulk rather than per order.

Competitive Advantage from Lean Production

Lean production is a form of production that focuses on waste-saving measures, implemented by manufacturers. This form of production involves a range of techniques, including:

- JIT
- total quality management (TQM)
- kaizen
- cell production
- reduction of excess stockholding
- improvement of communications between production and marketing departments

The Benefits of Lean Production

Businesses can reap many rewards from employing lean production, including:

- **Productivity:** This increases as employees decide the most efficient way to produce goods.
- **Motivation:** Businesses can motivate their workforces by giving more responsibility.
- **Shared decisions:** Empowered workforces take part in decision-making, which improves management and opens up the potential pool of ideas.
- **Waste management:** Businesses that operate lean production benefit from reduced stockholding (from JIT methods), which increases available funds and, therefore, cash flow.
- **Quality:** Employees and management work together to streamline and improve processes, which help increase quality.

2.3.3. Questions

5. Identify two differences between quality control and quality assurance.
6. Explain one reason why a greengrocer might choose to implement the just-in-time method of stock control.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED




2.3.4 Impact on Costs and Sales Revenue

Impact on Average Cost

We showed in Chapter 2.3.1 how the productive efficiency of a company has significant impacts on the wages of its employees and the overall economy. Productive efficiency can also impact on average costs. When a firm achieves high levels of output, for instance, its fixed costs are spread across a great number of products/services and so the company's average cost per individual unit.

Let's use an example:

Flour Pour Ltd is a bakery based in North Wales. The company's total costs reach £150,000, of which £150 are fixed costs. Flour Pour Ltd used to bake 1,500 loaves of bread per day and so its fixed costs per unit were:



$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = \frac{\text{Fixed Costs}}{\text{Number of Units in Total}}$$
$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = \frac{£150}{1500}$$
$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = £0.10$$

The management of Flour Pour Ltd eventually decided that £0.10 of fixed costs per unit was too high. They increased the production output to 2,000 loaves per day. This changes the costs per unit to:

$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = \frac{\text{Fixed Costs}}{\text{Number of Units in Total}}$$
$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = \frac{£150}{2000}$$
$$\text{Fixed costs per unit} = £0.08 \text{ (rounded up from 0.075)}$$

By increasing the output of production, the company is able to reduce its average fixed cost per unit. This saving can then be passed on to the consumer in the form of lower selling prices, which attracts more potential buyers and, as a result, increase the revenue and market share of the business.

Flour Pour Ltd may decide to keep its selling price the same. This would still increase its profit because it would be making more off each item it sells (this, of course, is assuming that the selling price is higher than the average total cost). In either instance, Flour Pour Ltd would be making more profit overall than when it produced 1,500 loaves per day.

Minimising Waste of Resources

In Chapter 2.3.3, we showed how managing a company's waste offers a variety of benefits, from cost efficiency to bringing down average costs. There are other advantages still for business waste minimisation, including:

Profits: As the costs of production fall, the profits of the company can increase. This can be achieved by anything from employee training or new equipment to infrastructure, communication and marketing processes.

Brand reputation: By investing in the production process, a company can also improve the quality of its products/services. This has a knock-on effect of creating a positive reputation, i.e. being seen as of a higher quality than its competitors'.

Brand Loyalty: Once a company's reputation is secured, it can be used to convert new customers. For consumers that buy a company's products, the more *brand ambassadors* it creates, the more likely they are to buy the company's products/services over any others when talking to friends or family.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Market Share: As a result of the increase in brand loyalty, the company can then expand its product portfolio, securing an even larger market share. With such a strong reputation, it may find it difficult to muscle in on the firm's market share.

Competitive Advantage of Short Product-development Lead Time

A *lead time* is the amount of time between an organisation making a business decision and the product being available. Short lead times are often important when businesses need to react to a change in the market, which is particularly true in highly dynamic markets, such as electronics – as one company in the smartphone technology, for example, its competitors need to be quick to catch up in terms of new fashion. While some fashion retailers focus on high-quality, handmade products, many fast-fashion brands work quickly and cheaply in order to push out new lines that match the ever-changing tastes of modern society.

The Competitive Advantage of Low Quality

Quality is an integral element to the success of many businesses. It allows firms to charge high prices and therefore earn high profits. Consumers often see high prices and associate them with high quality and so the companies can benefit from product sales. The element of selling at a low price is not true to all businesses, however.



The fashion retailer ZARA is a good example of a business that sells items at low prices while still achieving significant global success. The firm concentrates on imitating designer fashions, and does so both quickly and cheaply. ZARA's customers do not demand the highest quality possible. Rather, they demand fashionable items, which ZARA sells in the thousands. The firm produces its goods quickly (from designing a line to having it sent to stores within four to five weeks) and so it can respond to sudden trends. In this sense, ZARA's business model is low selling price, but extremely fast.

2.3.4. Questions

- 7. Explain why businesses aim to decrease their average costs.
- 8. Smart Talkies Ltd is a manufacturer of smartphones and tablets. One of its rivals recently released an update to its mobile phone range, which now offers more features. As a result, Smart Talkies Ltd has decided that it must react and manufacture a more advanced version of the competitor's phone.

The current lead time (the time between making a business decision and the product being available) for Smart Talkies Ltd is nine months. Identify whether this lead time should be decreased or increased. Please explain your answer.

2.3 Keywords

Overutilisation of capacity:	when a business produces more goods/services than it can handle – this can cause stress on over-worked staff, leading to errors, or downtime and maintenance of equipment
Underutilisation of capacity:	when a business produces fewer goods/services than it can handle – this can lead to staff being underworked, which may waste company money on employees they do not need
Productivity:	a company's hourly rate of output per each input
Efficiency:	how much a business can achieve through a minimum of resources and at the lowest average costs
Kaizen:	employees are organised into groups (quality circles) with shared responsibility for continuously analysing, and improving, the business
TQM:	a constant, company-wide culture of quality management

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.4 Life in a Global Economy

2.4.1 Globalisation

Globalisation has no set definition and can be described differently across various sources. Most tend to say it is the ability to move production to anywhere in the world and the resources can be sourced from any country. It is a process of integrating separate countries, creating a single global entity. Borders and barriers between people and markets are removed, making them interdependent. As the world becomes more globalised, there is greater factor mobility. More factors of production can be sourced from anywhere across the globe.

In business, there are three main aspects of globalisation. First, there has been an increase in trade between countries, particularly in recent years between developed and developing countries. Second, the goods that are made, a bigger proportion of those goods are traded internationally rather than used domestically. Last, globalisation is also recognised as the increased movement of people between countries.

Factors That Have Contributed To Globalisation over the Last 50 Years

Transport Infrastructure and Operations

The improvement in transportation and infrastructure around the globe has allowed for the movement of resources. As a result this has increased the trade of goods and services across countries. Production from various countries as it is easier and less costly to do so. Because of the availability of resources that are cheapest, the reduction in transportation costs mean they are likely to be sourced across the globe and so become more globalised.

Communication Technology and IT

The improvements in the ability to communicate across the world means information is no longer imperfect information as a barrier to trade is reduced. The increased use of the Internet has allowed the world to share cultural and social experiences.

Trade Liberalisation (WTO)

Agreements reached by the World Trade Organisation (WTO) have prevented countries from erecting barriers to trade. As barriers are removed, economic agents are more freely allowed to trade their resources across nations, thereby becoming more globalised.

Increasing Transnational Companies (TNCs)

Transnational companies are those that are spread across countries; they sell the goods they produce in various nations. The increasing number and the increasing activity in the global market and thereby increased globalisation.

The Cold War and Political Change

At the end of the Cold War, economies that were formerly closed off to the world market. This then led to an increase in the global supply of labour.

Capital Market Liberalisation

As financial markets have opened up across countries, mainly due to the increase in IT and communication, traders were able to operate in various countries, causing the flow of money to move more freely, becoming more globalised.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.4.1. Questions

1. Explain how the following have contributed to globalisation in the last 50 years.
 - a) Information communication technology (ICT)
 - b) Transportation

2. Copy out and complete the sentences below, using the following three terms.

migration

international trade

investment

Globalisation is made up of three main characteristics:

1. Rising _____ as gross domestic product increases
2. Increased _____ which involves the buying and selling of goods and services
3. _____ which describes the movement of people and capital



INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.4.2 Developed, Emerging and Developing Economies

Indicators of Growth

Economics Background...

Economic Growth is the monetary value of a country in terms of the size of its economy.
Economic Development is the quality of a country in terms of how established and how good its welfare is.

How do they differ and compare...?

Development and growth differ in terms of what they are concerned with and so the indicators used to measure them are different. Production is better at showing the size and value of an economy whereas something like the Human Development Index is better at showing the quality of a workforce. There is often a relationship between the two, but it is debated and does not always hold true; it is believed that increasing economic growth leads to economic development. This is because an economy that is growing has more income and this income can be used to improve other aspects of society, such as funding job creation, health services which can be taxed, etc. In other words there is more money going into the government which can be redirected towards improving schools and hospitals, for example.

GDP per Capita

GDP is the sum market value of all the goods and services produced in one economy in one year. Because it shows the size of an economy, the rate at which it changes shows the growth (or decline) of an economy. Economic growth is the value of the percentage change in GDP. So why look at GDP per capita? America is a large country, compared to somewhere like the UK. The UK has less labour and fewer resources than the USA and will therefore be able to produce far fewer goods and services. Comparing GDP across countries is difficult because a large country may have much higher GDP levels than a smaller country, but this does not necessarily mean they are growing more. Instead, economists may look at GDP per capita, which accounts for the size of the country. It takes the GDP of the country (total GDP) and divides it by the population of the country in order to get GDP per capita.

Small countries can be better off than large countries. The UK has a large population but the country's economy will not be as big as the US economy.

QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

GDP Per Capita

The GDP of the UK was \$2.678 trillion in 2013 while the GDP of Belgium was \$524.8 billion. The UK's economy is much bigger. But then the UK had a population of 64.1 million in 2013 while Belgium had 11.2 million. More people mean a higher level of output of goods and services.

Therefore, economists sometimes look at GDP per capita (per person) to remove the effect of size. This is done by dividing the level of GDP by the population.

Let's do this with the figures from our example:

UK GDP per capita = $\frac{2.678 \text{ trillion}}{64.1 \text{ million}} = \$41,800$

Belgium GDP per capita = $\frac{524.8 \text{ billion}}{11.2 \text{ million}} = \$46,900$

So although the UK's overall level of GDP is higher, Belgium has the higher GDP per capita.

Literacy

Literacy rates can be used to show an economy's development levels because literacy shows the education system in an economy. Equally, it can show the volume of the population. The more highly skilled a workforce is, the more productive it is (the more goods each person can produce).

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

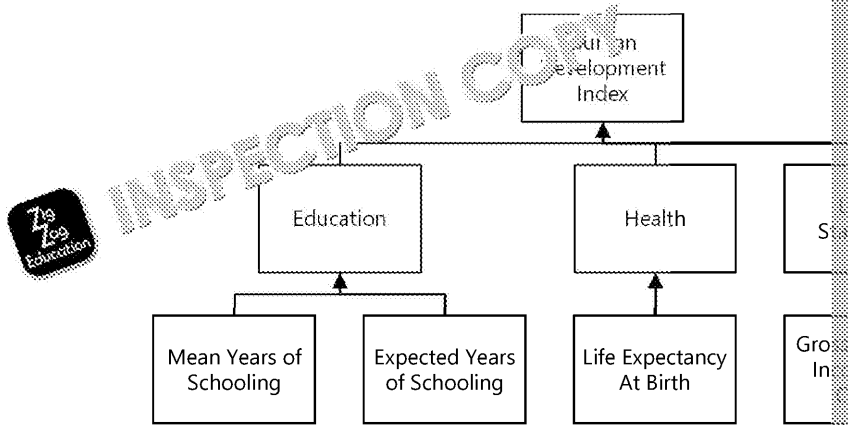


Health

Health statistics show the health systems in an economy; the healthier the workforce the better the economy. This is also good for showing development statistics because the healthier a person will be. More developed economies will have more developed healthcare systems and especially those who may not be able to afford healthcare.

Human Development Index (HDI)

HDI looks at three measures: education (mean years of schooling for an adult aged 25 and over, and expected years of schooling for new entrants), health (life expectancy at birth) and real GNI per capita (GDP). 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.



GDP as a Measure of Living Standards

Is GDP a perfect measure?

Think about the following:

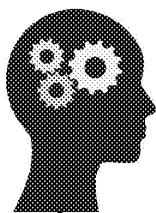
- If you mow your lawn then GDP is unchanged. Employ a gardener to do it, then GDP rises. If the lawnmower breaks and you buy a new one then GDP rises further.
- The production of tobacco products which cause illness and reduce life expectancy.
- A country may be dependent on extracting coal and oil for its growth. GDP rises but future generations will not have access to the resources once they are used up. Is this a good measure of living standards?

GDP is an economic measure and is good at showing economic growth. However, in terms of development correlation, it does not account for any social measures and ignores the quality of life standards. It is, therefore, inadequate at measuring these dimensions. Yet, it is still used to compare living standards across countries, and this is because the volume of goods that is produced is a good indicator of living standards. It ignores qualitative variables such as happiness and well-being.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

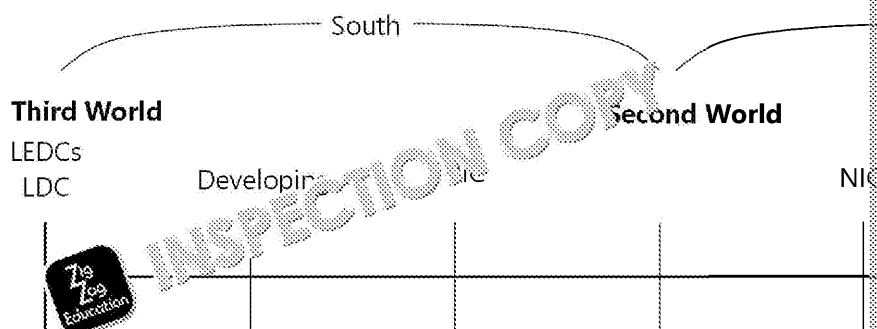




Further Your Economic Knowledge...

Talking About Development: Categorisation

Countries are often grouped into categories to refer to their development, industrialised status and a wide variety of categories is used. This box explains the meanings of these categories. You may have heard of some of these but explain why and how some of them may be outdated or misused. You may also be interested in expanding your cultural horizons.



The most common categories are those that split countries into one of two groups: developed, less economically developed countries (LEDCs, or LDCs) vs developed countries (MEDCs or MDCs). These refer to countries based on development measures, such as GDP or HDI. What is good about the distinction compared to developing/developed is that it identifies the distinction in economy and living standards, whereas developing may imply the connotation of a backward and deficient culture.

There are other categories such as the North/South divide. This category divides countries into North and South. Countries in the North are generally more developed than those in the South. A line is drawn at the equator, although this does not correspond to the equator, this grouping suggests a static and unchangeable.

West and East is another locational classification; however, this refers to culture. Western culture is generally 'American' culture, and Eastern culture is generally 'Asian' culture. This is criticised because it groups all Asian cultures into one, such as Japanese and Chinese. In reality these cultures are vastly different and some may find this quite offensive.

Another one you may have heard of is first-world, second-world and third-world. These categories specify countries either 'are' or 'are not', the categories are based on political stance; first world being capitalist, second world being communist and third world being 'non-aligned countries'. This concept is now outdated, although now used to refer to third world in terms of income and wealth. However, this was not the original intention.

The terms Recently Industrialised Countries (RIC) and Newly Industrialised Countries (NIC) refer to the two ends and in between of the currently changing countries in terms of industrial status. NICs are countries such as China, which are fully industrialised but not yet developed. RICs are countries such as the UK, which started industrialisation in the late nineteenth century. Countries such as Brazil and Mexico, which are starting to become more industrialised.

What may be identified here is that it is hard to categorise countries into groups. The make-up of society, economic and political stances all vary by so much that it is hard to identify set similarities and differences. Mexico, for example, is in the more developed, wealthier or industrialised categories, does have a more sustainable transport system than countries in other groups. Some are talking about a spectrum of development, as this highlights that countries do not fit into certain categories. It is important to think critically about these categories, to differentiate countries, what do they imply, are they accurate or out of date, what point on the spectrum, can countries be grouped or are there too many to group?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Characteristics of...

Generally, this is the idea that development, environmental care, political and economic positive trend with economic growth. It has been said that first a country develops, it shifts to democracy and human rights. Once a country has economic stability, it then improves schools, hospitals, improving the environment and reducing inequality.

However, in reality this has not always been shown to be correct. For example, Bhutan has low rates. However, because their policies are designed round the happiness index rather than lowly on GDP measures but highly on living standards and economic development, and a relationship with their surroundings and environment. Countries such as China have high growth, but as a result they have a pollution and smog problem and still have a very

Kuznets came up with a slightly different relationship that states that as a country industrialises, it will get worse, such as inequality and the environment, but they improve again once they have finished industrialising. To learn more about the Kuznets curve and the environmental Kuznets curve, watch the following videos:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1234567890> and

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1234567890>

Developing Economies

Economic:

- Low levels of economic growth
- High levels of GDP
- Generally focus on 'sophisticated', high-tech products, or quaternary-sector services, such as financial sector goods.
- High import levels of raw and primary goods
- Trade patterns are generally already established
- Economic stability
- Tend to use capital-intensive techniques

Political:

- Tend to be democratic
- Low levels of corruption
- Transparent governmental working
- Public has greater influence
- Politically stable

Environmental, social and demographic:

- Low child mortality rate
- Low birth rate
- Higher levels of gender equality
- Nationwide and often free public services, such as schools and hospitals
- Lower levels of environmental damage

Developing Economies

Economic:

- Low but rising levels of economic growth
- Low levels of GDP
- Primary sector producers and often only focus in one area
- Subsistence farming
- Low levels of international trade
- Capital deficiency uses labour-intensive techniques

Political:

- High levels of corruption
- Political instability

Environmental, Social and Demographic:

- High child mortality rate
- High birth rate
- Low levels of gender equality
- Very few public services, often only available in major cities
- High levels of environmental damage

Emerging Economies

Economic:

- Medium but rapid economic growth
- High levels of economic development
- Often export-dependent on sophisticated goods and services
- Great opportunities for growth in emerging countries brand and are able to compete globally
- Increasing use of capital-intensive techniques
- Susceptible to economic downturns

Political:

- Variable, some are democratic, some are authoritarian
- Medium levels of corruption
- Desire stable, but often unstable
- so they can work on economic growth

Environmental, Social and Demographic:

- Medium levels of economic development
- Medium birth rate
- Improving but still low levels of gender equality
- Very high levels of economic development and industrialisation

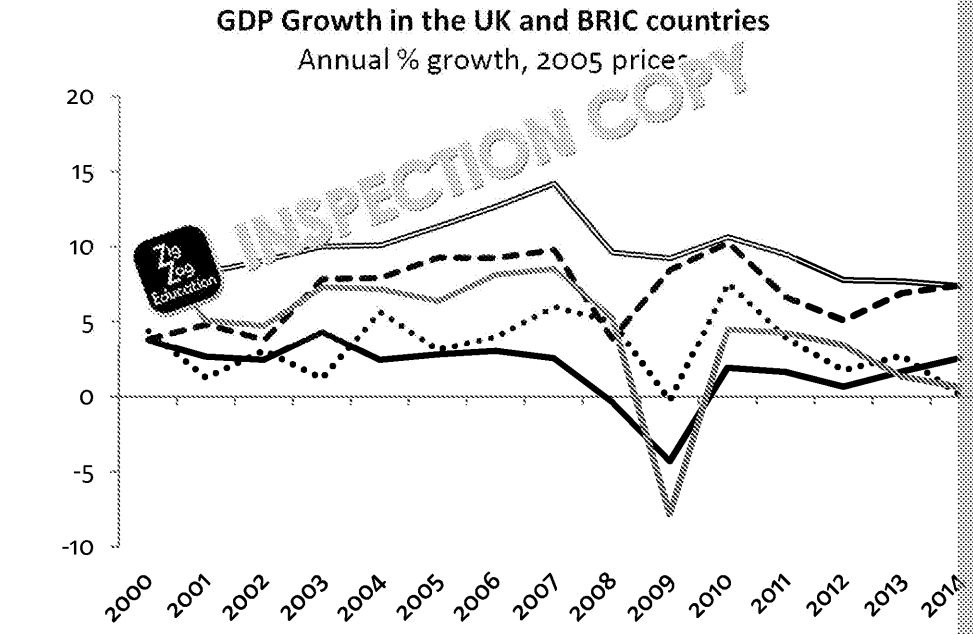
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Have a look at some of the indicators and measures the World Bank has collected for developing and emerging economies. Compare and contrast them! <http://data.worldbank.org>
 To learn more about social and demographic statistics and their changes between emerging economies, watch this video on demographic transition models: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HQLpdtUXeiU>

Growth Rates of the UK and BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India, China)

The graph and table below show the GDP growth of the UK and BRIC countries between 2000 and 2014. Identify patterns that are similar and those that differ between each country.



	Brazil	China	United Kingdom	
GDP growth %				
2000	4.4	8.4	3.8	
2001	1.3	8.3	2.7	
2002	3.1	9.1	2.5	
2003	1.2	10.0	4.3	
2004	5.7	10.1	2.5	
2005	3.1	11.4	2.8	
2006	4.0	12.7	3.0	
2007	6.0	14.2	2.6	
2008	5.0	9.6	-0.3	
2009	-0.2	2.2	-4.3	
2010	7.6	11.6	1.9	
2011	3.9	9.5	1.6	
2012	1.9	7.8	0.7	
2013	2.7	7.7	1.7	
2014	0.1	7.4	2.6	
HDI				
2012	0.73	0.70	0.88	

The previous graph and table show us that developing countries (e.g. those in the BRIC group) experienced rapid growth in GDP from 2000 leading up to the 2008 financial crash. China and India experienced rapid growth after the financial crash. The UK, on the other hand, which is a developed country, experienced low growth in GDP compared to the BRIC countries.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
 PROTECTED



GDP is Not Everything

The table below shows the top 10 countries in the world ranked by the human development index (HDI) and gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Note how the lists are quite different. No country in the world as determined by GDP per capita feature in the top ten countries as ranked by HDI.

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

Mean and Median Incomes

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 outliers. For example...

In a neighbourhood of seven people, the lowest earner earns £10,000 and the highest earner earns £50,000. The table below lists the wages of the seven workers in the neighbourhood in order of lowest to highest income.

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

The median income is £40,000, but the mean income is £68,500 (to the nearest £500). This shows that the mean income is higher than the median income and to some degree Person 6, earn income that is far above the rest. Using the median income gives a more accurate picture of the income status of the population and it would appear that people were better off than they seem. Relative poverty would be an income below 60% of the median income, which is £24,000. This means that Person 1 would be in relative poverty.

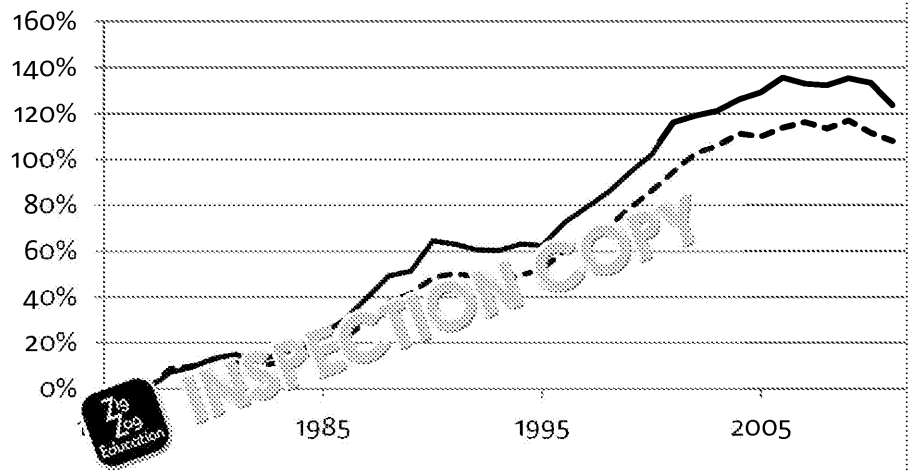
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The graph below displays this in terms of the UK's household income. Here, it shows that incomes were very similar in the 1970s but that they had spread apart by the 2000s.

Mean vs Median UK household income
1975–2013



Your Turn: When mean income is larger than median income, does this show that

Let's use another example:

QUANTITATIVE SKILLS

Converting from money to real terms

Macroeconomists like to compare values over time to get a sense of the direction in which growth changed? Have wages increased?

The trouble is that the value of money changes too as a result of inflation. A pound in 10 years is worth much less than it is today.

Measurements of prices *from the time they were recorded* are known as **nominal** or **money** values over time will be exaggerated because it will capture both changes in the underlying level due to inflation.

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

For example, suppose that the median wage increases from £25,000 to £26,000 over the period. This is an increase in nominal terms of 4%. However, the price index shows that there is also positive inflation of 1%.

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

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

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

So the new median wage is £25,743. This is less than £26,000 because the effect of inflation has reduced the value of the new wage.

2.4.2. Questions

3. a) What is GDP?
b) How can GDP be adjusted to account for population size?
4. How does GDP differ from HDI?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.4.3 International Trade

Specialisation and International Trade

Adam Smith was an eighteenth-century economist who came up with idea of specialisation. This is the idea that a worker can increase their efficiency by concentrating on only one task.

Smith illustrated this with the famous 'pin factory' example – a pin has many intricate parts, so one worker alone could only produce a few pins in a day. However, if each worker specialised for one part of the production process (and become experts in this), the number of pins produced would increase dramatically (although there is a limit to the gains from specialisation – as workers are repeating the same tasks).

In the context of an economy, Smith suggested that countries should only produce goods they are good at producing, i.e. the good they have an absolute advantage in, and trade with other countries.

For example, France should specialise in producing wine and Belgium should specialise in producing iron in order to obtain both goods. France and Belgium should trade their excess wine and iron.

The Heckscher-Ohlin model explains how a country's original comparative advantage is determined by its endowment – by this the theory means the original make-up of resources that are available. Countries which are abundant in labour but where capital is scarce will find they have a comparative advantage in producing goods that heavily use labour rather than capital.

This is why comparative advantage advocates trade; countries take advantage of their comparative advantage by producing goods that use their abundant resources, and trade them for those goods that are too scarce.

Trading Blocs

A trading bloc is a set of countries which have an agreement on the level of trade restrictions between themselves.

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 which have an agreement to allow free trade between themselves. This means that there are low to no trade restrictions or barriers between the countries, which leads to increased trade among these countries.

This agreement only determines the way in which the member countries trade with the other member countries. The countries involved (member countries) are allowed to set their own trade restrictions with countries outside of the agreement (non-member countries). From this, non-member countries face a potential high trade barrier if they enter member countries by entering through the member countries. However, once they have accessed the free trade area through the member countries, they are able to trade with the other member countries without the high-barriered trade.

Custom Unions

Just like a free trade area, a custom union has an agreement with its member countries to remove trade restrictions in order to promote trade among member countries. However, to prevent member countries avoiding barriers, a custom union will have a set of common protectionist policies. This means that all the member countries will set the same barriers and restrictions to non-member countries. The European Union used to be a customs union in the 1960s and it set a 'common external tariff' for all member countries (each member country would set the same tariff to non-member countries).

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Common Markets

A common market, like a free trade area, has an agreement with its member countries to have low to no trade restrictions and a set of common protectionist measures, like a customs union. But, additionally to a customs union, a common market allows free movement of factors of production among its member countries. The EU allows any person who lives within the EU member countries to move freely without restriction, i.e. as an EU citizen, you are able to travel between EU countries without a visa or a passport (although, travelling via aeroplane still requires a passport so this rule is somewhat redundant to UK nationals due to the issue of living on an island).

Monetary Unions

A monetary union is the last step towards full integration and before the EU, had only ever been a theoretical idea. A monetary union, like a free trade area, has low to no trade restrictions to free trade, like a customs union, has a set of common external protectionist measures and, like a common market, has perfect mobility of factors of resources. However, the additional condition is that the member countries adopt a single currency (the euro!). There is another step, economic union, where member countries attempt to align their economic policies (monetary and fiscal). The EU is heading towards this step, although this is only a theoretical possibility; the outcome is uncertain and it may not even be feasible. You do not need to know this for your exam.

Extra Activity!

To understand the European Union, the European Central Bank and the Eurosystem, watch...

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



Go to zzed.uk/5868

Trade and Growth

Countries that partake in international trade will find their growth rates will increase. This is because, opening up to the international market will mean an increase in product audience and so there is room for firms to expand and grow. Equally, countries can import raw materials and 'low-value added' goods for production, such as a table company importing pine wood. Firms can outsource production to other countries to expand not just their markets but also their production and have lower costs in order to obtain a competitive advantage. Following the 2008 financial crisis, the world saw a decrease in the amount of international trade with many countries opting for protectionist measures, i.e. looking out for themselves and their own people.

Extra Activity!

Read this article a read:

<http://blogs.telegraph.co.uk/news/danielhannan/100186074/not-a-free-trade-area-but-a-customs-union-until-we-understand-the-difference-the-debate-about-our-membership-is-meaningless>



Go to zzed.uk/5868

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Imports and Exports

Visible goods are physical objectives, touchable goods that are produced.

Invisible goods are unattainable facilities, untouchable services that are provided.

The balance of payments is made up of four parts: the capital account, the current

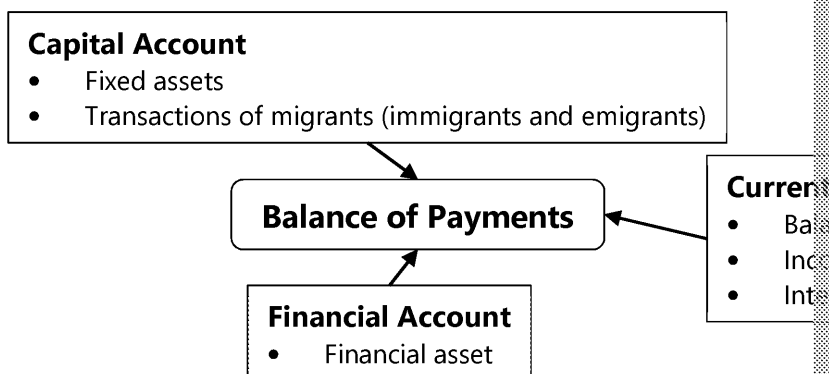
The current account has a component called the 'balance of trade' which looks at the value of goods that been exported compared to the value of goods imported and the overall balance of these. There are two parts to the balance of trade: the trade in goods balance, and the trade in services balance.

An import appears as a negative on the account because money leaves the economy in return for the imported good, and an export appears as a positive on the account because money enters the economy in return for the exported good. Therefore...

Balance of Trade Deficit can occur when the value of imports exceeds the value of exports. This is negative, meaning more income is flowing out of the economy.

Balance of Trade Surplus can occur when the value of exports exceeds the value of imports. This is positive, meaning more income is flowing into the economy.

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



Imports and living standards

The availability of imports is important for high living standards which depend on a wide range of goods. Generally, countries can't produce all the goods and services they need for their own consumption. For example, the UK we can grow bananas – but only with a system of greenhouses, UV lamps and other artificial means. It is more efficient for tropical countries to grow bananas and for the UK to import them.

The availability of imports is important because it gives consumers choice and higher living standards. If countries become embroiled in trade wars and impose import taxes on each other, then ultimately their own citizens will suffer through a lack of choice and higher prices.

2.4.3. Questions

5. Why is international trade important for countries with an export-led growth strategy?
6. a) Explain when a country has an absolute advantage and when it has a comparative advantage.
b) 'Division of labour should always be used because it only has benefits if the extent is this statement true?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.4.4 Exchange Rates

When a good is bought, an amount of money is given over 'in exchange' for the good. The value of the good is shown by the amount of money swapped for it. Currency is seen in the same way as a good. The exchange rate shows how much of one currency can be swapped (exchanged) for another currency, or the value of one currency (e.g. £) in terms of another currency (e.g. \$).

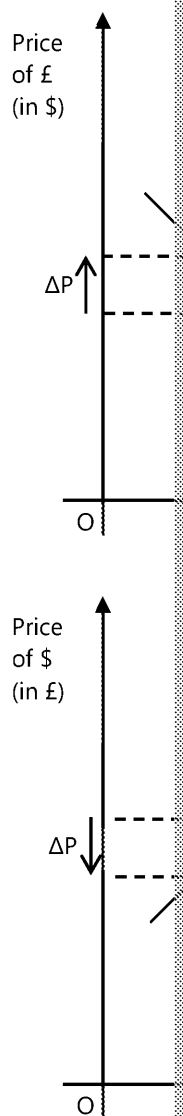
If an American consumer decides to buy a British good then they will need to change their American currency (\$s) into British currency (£s) because the good is valued in £s.

Let's look at the exchange rate of £s and \$s. When this transaction would change the market equilibrium in the foreign exchange market. The top graph shows the demand and supply of £, the quantity of £ in the global economy is shown on the x-axis, 'quantity of £'. The price of £s is shown on the y-axis and the price/value of £s is shown in \$s as we want to know how many £s we can get for \$s. The bottom graph shows the demand and supply of \$, the quantity of \$s in the global economy is shown on the x-axis, 'quantity of \$'. The price of \$s is shown on the y-axis and the price/value of \$s is shown in £s as we want to know how many \$s we can get for £s.

As the American wishes to buy £s, the demand for £s increases from $D£_1$ to $D£_2$. This causes the price of £s in \$s to increase by ΔP . The value of the £ has appreciated; this means the purchasing power of the £ (the ability of the £ to buy) has increased; the £ can buy more \$s than before. As they sell their \$s for £s, the supply of \$s increases from $S\$_1$ to $S\$_2$ and the price of \$s decreases by ΔP . The \$ has depreciated in value; this means the value of the \$ has decreased so its purchasing power has fallen and it can buy fewer £.

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

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



Extra Activity!

Black Wednesday was a significant event in UK economic history. To learn about it, watch this video...

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K_oET45GzMI&list=PL7_Yzout-xAqMCwLPLKiPLZgOIPmVLH_&index=1

Go to [zzed.uk/](https://www.zzed.uk/)

Impacts of the Exchange Rate On Firms

An appreciated currency would mean foreign goods would appear cheaper. Exporters would lose international competitiveness and may be forced out of business. However, this would also lead to increased efficiency and cut costs.

There will also be a downward pressure on inflation as consumers have access to cheaper goods. Companies that import raw materials for production will find their costs fall and are able to pass on the savings to consumers.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



A depreciated currency would mean there was more money coming into the economy, making British goods more competitively priced for foreign consumers. The export industry would grow as more firms within the market would expand and job creation increase.

A depreciated currency also has an upward pressure on prices as companies who export face costs rising and also foreign goods become more expensive.

Interpreting Exchange Rate Data – Example

Currency	Exchange rate, December (£1 equivalent)	Exchange rate, December in £s	Exchange rate, January (£1 equivalent)
US \$	1.5	0.67	1.45
Euro €	1.4	0.71	1.6
Indian rupee	100	0.01	80

The table above contains tabular data on exchange rates. Column 1 shows how many pounds are bought for one unit of the foreign currency (so £1 is worth \$1.50). Column 2 shows how many pounds of the foreign currency – so 1 Indian rupee is worth £0.01. The figures in Column 2 are the inverse of Column 1 (for example, $1 / 1.5 = 0.67$).

Columns 3 and 4 show the exchange rates in the next month (although exchange rates change on a daily basis). Using this, we can see whether the pound has weakened (depreciated) or strengthened (appreciated) over time.

With respect to the US\$, the pound has depreciated – since one pound buys fewer dollars. If the UK economy performed particularly strongly over this period (or the US economy performed weakly), the pound might have strengthened with respect to the Euro, as £1 now buys €1.6 instead of €1.4 (so £1 is worth 71p). Perhaps the Euro economies performed poorly in this period (this would also mean the pound has depreciated with respect to the US\$).

When interpreting exchange-rate data such as this, you need to be clear which way round the exchange rate is. Is it pounds to dollars (Column 1 or 3), or dollars to pounds (Column 2 or 4), for example. It is often easier to look at graphical exchange-rate data, rather than tabular.

Effective Exchange Rates (EER)

The exchange rates discussed so far only compare the currencies of two countries. The effective exchange rate (EER) tracks a country's exchange rate compared with a combination of other currencies over time. The EER is weighted in favour of a country's main trading partner: for the UK, this is the United States. The UK's exchange rate with respect to the euro also forms a large part of the EER.

The EER is usually measured as an index. Suppose we take the base year as 2000 (when the EER = 100). If the pound appreciated over the next few years, the EER would rise, perhaps to 110. A large depreciation over the next few years would bring the EER down to 90. The World Bank publishes data on EER (see <http://data.worldbank.org/indicat>).

If you look at the UK data, you will see evidence of a strong appreciation of the pound since 2010.

2.4.4. Questions

7. a) Explain the meaning of 'exchange rate'.
b) Explain the meaning of 'depreciation'.
8. A Chinese consumer decides to buy a British good. Explain why this transaction would help the British pound to appreciate and the Chinese yuan to depreciate.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.4 Keywords

Globalisation:	A broad notion referring to the idea that the world is becoming increasingly interconnected
Human Development Index:	An index that ranks countries based on a measure of income, health, and education
Economic development:	A term used to describe actions by governments to improve living standards and economic health
Trading bloc:	A group of countries that have agreed to reduce trade barriers
Fixed exchange rate:	When a country's governing body or central bank pegs its currency, in terms of another, at the same level
Floating exchange rate:	A system which allows the value of a currency to be determined by free market forces of demand and supply
Managed exchange rate:	A system in which the government intervenes to influence the exchange rate, possibly targeting a specific level
Real GDP:	A measurement of gross domestic product that has been adjusted for inflation
Nominal GDP:	Measurement of gross domestic product that has not been adjusted for inflation
GDP per capita:	A measure of national income divided by the population

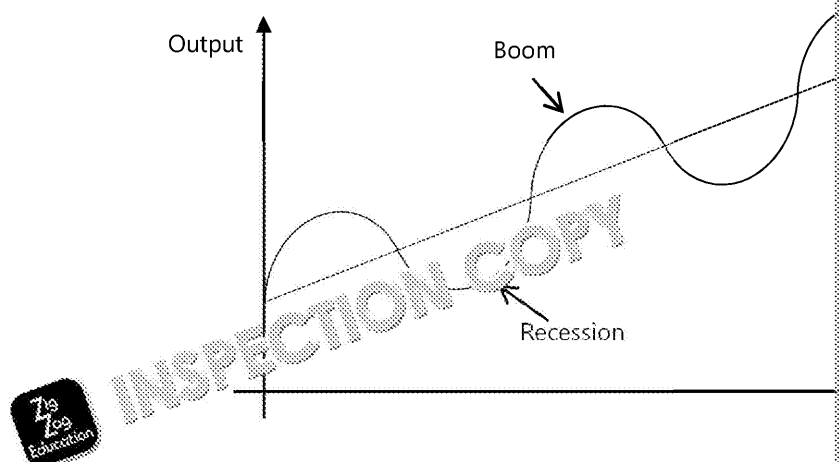
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.5 The Economic Cycle

2.5.1 The Economic Cycle



The trend-growth line shows the generally upward growth rate of an economy. In a long-term growth rate, an economy needs to have economic stability. By this it is meant that its performance, such as price, unemployment, growth and balance of payments, remain relatively stable with no fluctuations. However, in reality it is difficult to keep these variables unwavering. The causes for the fluctuations are still mostly unknown. The regular, periodic fluctuations 'cyclical changes' in the economy.

Boom

A boom is when the real national output of the economy is producing above the trend rate. The economy is using all of its resources (machines, workers, raw materials) it can produce. During a boom, the economy is using more resources than it currently has in the short run by, for example, employing workers to do overtime.

Characteristics of a Boom:

- Aggregate Demand: high and increasing levels
- Economic Growth: high
- Employment: rising
- Unemployment: low
- Wages: rising
- Government Tax Revenue: high
- Profits: high
- Share Prices: high
- Prices: rising, high levels of inflation

As an economy grows rapidly above the trend rate, firms will expand their business in order to do this they will need to employ more resources, for example labour, and as the economy nears full capacity, the prices of the resources will increase. This means that those who are employed and it will be harder for firms to gain more and so they will need to pay more for them. This means wages will increase, but so too will costs of production, creating rising rates of inflation (cost-push inflation). Equally, those who originally didn't have an income will now have a wage to spend. Those who are employed will see an increase in their wages. This increase in income will mean total demand will increase, which will push up aggregate demand and, as the theory goes, the general price level will increase (demand-pull inflation). The government will see high levels of tax revenue. As more people have a job and will pay income tax, but also a greater level of consumption means more money is spent on the goods they purchase. National debt levels may fall during a boom as the government has a surplus and are able to pay off their debt.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Recession

A recession is when the real national output of an economy is producing below the level of potential output, leading to negative growth rates. The economy is not at full employment, meaning it is not producing at its maximum capacity and there is 'spare capacity' in the economy. This means it is easy for firms to expand their production and use resources to use, but often the firms don't have the funds available for investment.

Characteristics of a Recession

- Aggregate Demand: low and decreasing levels
- Economic Growth: low, potentially negative
- Employment: falling
- Unemployment: high
- Wages: falling
- Government Tax Revenue: low
- Profits: low
- Share Prices: low
- Prices: falling, low levels of inflation, possibly deflation

As an economy enters a recession, firms will find their profit margins fall and will have to shrink them by laying off workers and other resources. Employment will fall and people will find their income falling, so consumption will drop because people won't be able to afford to spend. Firms will find their sales falling due to the decrease in demand. Resources will become cheaper in price, as firms will be more willing to accept lower wages. The government may find they need to borrow money, so spending increases on unemployment benefits but their tax revenues fall as consumption falls.

Implication of the Economic Cycle on Firms

The implication the economic cycle has on firms largely depends on the type of firm. Generally speaking, though, firms work more efficiently when there is economic stability. Fluctuations are unnerving and affect customer consumption behaviour. Unemployment and recessions can have greater effects on firms, especially when they cannot plan for the future.

This is when the topic of elasticity comes into play. Firms that have income-elastic demand for their goods will vary greatly with cyclical changes. During a recession, firms with income-elastic demand will be extra careful because there is the strong possibility they will go out of business. Firms that sell luxury goods will see high revenues as people's incomes rise. Firms that sell inferior goods will see the opposite. A firm that sees an increase in demand with falling incomes; for example, for supermarket goods. Firms that sell inelastic goods may not notice too much of a change in their demand with changing incomes.

2.5.1. Questions

1. Draw an economic cycle diagram.
 - a) Label the positive output gap(s).
 - b) Illustrate this gap / these gaps using an AS-AD diagram.
 - c) Using the concept of capacity, explain what is happening within the economy.
 - d) What is happening to inflation, unemployment, confidence and the balance of payments throughout the economic cycle?
2. What are the effects of economic growth on consumers, firms, the government and the standard of living?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



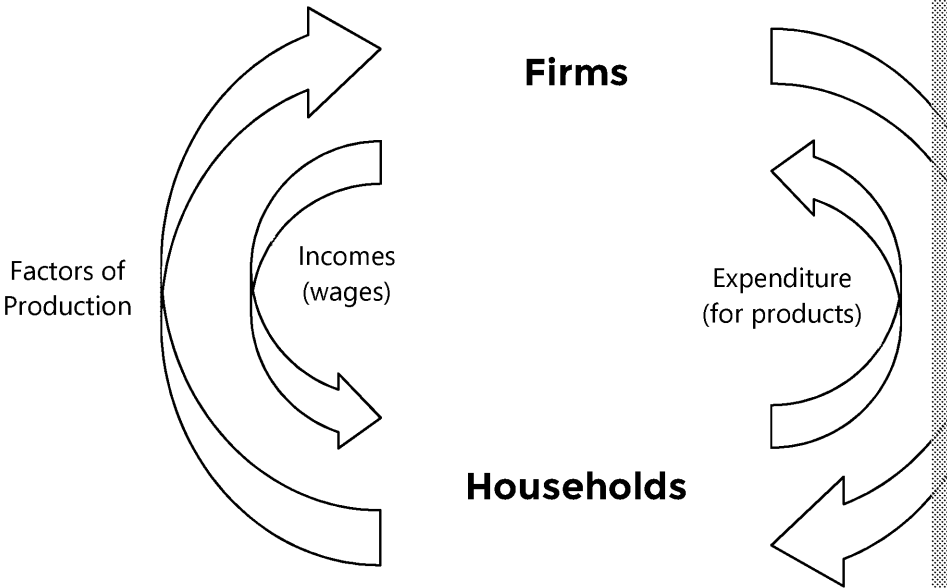
2.5.2.a Circular Flow of Income, Expenditure and Output

Income is the money that a person receives in exchange for something, i.e. wages for letting a property. It moves from one agent to another, it is seen as a flow of money.

Wealth is the money that a person holds. It may have built up from wages or investments anywhere. It is seen as a stock as it is money that is kept stored. Wealth can be saved in houses (assets).

Wealth can create income; the money and items stored can generate a flow of money. If you own a house, the house is wealth, it is a stock/store of wealth, but if you let it out, it generates an income back from it in the form of rent.

With this in mind, let's look at the diagram that shows the circular flow of income in a simple economy. There is no government and no interaction with other economies, therefore the economy is closed. By households we mean a unit of economic activity, one individual or a family, from where they work (at firms) and spend their incomes buying the goods and services produced. Firms receive factors of production, such as labour, from households and produce goods and services bought by households. Income flows round and round the economy from firms to households and back.



Injections and Withdrawals

This is a very unrealistic model of the economy. In reality, firms do much more than produce goods; similarly, consumers do more than spend their wages on goods. In reality, the economy is open, and we do interact with other economies.

Think of the circular-flow-of-income diagram as a circular flow of water. Water flows in a circular flow of income, but you can 'inject' more water into the system and the system will grow. If you remove water from the system, the system will shrink. If the injections are bigger than the withdrawals, the economy will grow. If the withdrawals are bigger than the injections, then overall the economy will shrink. The macroeconomic equilibrium is reached when the system (economy) remains constant, where injections equal withdrawals. If injections are greater than withdrawals, the economy will grow, and if withdrawals are greater than injections, the economy will shrink.

Withdrawals are things that economic agents (within the system) do with their incomes that remove money from the circular flow. By taking money out of the circular flow it is no longer going to be used to buy goods and services produced within the system.

Injections are things that outside economic agents do with their incomes that result in new money entering the circular flow. There is now more money going around the system. Each injection adds to the total income in the system.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Savings and Investments

Savings are a withdrawal because instead of spending incomes and keeping it flowing, they may instead put it into a savings account. This takes it out of the system. Investments are injections because they put money into the economy in order to improve or increase production. Investments can be influenced indirectly by changing the rate of interest. If interest rates are high, people are likely to save because they will receive more money from their savings account. If interest rates are low, they are likely to fall because people will be deterred by the larger sums of money they'll have to pay.

Taxes and Government Spending

This injection and withdrawal can be directly influenced by the government. Taxes are a withdrawal, taking money out of the economy. Government spending is an injection, putting money into the economy. Letting incomes flow around the economy, a proportion of income is given to the government. This is the money that the government spends in the economy in order to provide things like roads, schools, and hospitals.

Imports and Exports

In reality, our economy does interact with other economies. When we buy foreign goods we send money from our economy to the other economy and receive a good from them in return. The good is an imported good, but the money is a withdrawal. We may make a good that is bought by another economy. In this instance our economy receives money as an injection and our good is exported to theirs.

Impacts of Injections and Withdrawals and the Multiplier

The market is in equilibrium when the injections are equal to the withdrawals. When more income is entering the economy than is leaving and so the economy will grow. When more income is leaving the economy than is entering and so the economy shrinks and grows by is not always equal to the injections or withdrawals. The multiplier. An example will be used to explain the multiplier...

The government decides to build more colleges and sixth forms to encourage student education. They have £20 million that they give to various building contractors. The contractors spend £20 million into the economy. The economy grows by £20 million. The building contractors pay their workers; the income flows from firms to households. The households pay for electricity on bills to buy electricity for their houses. The income then flows from households to firms.

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

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

The size of the multiplier depends on two things: the amount of income that is injected each time. If injections are large, the economy will grow by a large amount. The amount of income that is withdrawn each time. If withdrawals are large, the economy won't grow by much each time. This creates the multiplier effect. The multiplier is the ratio of the change in the economy to the change in the injections and withdrawals and the proportions of each.

So how would it work using the example that was given at the beginning? See the example. The economy would increase by the £20 million injection. £20 million would go round the economy. Every £1, 5p would be spent on tax (5% of the injection), 15p would be saved (15% of the injection), 10p would be spent on imports (10% of the injection). So 30% of the £20 million would be leaked out of the economy. £14 million would be circulated round the next time. Then 30% of the £14 million would be leaked out. £9.8 million would be circulated round the next time. This goes on and on until the economy has reached equilibrium and in total the economy would have grown by £60 million.

The multiplier can also be shown using an aggregate supply and demand diagram. This will be used to learn what aggregate demand and aggregate supply is...

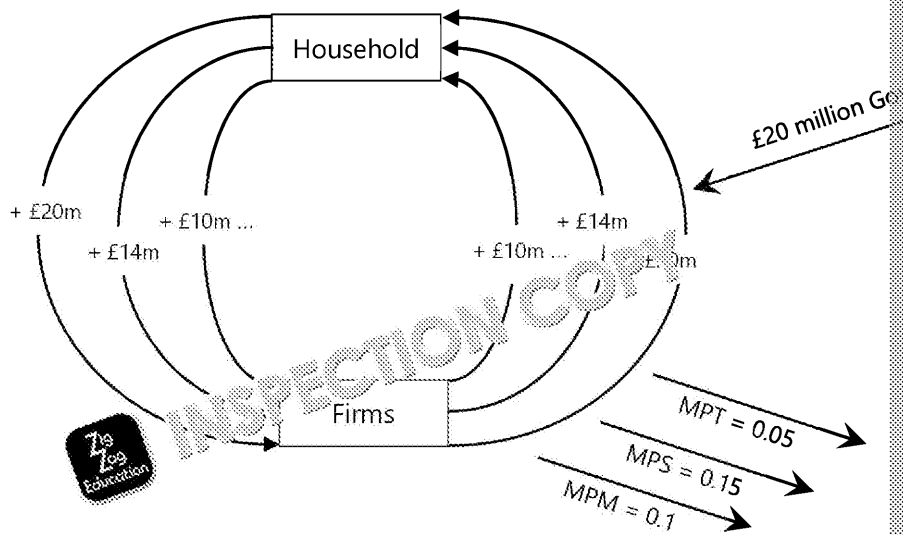
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.5.2.a Questions

3. a) What is an injection and what is a withdrawal?
b) List the six injections and withdrawals.

4.



- a) Draw a circular flow diagram with all the injections and withdrawals
b) Explain how income flows around the economy.
c) What would happen if injections were bigger than withdrawals?
d) What would happen if the government increased the tax rate?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.5.2.b Aggregate Demand and Aggregate Supply

Aggregate Demand

In the last theme we look at demand; in this topic we look at aggregate demand, which is the total demand for all goods and services in the economy. Every individual person's demand curve and each demand curve for every other person are added together to create the aggregate demand curve. It is the total spending in the economy (by all households) on domestic products in a given time period.

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

60% 15% 25% 1%

Aggregate demand is made up of four components: consumption, investment, government spending, and net exports.

Consumption is the total amount of spending from households, individuals and companies. When people go out and consume more goods, this means consumption has increased, and so aggregate demand. On the other hand, if consumption falls, aggregate demand falls.

Investment is the total amount of spending for firms. Firms invest money either to increase the production of goods they produce or to replace their old machines. If investment increases then this is an increase in aggregate demand and so aggregate demand increases.

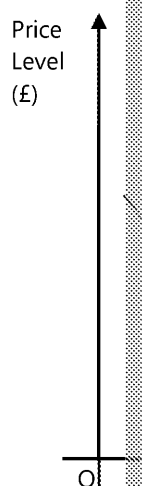
Government spending is mostly autonomous. Whereas consumption and investment are determined by consumer confidence, tax or interest rate changes, for example, government expenditure is determined by government policy and other factors of the economy.

Net trade is the sum total of income flowing out of the economy from imports and into the economy from exports. If exports increase and/or imports fall, net trade increases and so aggregate demand. If there is more money coming into the economy than leaving (if exports are greater than imports) there is a trade surplus. If imports are greater than exports then there is a trade deficit. The demand for imports bought not only depends on their price, but also the price of foreign goods relative to domestic goods. If domestic goods are cheaper relative to foreign goods then we would say 'UK goods are more competitive'. If the demand for UK exports would increase (as foreign consumers would switch to buy UK goods) and demand for imports would fall (as domestic consumers would switch from foreign goods to domestic goods), net trade would increase, there would be a trade surplus and aggregate demand would increase.

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

The diagram to the left shows the aggregate demand curve. When aggregate demand increases, the curve shifts out, and when aggregate demand decreases, the curve shifts in. In theme one with demand and supply diagrams, the x-axis was the quantity of goods produced. In macroeconomics we look at the whole economy and so we look at the total goods and service that were produced in an economy. Because Real Gross Domestic Product (Real GDP) is the total volume of goods and services produced in one economy in one year, it is what is used for the x-axis.

Microeconomics talks about prices for individual goods in the context of individual markets. With macroeconomics the focus is on the 'price level' in the economy. That is, the average price of all goods in the economy. Movements up and down the y-axis indicate rises and falls in the price level.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



the economy. A rise in the price level is known as inflation, a fall in the price level is known as deflation. Disinflation, however, is when the price level has risen, but not by as much as before, i.e. the rate/volume that prices have risen by has fallen.

Inflation = a sustained rise in the general price level

Deflation = a sustained fall in general price level

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

Aggregate Supply

In the last theme we look at supply; in this topic we're looking at aggregate supply in the economy. Aggregate supply is the sum total of all the supply curves for every firm in the economy. In microeconomics supply firms would switch to producing different goods with the greatest profit. In macroeconomics looking at aggregate supply, firms switching from one industry to another adds to the overall supply from the economy.

There are various schools of thought within economics and some have conflicting views. In this exam you may be asked to differentiate between the Keynesian AS curve and the Classical AS curve. The two schools have different shaped AS curves. First in this topic you need to understand the difference between short-run and long-run aggregate supply.

Short run and Long run

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

Long run: all factors of production can be changed.

For example: A fisherman has a fishing rod (capital), a river running through his garden (land), bait for the fish (raw materials) and, of course, himself (labour). The people in his village have recently heard that fish is good for you. The price of fish has increased.

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

He buys a better fishing rod that allows him to catch bigger fish; another factor of production has changed. Labour and land are still constant. This is the short run.

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

The river also runs through his neighbour's garden. He decides to buy some more land to increase the amount of river that he can fish from. Now, all the factors of production have changed. This is the long run.

Short-run aggregate supply is the total volume of goods and services supplied in the economy. Firms are able to change some of their factors of production to react to price changes. Long-run aggregate supply is the total volume of goods and services supplied in the economy in the long run. Firms are able to change all factors of production to react to price change. If all factors of production are able to increase aggregate supply to meet its maximum productive capacity, the long-run aggregate supply (LRAS) curve means the economy is producing at its maximum sustainable output at full capacity.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



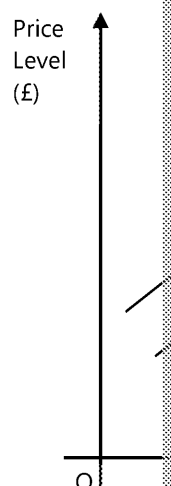
Short-run Aggregate Supply (SRAS)

Supply shocks are factors that cause a change in SRAS. They will affect firms in the change some of their factors of production. Short-run aggregate supply can easily react to changes in the firm's cost of production. The things that affect SRAS are:

- **Raw Materials (Wage Rates and Energy)**

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

Energy is an influential cost within the economy because all firms need energy to produce goods and services. Factories and offices need electricity to run and heat rooms and for capital, such as manufacturing machines or computers. If energy prices increase firms may cut back on energy. The economy as a whole would see the aggregate supply curve shift inwards. Wage rates are another influential cost of production. Wages are the cost of labour and so if the wage rate increases, it will be more costly for firms to produce.



- **Exchange Rates (Exports and Imports)**

The exchange rate will affect the prices of exported goods and goods that are imported. For example, a table-making company may import the timber. If the exchange rate changes and the pound becomes expensive, then aggregate supply will fall, as firms will not be able to produce as much at each and every price level.

- **Tax Rates**

The government may change the tax rate on certain goods or add taxes/take away taxes. This will increase the cost of production and reduce aggregate supply.

Long-run Aggregate Supply (LRAS)

In the long run all factors of production will be changed. Therefore, only factors that affect the potential of the economy affect long-run aggregate supply. The things that affect LRAS are:

- **Technological Advances**

Technological advances tend to mean there is an improvement in technology. More productive capital means output per unit is greater and therefore the marginal product of labour is greater and long-run aggregate supply will increase.

- **Relative Productivity**

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

- **Education and Skill**

The ability of the workforce is a constant variable and can only really be improved through education. A wider economy, such as to school leaving age. If the workforce is better educated, it will be more productive. A more productive workforce will be able to produce more output per unit of input so the long-run aggregate supply curve will increase.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- **Government Regulation**

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

- **Demographic and Migration**

The labour supply available to an economy is often fixed. If all workers are employed, there are only so many goods an economy can produce.

Migration allows the supply of labour to increase or decrease, which would increase or decrease long-run aggregate supply respectively. The age of the population is also important. Working age is 18 to 65 by UK standards and so if migration or simply time means the economy is populated with people above working age, then this will cause little increase to the maximum productive potential. An influx of young people, either from a previous baby boom or immigration, is likely to increase long-term aggregate supply because this has increased the supply of workers.

- **Competition Policy**

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

Differing LRAS Curves

To learn the difference between the new classical view of the LRAS and the Keynesian view, try to understand how classicalist and Keynesian economists differ.

How do Classicalists and Keynesians differ?

Classicalists believe that the long-run markets will always find equilibrium. In the labour market, a fall in demand for labour would lead to a fall in the wage rate and employment; the market adjusts to clear the demand and supply for the labour market with wage rates (price of labour) on the y-axis and (quantity of labour used) on the x-axis. If the demand for labour falls, the DL curve shifts left and employment falls as fewer firms are willing to pay this wage rate for workers. The workers and unemployed workers will adjust their 'wage expectations' to accept the lower wage rate. As the wage rate falls and employment rises again, as more firms are willing to pay these new wages. Employment is not at the same level, but there is no unemployment, as those who aren't employed are not willing to supply their labour at these lower wages.

Keynesians instead believe that when the demand for labour falls to DL2, workers will not adjust their wage expectations and the wage rate will not change either: 'sticky wages'. The excess of supply of labour remains (unemployment) and will only disappear when demand rises again.

These two schools of thought and their differing assumptions create two different long-run aggregate supply curves (LRAS).

This will lead to lower wages. Other things being equal, the aggregate supply curve will also shift.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



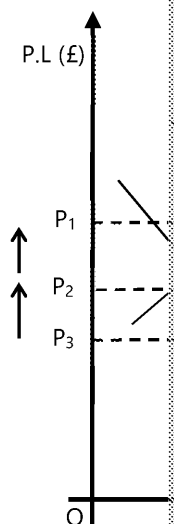
New-Classical (Free-Market View)

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

The diagram shows that any increase in AD will only result in price level changes and not output changes. The equilibrium point is at full employment (where all resources are being used efficiently) and the market will always revert back to a point on the LRAS.

Classical economists believe the market will gravitate towards equilibrium at full employment. Some new-classicalists believe this will happen straight away. Some new-classicalists believe that eventually the market will find equilibrium.

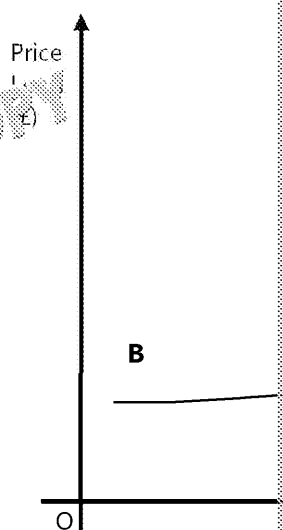
The new-classical model is adapted to include a short-run aggregate supply (SRAS) curve to explain the market when it is temporarily out of equilibrium and not on the LRAS curve. This can explain the market, not only when it is under full employment, but also when it is producing above full employment.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



Keynesian (Interventionist)

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

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



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



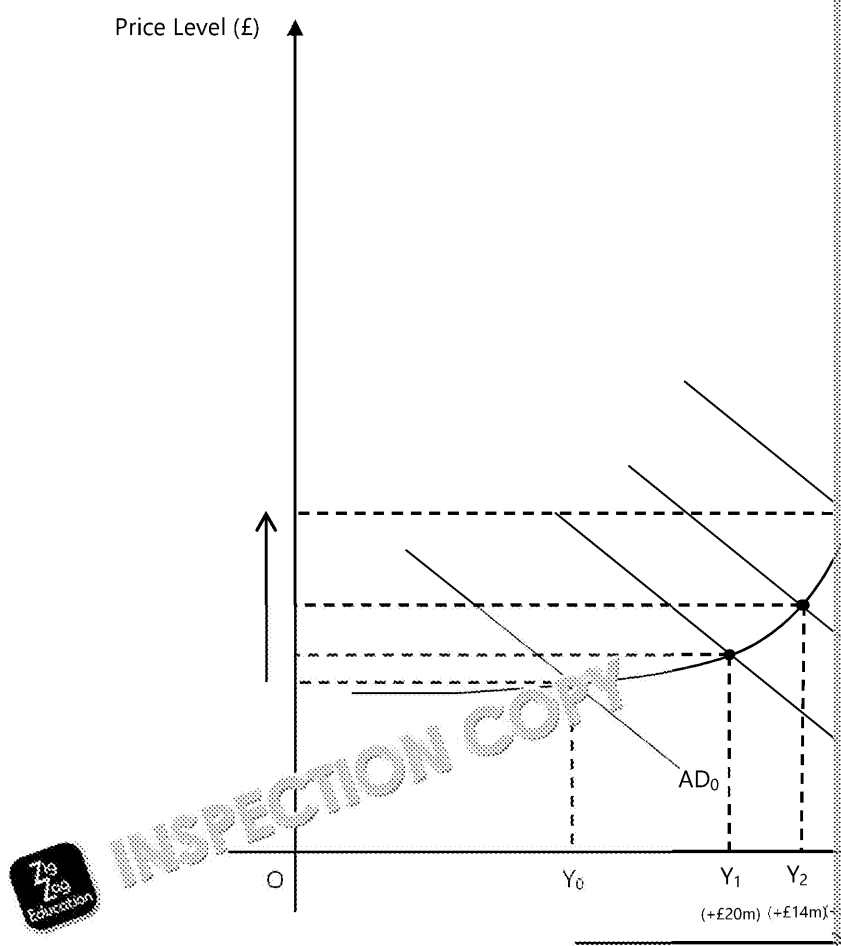
Section B shows an elastic aggregate supply. Here the economy is likely to be deep in recession, with many resources unemployed. At this point there is spare capacity to grow. Output can increase without increasing prices. This is because there is no competition for resources and a firm can offer a lower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

Section C, the middle section, is the part that brings the two extremes together. Here the economy is in a state of economic growth. Increased GDP and higher price level. This is a well-known relationship where inflation is caused by economic growth. This will be discussed later in Topic 2.6.4.

Classical economists believe equilibrium would always gravitate towards full employment. In a free market, everything will adapt to the changes, such as workers accepting lower wages. However, there are frictions within the market that would prevent it from adjusting, such as sticky wages. The economy could be in equilibrium (where AD meets AS), but this could be stuck at a point below full employment. Unemployed workers won't accept lower-paid jobs and will remain unemployed. The aggregate demand and AD is unlikely to move up. Prices stay low, costs of production would increase with increasing demand to meet, so firms are unlikely to change their supply and increase production of resources.

Multiplier

The multiplier can also be shown using the aggregate demand and aggregate supply diagram. For example from Topic 2.5.2a (page 67) and the Keynesian AS/AD diagram, this will be shown.



Every time the income flows around the economy, the aggregate demand curve is shifted outwards. This is because, each time, as money is withdrawn.

The initial £20 million injection pushes the AD curve outwards to AD₁. The economy is now producing £20 million worth of goods. £6 million was withdrawn and the other £14 million goes on until all the income has been withdrawn from the economy; production has increased by £14 million. The AD curve is pushed out again to AD₂, where the economy is producing another £14 million. This process goes on until all the income has been withdrawn from the economy; production has increased by £14 million.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



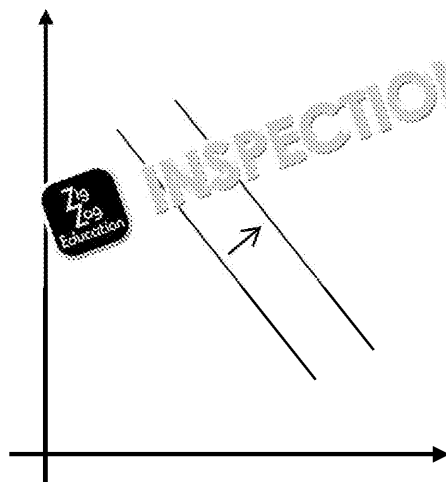
2.5.2.b Questions

5. a) For a firm, how are the short run and the long run defined?
 b) What factors could affect long-run aggregate supply?
 c) What factors could affect short-run aggregate supply?

6. Fill in the blanks:

$$AD = C + I + \square + (\square)$$

7. a) Complete this diagram showing aggregate demand by labelling the y-axis.



- b) What has happened to this curve?
 c) i) What four main factors can shift the AD curve?
 ii) For each factor, explain two to three reasons the curve has moved.
 8. Use a diagram to show how an outward shift in the AD curve will cause inflation and how this is only sustainable if the LRAS shifts too (use a classical LRAS curve).

INSPECTION COPY

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.5.3 Inflation

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

Inflation is a sustained rise in the average price level.

Deflation is a sustained fall in average price level.

Disinflation is a fall in inflation, i.e. a fall in the increase in average price level.

Country A's inflation rate was 3% in Year 1 but in July its inflation rate was 2%. This rate has fallen but there is still a rise in general price.

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

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

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

How Inflation May Change Measurements (Real versus Nominal)

The problem inflation causes in measurements will be explained using GDP...

If GDP is the total number of products, then the number of goods and services should be the 'volume' of goods and services, but what is the value? A function of money is to give value to goods and services. To compare the changes in the GDP, goods and services need to be given a comparable value. Therefore, to calculate GDP, the total price for all the goods and services produced is used, which is the monetary value of the economy.

Prices, however, change over time. The price of a good is determined by the market. Changes in supply and demand will change the market equilibrium, such as for beef prices due to the 'horse meat scandal' which caused a fall in demand, and a consequent fall in price. Prices have generally been increasing over time mostly because the supply of oil is falling. Prices of many goods are rising if this keeps changing then the unit of measurement keeps changing.

The nominal price is the current price of the good at the time of recording. Prices measured in nominal prices rise over time. If GDP is only measured in nominal terms, a country's GDP will look as if it is performing well strongly, when in fact the effect is mainly from price increases.

For example an economy producing 50 pairs of socks at £1 each will seem to have grown if the prices increase to £1.50 but the economy is still only producing 50 pairs of socks, then the nominal level of £75. The economy appears to have grown; however, really it has not grown at all.

Instead, economists would rather look at the 'real' change when comparing GDP over time. This is the change in 'real' value of the goods without the effect of rising prices (inflation). To calculate the volume of goods and services produced in a country in one year and compare it to what would have had in a certain comparison year. The year that is picked is called the 'base year'. All subsequent measurements are based on. Read the following section to learn how to measure change over time using indices.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Price Indices and Measure of Inflation

Consumer Price Index (CPI) is measure of inflation and is the measure used by the government. It is an index of prices, and measures the percentage change in prices. A percentage change in the CPI is the inflation rate.

There are far too many goods and services in the UK produced by a variety of suppliers and sold at a variety of outlets to measure all of them. Instead, CPI measures the prices of a representative proportion of aggregate consumption, i.e. CPI measures the price change for 650 goods and services that are typically bought by an average household. These 650 goods/services are referred to as a 'basket of goods' and are found from the Living Costs and Food Survey. This is where households taking the survey record their expenditure for a month and this is used to determine an average pattern. The relative and changing price of this 'basket' is used to give the rate of average inflation. Preferences change, meaning the 'basket' of goods changes and so the basket is updated to keep the basket of goods representative and up to date.

The Living Costs and Food Survey has another use as well. Inflation on expensive goods has a greater impact on the economy than cheaper goods do. Equally, prices of essential and widely used goods, such as food, will have a more significant impact on the economy than goods and services that are not essential. For this reason, some goods need to have greater importance attached to them due to their impact on the economy. 'Weights' are given to items to account for their various impacts. These weights are based on the Living Costs and Food Survey.

Indexation and Measuring CPI

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

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

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- 1) First you need to select a base year. There may be particular reasons for picking otherwise it can be any. In this example 2013 will be the base year because it is the year of the survey.
- 2) From the survey, the goods bought by most households and their weights for the survey. The goods and their weights may change slightly according to price changes.

- 3) The price level for each year is then found from the representative sample data for each good by its weight and adding these totals together.

$$\text{Price Level}_{\text{Year}} = (\text{Price}_A \times \text{Weight}_A) + (\text{Price}_B \times \text{Weight}_B) + (\text{Price}_C \times \text{Weight}_C) + \dots$$

$$\text{Price Level}_{2013} = (£25 \times 0.1) + (£1.5 \times 0.65) + (£5 \times 0.15) + (£7.5 \times 0.1) = 2.5$$

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

- 4) Then the index value is found by $\text{Index for that year} = \left(\frac{\text{Price Value of Year}}{\text{Price Value of Base Year}} \right) \times 100$
So the year 2014 would be $101 = \left(\frac{£5.02}{£4.98} \right) \times 100$

- 5) The base year is always 100. $\left[100 = \left(\frac{£4.98}{£4.98} \right) \times 100 \right]$. Any index above 100 shows a rise in price level and therefore inflation, e.g. from 2013 to 2014 (index 101) there was 1% inflation. If the index was 98 then there would be 2% deflation.

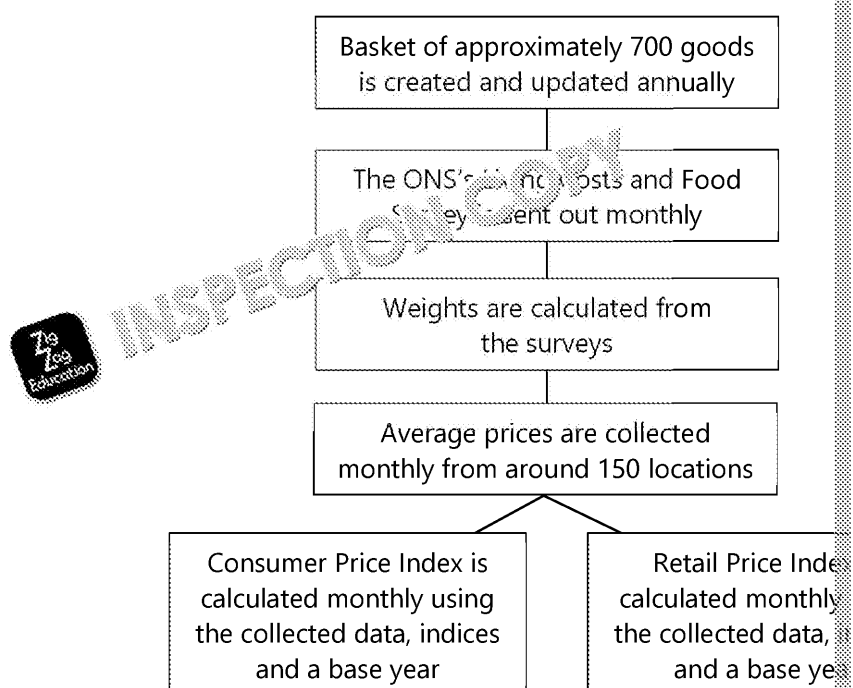
- 6) To find the inflation between years, you first find the difference between the two index numbers. $\text{Inflation} = \left[\frac{(\text{Index}_B - \text{Index}_A)}{\text{Index}_{\text{Base}}} \right] \times 100$. So the inflation from 2014 to 2015 is $\left[\frac{(102 - 101)}{100} \right] \times 100 = 1\%$. Because the base year is always 100, finding inflation from the base year can be simplified.
 $\text{Inflation} = \text{Difference between two years} \%$

Retail Price Index (RPI)

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

Both measures use a representative proportion of aggregate household consumption (the ONS's Family Expenditure Survey records what most households buy, they both record their prices for a variety of goods/services, suppliers and retail outlets (small independent and large chains). They both use weighted prices and calculate index change from a base year.

The difference between the two measures is very complicated and does not need to be covered here. CPI uses a geometric average, whereas RPI uses an arithmetic average. But the main difference is that RPI includes energy costs and CPI includes energy costs which will show a bigger impact from oil-price changes.



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Causes of Inflation

Now that you have learnt about the AS and AD curve, it is possible to explain the AS diagram (see end of section). Factors that cause inflation can be separated into two groups: those that affect aggregate demand and those that affect aggregate supply.

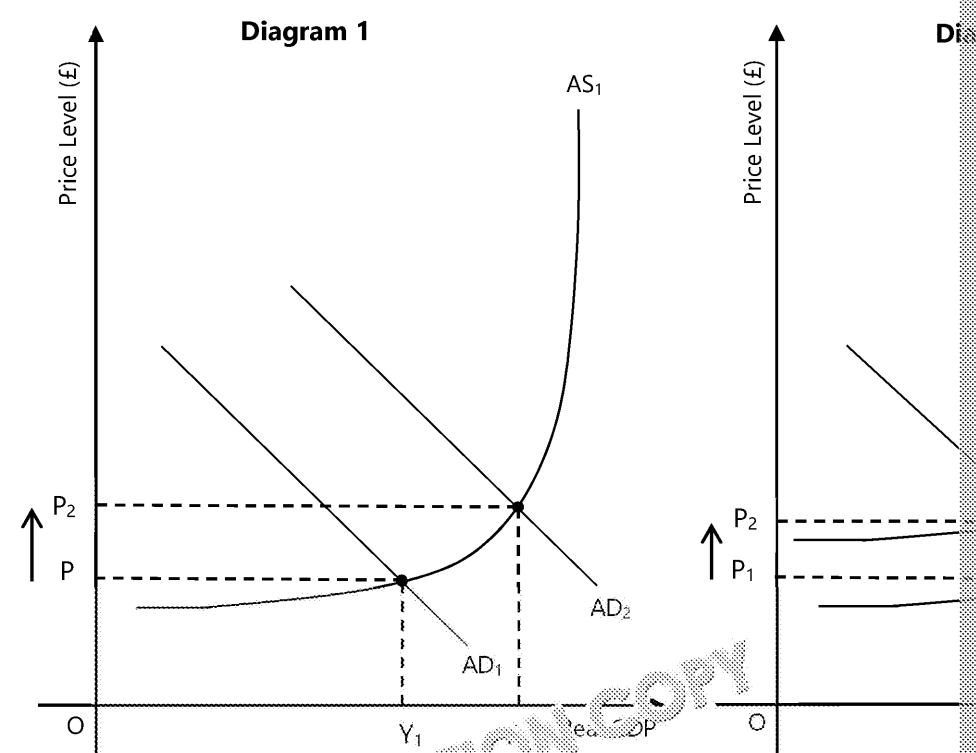
Demand-pull Inflation

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

Demand-pull inflation occurs when any of the factors that affect aggregate demand increase. For example, if income tax has fallen, then consumption will increase and the aggregate demand curve shifts outwards. If confidence and expectations are high then firms and consumers are likely to increase investment which will push the aggregate demand curve outwards and pull up price level.

Cost-push Inflation

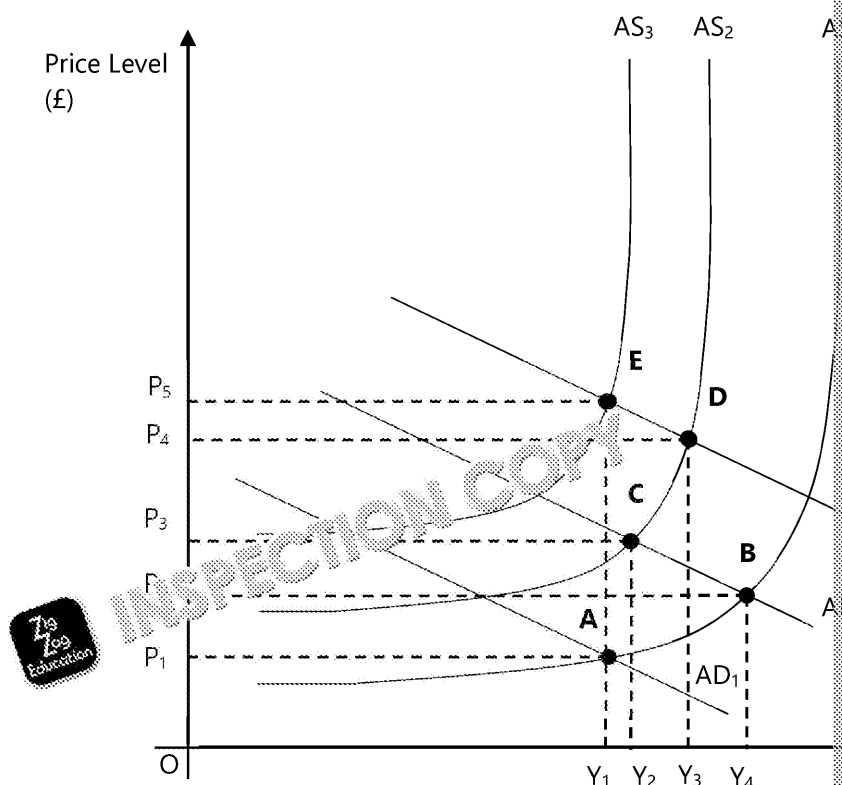
Cost-push inflation occurs when aggregate supply decreases and the price level is pushed up. Diagram 2, where AS_1 shifts in to AS_2 and prices rise from P_1 to P_2 . This happens when costs increase. In order to cover these new costs, firms will push the costs on to the consumers.



INSPECTION COPY

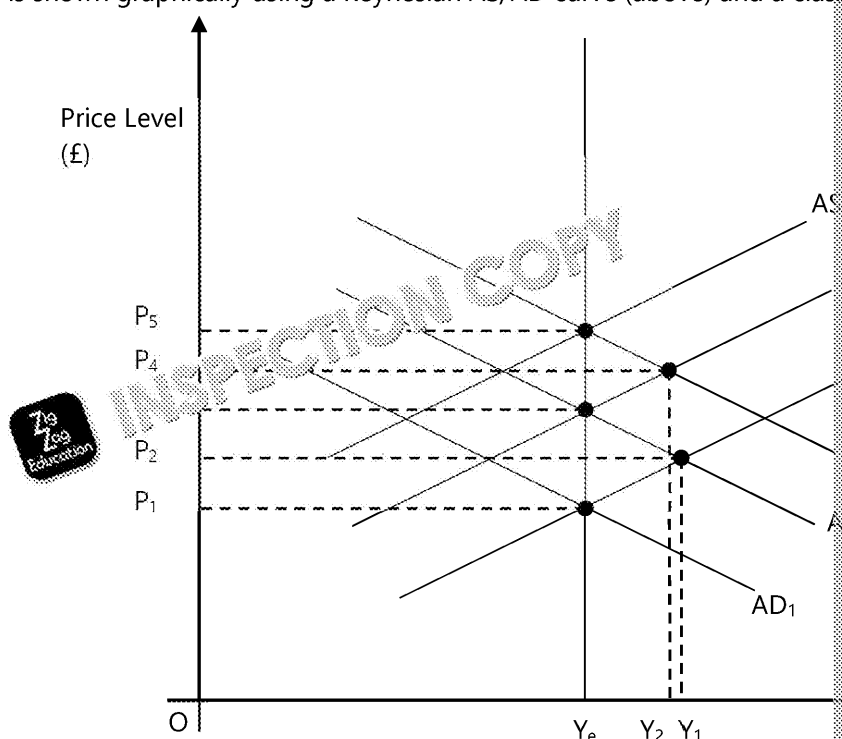
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Wage-price Spiral

The wage-price spiral is a process that occurs when demand-pull and cost-push inflation interact (as shown in the diagrams above and below). Let's start at **Point A**. Here, prices are at P_1 . Demand shifts to AD_2 for whatever reason and so the aggregate demand curve shifts to AD_2 . Now the economy is at **Point B** and prices have risen to P_2 . The cost of living has gone up and so workers demand higher wages for their labour. The aggregate supply curve now shifts in to AS_2 . Now the economy is at **Point C** and the price level has risen to P_3 . Because the workers have more money from their increased consumption and the aggregate demand curve pushes out again to AD_3 . Now the economy is at **Point D** and there has been demand-pull inflation, prices have risen again to P_4 . To cover the increased cost of living, workers demand higher wages, causing the aggregate supply curve to shift in to AS_3 . Now the economy is at **Point E** and there has been cost-push inflation pushing the price level up again to P_5 . This is shown graphically using a Keynesian AS/AD curve (above) and a classical AS/AD curve (below).



COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Impact of Inflation...

There are a variety of problems that arise from price changes. Inflation can be associated with negative growth because, often, inflation follows growth. Deflation, therefore, is associated with negative growth. Deflation can also cause negative growth rates. If prices are falling then firms and consumers can get a better deal because things will be cheaper. If people stop buying goods then the economy will stop expanding (think about the circular-flow-of-income diagram). However, that inflation should be positive; however, high levels of inflation can still have undesirable effects.

On Firms

Uncertainty, International competitiveness

- **Menu Costs:** Changing prices mean firms have to change their labels, print new price lists, and machines (tills, vending machines, etc.) also have to be updated.
- **International Competitiveness:** As UK prices rise, UK goods will appear more expensive in comparison to foreign goods, *ceteris paribus*. Therefore, inflation can diminish the competitiveness of UK goods and services, making them relatively expensive.
- **Anticipated Inflation (Expectations):** If inflation is anticipated, firms and governments can plan accordingly, protecting themselves from inflation and mitigating its effects. However, if inflation is unexpected, it can throw off budgets which will lead to problems. If inflation is anticipated, firms can take steps to protect themselves for price rises but unanticipated inflation can create uncertainty in investment decisions.

On Individuals

Loss of real income, savers and borrowers

- **Diminishes the Value of Savings:** Because inflation decreases purchasing power, the value of savings is diminished. The values of savings are usually diminished by inflation. High enough inflation can help mitigate the value of savings. Pension schemes are susceptible to inflation for the same reason.
- **Shoe-leather Costs:** As a consumer, if you know roughly the relative prices of goods, you can easily judge whether a price is acceptable. Firms need knowledge of relative prices of their good before determining a price. Inflation means prices are changing constantly, which makes it difficult to compare the prices of a good. This idea of a 'shoe leather' cost comes from the notion that shoe leather would be worn down from walking between various shops to gather knowledge of the prices of the goods.
- **Disposable Income (Loss of Real Income):** Disposable income is the income that people have left after tax; in other words, it is the money left over once tax has been added. If prices rise then the purchasing power of people's income is diminished. Money doesn't go as far. Imagine you have £5, it costs £1 for the bus to school. At the end of the day you still have £2.50 to do with as you please. Maybe you buy a magazine of crisps. Now, you still have £5 but inflation is at 20%. The bus to school now costs £1.20, you only have £2 left to do with as you please. But the magazine is £2.20 and you are unable to purchase the same things as before. This is a particular concern to public-sector workers can find their wages are 'frozen' when the government 'freezes' wages. A 'freeze' means wages are kept fixed at the same nominal value. In real terms, the value of wages falls and purchasing power is reduced.
- **Costs of living:** If inflation increases then people's costs of living increase. This can be particularly problematic for socio-economic groups living on or close to the poverty line. Workers with low wages and no wage-rate determination may find themselves in a squeeze from rising costs. If inflation is high, then the real value of wages falls and purchasing power is reduced.

2.5.3. Questions

9. What is the difference between inflation, deflation and disinflation?
10. How do real and nominal GDP differ?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.5.4 Employment and Unemployment

Employment: a worker who has a job and is earning a wage is said to be in employment.

Unemployment: a worker who is economically active but without a job is said to be unemployed.

Underemployment: a worker who is employed in part-time work but is willing and able to be employed full-time is said to be underemployed.

Underemployment occurs when a job requires less of a worker than the worker is able or willing to do, e.g. part-time cover for full hours when the worker wishes to do more hours. The requirements of a job are less than the skill set or education that a worker possesses. Underemployment in an economy can mean the economy is producing less than it could because, even if all resources are used, they are not used efficiently. Recent university graduates are often underemployed, as financial struggles can cause them to take jobs that are below their skill set.

Employment does not fall just because unemployment has risen; they are separate values and fluctuate independently of each other. For example, if there is an increase in the number of people who are economically active but no new jobs, then the level of employment has risen but unemployment has remained the same.

Measures of Unemployment

There are two main measures of unemployment: ILO unemployment rate and claimant count. The two measures tend to differ by a greater amount when the economy is successful and thriving than when it is declining.

ILO Unemployment Rate

The International Labour Organization defines unemployment as 'those who are without work but have not yet found it'. To identify the level of unemployment, the Labour Force Survey asks whether people are in or out of work, want to work, and are seeking or not seeking work. From the sample, an estimated percentage of unemployment is calculated for the economy.

Claimant Count

This measures unemployment by counting the number of people who have registered as unemployed and are claiming jobseeker's allowance. To be eligible to claim jobseeker's allowance, a person must be out of work but also economically active (i.e. able to work and actively seeking work).

The claimant count is quite a broad measure of unemployment, as it counts all those who are claiming jobseeker's allowance rather than just a sample of people. The claimant count generally underestimates unemployment because it only counts those who are claiming, there are many who are unemployed but not claiming jobseeker's allowance.

Extra Activity

The ONS defines underemployment as those who are employed but would like to work more hours than they wish to work. The 2008 Global Financial Crisis led to a rise in underemployment.

People who are employed but would like to work more hours than they wish to work.

People who are employed but are not using their skills, e.g. a graduate working in a retail job due to financial struggles, or the unemployed who are not actively seeking work.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Causes of Unemployment

• Structural Unemployment

When the demand for labour is low and doesn't meet the supply of labour then people are unemployed. This can happen in a variety of ways and is caused by the mismatch between demand and supply. As economists, we assume the resources in an economy can shift between markets. We assume there are no barriers to factor mobility. However, when industries change, workers do not adapt to rising industries because of a mismatch in skills.

Structural unemployment can also exist because the supply and demand of labour in the country are mismatched. When a worker does not have the required skills for a job, this is known as occupational unemployment – this is linked to structural unemployment. Generally, workers cannot move locations to take up a new job, perhaps due to housing costs.

Another variation on structural unemployment is technological unemployment. New technologies may displace workers, as their jobs can be performed more cheaply by machines. For example, in the automobile industry, robots have replaced many workers.

• Frictional Unemployment

While people change from one job to another there is a period of unemployment known as frictional unemployment. It refers to people who are 'between jobs'. Most economists do not consider frictional unemployment as a problem.

• Seasonal Unemployment

Workers in tourist-reliant industries tend to suffer from seasonal unemployment. They find they are out of work during certain periods. Generally, seasonal unemployment occurs in winter.

• Demand Deficiency And Cyclical Unemployment

Unemployment occurs when an economy is in recession. In order to cut back on costs, firms will reduce the number of resources it uses. One of these resources is labour. As a result, jobs are lost and the level of unemployment will rise. This is likely to occur whenever there is a recession or not, because firms will restrict supply by making resources redundant to meet the lower demand levels.

• Real-wage Inflexibility

If the actual wage rate exceeds the market equilibrium wage rate then there will be more people willing to supply labour than people willing to demand it. The excess supply of labour represents unemployed labour.

If the market equilibrium wage rate fell because demand for labour fell, for example, the actual wage rate may remain at the same point rather than falling. This is because the labour market is inflexible to change. Wages are 'sticky'; wages do not change easily or are slow to change. This happens because people won't accept falling wages because they are lower than their expected wages. If the labour market was more flexible then it would adjust to the equilibrium more closely and unemployment would be reduced.

The value or quality of a worker's skills, knowledge, and experience. Investing in education and training improves the quality of a worker's human capital.

For example: Good education and training in human capital improves the skill of a worker, which increases the value of the worker's human capital and offers the worker more opportunities.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Impact of Unemployment...

On Firms

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

On Individuals

- Unemployed workers are not receiving an income and will find they are less able to spend.
- Workers out of work will find their human capital falling as they forget skills and experience.
- Those who are unemployed for a long period of time will find it harder to acquire new skills for two reasons. First, their human capital has fallen. Second, employers may be shortlisting candidates because they take the standard of other employers as a benchmark. Would they waste time coming to the same conclusions?
- Claiming unemployment benefits has a stigma attached to it. Unemployed workers experience lower levels of income and higher levels of deprivation.
- Consumers will reduce their spending if their incomes fall.

On the Economy and Society

- High unemployment can cause people to lose confidence in the economy.
- Falling incomes mean living standards will fall.
- Because the money spent by government comes from taxes, increased government spending is likely to be followed by higher taxes in the future.
- Higher levels of national debt are likely to cause higher taxes.
- Research has found that higher levels of unemployment can lead to increased crime.
- Communities can become run down if there are high levels of unemployment. Unemployment can cause local shops to close and also cause a fall in living standards.
- Higher levels of unemployment can increase inequality and strengthen an underclass. Those without jobs lose their incomes and potentially fall into poverty.
- Unemployment, however, can have some advantages. Structural unemployment is improving and evolving as resources are being reshuffled to more productive uses.
- If there is lots of unemployed labour in the market, it means firms can expand more easily because there is a pool of readily available workers. Equally, there will be no upward pressure on the cost of production remains relatively low.

The Government

- Higher levels of unemployment mean there are more people claiming jobseeker's allowance. Government spending will increase.
- Lower employment means fewer people are receiving incomes and the government receives less revenue from incomes and national insurance, for example.
- Falling incomes and falling consumption means the government will receive less revenue from goods and services.
- Falling tax revenue and increased government spending will mean the government has a budget expenditure deficit, which may lead to higher levels of national debt.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



The Benefits of Employment

If somebody becomes employed then they will gain an income. This increase in income makes it easier to buy the goods and services that they need, which will improve living standards. They can purchase the goods that make them happy, which will also increase living standards. That with increased incomes comes increased spending, which will benefit firms as they have to buy their goods.

If more people are earning incomes and firms are making more profits from the increased sales, the government will gain more revenue from taxes. This in turn will go back into the economy, for example, spending on roads or hospitals. Equally, as employment rises, there will be fewer unemployed and the government can reduce its spending on unemployment benefits.

If people have jobs it gives them a chance to improve their skills, set and increase their goals. This is not only good for the worker but also for the overall economy, which will benefit from their increased productivity. Because, like any capital, investing in human capital will improve the efficiency and productivity of the economy and its maximum productive potential.

2.5.4. Questions

11. a) Name four possible causes of unemployment.
b) Can you explain these causes?
12. a) What are the two main measures of unemployment?
b) How do these measures attempt to quantify unemployment?
c) How accurate are these measures?

2.5 Keywords

Economic cycle:	A pattern of peaks and troughs in growth experienced by an economy.
Inflation:	An increase in the price level of goods and services over time.
Deflation:	This occurs if the price level is falling.
Disinflation:	This occurs if the rate of inflation is falling.
Aggregate demand:	Total spending on all goods and services in an economy.
Aggregate supply:	Total output in an economy.
Claimant count:	A measure of unemployment: the number of people claiming unemployment benefits.
Employment:	A term for those who are of working age and have a job.
Unemployment:	The percentage of people in an economy who are not in employment.
Underemployment:	This occurs if a person is employed but does not work as many hours as they like, or does not fully utilise their skills and talents.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.6 Introduction to Macroeconomic Policy

2.6.1 Possible Macroeconomic Objectives

Ultimately the government aims to create economic stability and remain on the long-run growth path because, as discussed earlier, this indicates the economy and society have developed and standards of living have increased. In order to maintain long-term growth rates, the government has a set of macroeconomic objectives it aims to meet. You only need to know the first four of these objectives for your exam.

1) Economic growth

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

2) Low unemployment (less than 5%)

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

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

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

4) Balance of payments current-account equilibrium

A balanced current account means there is a balance of injections and withdrawals. If the current account is in deficit, then the other it can cause the economy to boom above or deflate below its long-run growth path.

5) Balanced government budget (tax revenue = spending)

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

6) Protect the environment

In order to meet growing demand from infinite wants and population growth, resources are used up, leading us to a bottleneck. Without a healthy environment, the economy cannot function, whereas a healthy environment is beneficial for well-being as well as being imperative to protect and maintain it.

7) Greater income equality

A more equal distribution of income creates a fairer economy and allows the economy to function more efficiently to increase living standards; however, a tax system is needed in order to achieve this. Relative poverty will create greater income equality.

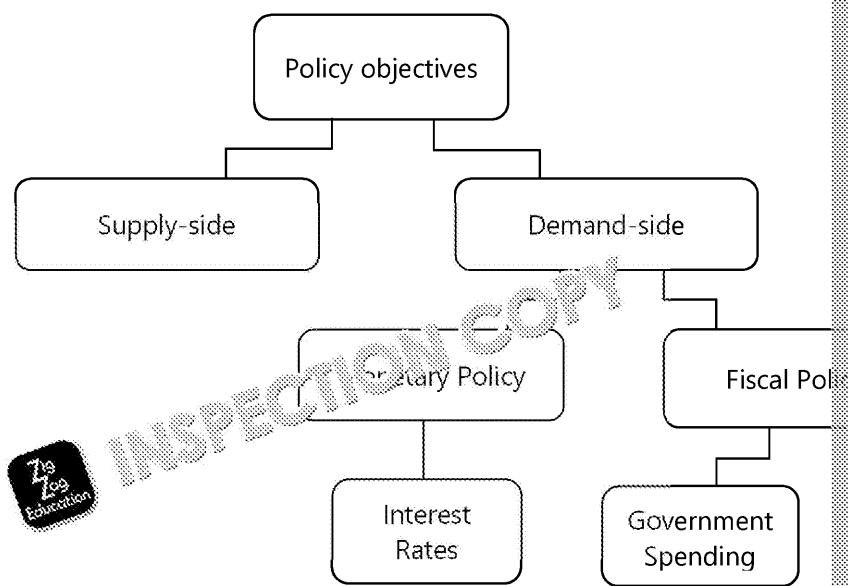
The main government objectives can be achieved using various policies. Each policy is a 'policy instrument', which are various tools that the government can control in order to manage the economy. The various instruments of policy are used to achieve the objectives. These instruments control the economy by influencing aggregate demand and supply.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Policies that use instruments to influence aggregate supply are called 'supply-side instruments to influence aggregate demand are called 'demand-side policies'. There are two types of demand-side policies: monetary policy and fiscal policy. These policies are discussed below in the next section.



2.6.1. Questions

1.

a)

What are the economic objectives of the government?

b)

Explain why each of these is an objective of government.
2.

a)

What are the three types of macroeconomic policies?

b)

What are the demand-side policy tools and how can each of these manipulate the economy?

c)

Who is in charge of the three policies?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

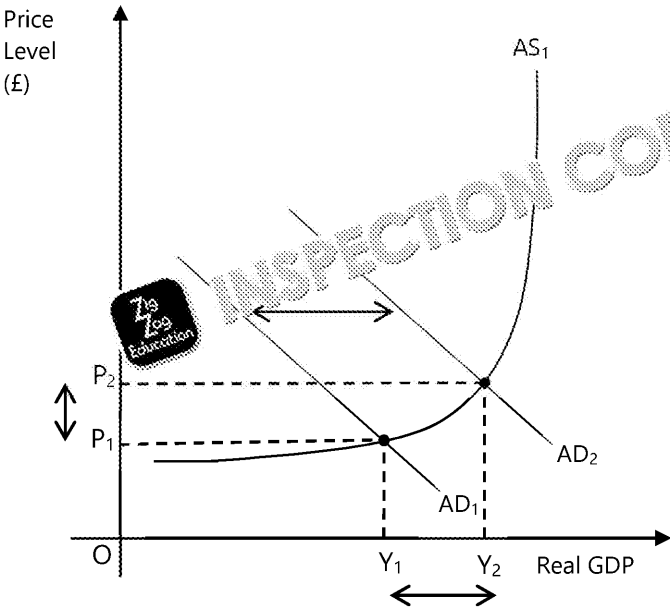


2.6.2 Policy Instruments

Fiscal Policy

Fiscal Instruments: Government Spending and Taxation

Government spending is an injection into the economy and taxation is a withdrawal. These instruments work in a similar but opposing fashion and come together to create an equilibrium. The government can directly change this ratio by choosing to tax at a different level or choosing to spend at a different level.



Deflationary fiscal tries to 'deflate' or reduce the price level because it is heading towards a boom. To deflate the government will reduce government spending and/or increase tax. This will shift the AD curve from AD_2 to AD_1 , price level falls from P_2 to P_1 and real GDP falls from Y_2 to Y_1 .

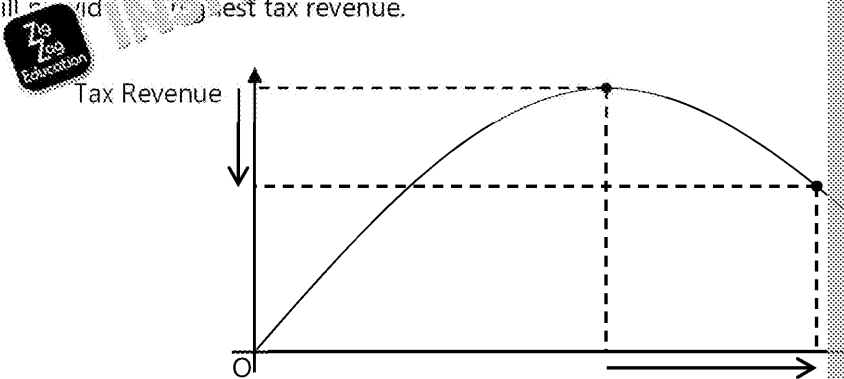
Inflationary fiscal tries to 'inflate' or increase the price level because it is in a recession. The government will increase government spending and/or decrease tax. This will shift the AD curve from AD_1 to AD_2 , price level rises from P_1 to P_2 and real GDP rises from Y_1 to Y_2 .

Government budget (fiscal) deficit is when the money coming into the government (tax revenue) is less than the money going out in the form of government spending. This creates a government budget deficit; government debt is the result of a deficit and is accumulated over time. If the government may need to borrow in order to cover its deficit, thereby creating a debt.

Government budget (fiscal) surplus is when the money coming into the government (tax revenue) is more than the money leaving (government spending). This creates a government budget surplus.

Impact of Taxes on...

- Incentive to Work**
Some people may be put off working longer hours, or getting a job with higher wages. If taxes are too high, people may not want to work. High taxes mean they will be taxed more highly. Therefore, increasing taxes may create a disincentive to work. Instead, it may encourage people to work less or remain unemployed.
- The Laffer Curve (Tax Revenues)**
The Laffer curve describes a negative parabolic relationship between tax revenue and the tax rate. It shows that if the tax rate is too low, the government will not receive enough revenue. If the tax rate is too high, the government will not receive enough revenue because people will stop working. Therefore, there is an optimal tax rate that will provide the highest tax revenue.



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



- **Income Distribution**

Progressive taxes can be used to correct uneven distributions of income. This is because the tax that is raised from the tax goes towards benefits and payments to lower-income households.

- **Real Output and Employment**

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

- **Price Level (Inflation)**

Higher taxes would increase the costs of production and firms would respond by increasing prices to cover the burden of the tax. If this happens continuously, then this can cause inflation as workers ask for higher wages to cover the costs of goods. Equal increases in wages and prices will lead to inflation as firms increase prices to cover the increased costs.

- **Trade**

Increasing direct taxes will reduce the level of disposable income that people have. This means people will have less to spend on imports and thus imports will fall. This could lead to a trade surplus.

- **FDI Flows**

Lowered tax levels will entice foreign firms and multinational corporations to invest in the country. Higher foreign direct-investment flows can inflate the economy and increase growth rates. However, if the tax rate will deter foreign firms from entering the country because their returns are lower.

Evaluation Points

There are a variety of things that affect the effectiveness of fiscal policy, it is a good idea to think about these as you will gain 'evaluation' marks in the exam.

- The size of the multiplier will determine how effective fiscal policy is because it is determined by the government. A large multiplier means the government need only make small changes to tax or spending to have large effects whereas a small multiplier will not bolster changes to tax or spending.
- The economy is complex and hard to measure. It is difficult to determine where the economy is in the business cycle and where the AS and AD curves are. Therefore, the government may overreact or misjudge by how much it should cut/increase spending and tax. This can lead to overshoot or undershoot by incorrectly using fiscal policy and create further problems.
- Inflationary fiscal policy will worsen the budget deficit because tax revenue from higher taxes and spending will rise. Although this doesn't determine the effectiveness of the policy and can create issues in the future.
- The principal problem with fiscal policy is there are time lags between deciding on a policy and the actual implementation of the policy because it takes time to pass regulations, for more public workers. However, once implemented, the effects of fiscal policy are problematic because the government can't respond quickly to a fluctuating market. Equally, even if the government had perfect information and changed their institutions to make the economy, there is no way to know what will happen in the future. External shocks that can cause the economy to react differently to policy predictions or the remnants of the economy could result in further failures, especially if the government's efforts are not enough.
- Economists often see reduction in government spending as a necessity to reduce the budget deficit to meet policy objectives. However, the government has a difficult 'catch-22' choice to make. If they spend money on policies that improve people's lives, on vital public services and infrastructure, support and, therefore, reductions in spending can mean harsh cuts for the people who need them. So any economic advantage from a reduction in government spending is offset by any reduction in living standards.
- Deflationary fiscal policy may reduce inflation but can create demand-deficit unemployment. Lower production and the economy's growth rate begins to slow down. Inflationary fiscal policy can create unemployment but it can cause demand-pull inflation.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



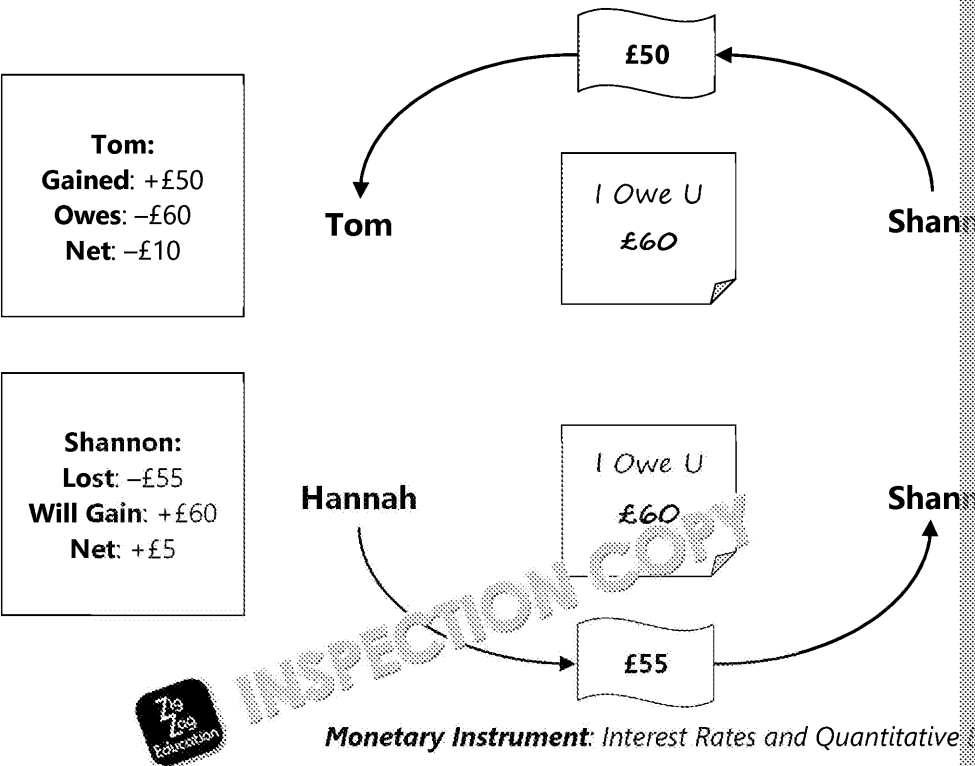
Monetary Policy

Quick explanation of the Finance Market

Banks lend to others because, although they are currently without money, the borrower will pay them back with interest. Therefore, the lender (the bank) will make money overall in the long-run.

If the lender needs money, they of course can't use their own because they have lent it out. They then find money elsewhere; rather than borrowing themselves, they will 'sell on' the loan. Shannon lends Tom £50; in return Tom will pay Shannon £60 next month. Shannon needs cash now and cannot wait until next month. She tells Hannah that Tom owes her £60 and if Hannah buys the loan, Hannah will owe Hannah £60. This way, Shannon has received the money she lent, plus has also earned £5 from lending. This can be repeated again and again with other lenders. The system is complicated and with numerous transactions, it can be hard to keep track of. However, when the borrower cannot pay back the loan (defaults on their loan).

Cash, notes and coins, can buy things and are the most liquid as the ease by which something can be converted into cash. They are relatively liquid as you can get cash from them quickly from a cash point. A ring is less liquid than cash; a pawn shop and exchange will buy for cash; however, there is difficulty in finding a shop and finding someone who will buy the ring. A house is more illiquid than a ring because it takes a long time for someone to buy a house because people need longer to make a decision on large purchases and the bureaucratic procedures that slow down the sale of a house. Loans can be turned into cash when she sold the loan to Hannah. Some loans are more liquid than others. Government bonds are more liquid and are fairly liquid. When a government needs to borrow money, it will sell a bond that says 'I, the government, owe you £££'. Say Tom was the government and Shannon was the lender. Shannon has sold a government bond to Shannon for £50, with the bond stating that Tom will owe the owner of this bond £60 next month. The UK government, for example, is a very trustworthy borrower and does not default on its loan. Therefore, being a low-risk loan, the bond would be highly liquid.



Monetary policy is set in a different way to fiscal policy and this is mainly because it is directly controlled by the government. As discussed before, interest rates affect consumption and investment; however, there are a few more steps between them.

First, you need to understand the role of a 'central bank'. There are many tasks a central bank has, including controlling stock of foreign reserves, maintaining the exchange rate, issuing notes and coins. The Bank of England is the UK's central bank and it maintained the exchange rate until 1992.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT PROTECTED



floating exchange-rate market. It still holds the stock of foreign reserves and issues. Its main role is to maintain stability of prices (inflation control), which is done by setting the base interest rate.

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

The Bank of England was given the role of inflation targeting because the government had raised interest rates during times of election in order to boost consumer confidence and votes. In the event of a major disruption to the economy, inflation targeting was given to an independent body, the Monetary Policy Committee (MPC). If the Bank of England does not meet its inflation target, it must report back to the government with an explanation of how or why.

The Bank of England may use 'quantitative easing' to encourage banks to lend and spend. The Bank of England does this by effectively printing more money for its reserves. As the Bank of England has more money and with these new funds, the Bank of England buys government bonds from commercial banks. This means banks will gain money, via the exchange of physical coins and notes. The money they gain from their sale of bonds allows them to lend money to economic agents. Quantitative easing is used when there is a lack of confidence in the financial system.

Monetary policy is seen as a blunter policy than fiscal policy because it targets the whole economy, whereas fiscal policy could be targeted to selected markets.

Tight (deflationary) monetary policy is implemented when inflation is expected to rise. An attempt to restrict aggregate demand by increasing interest rates and/or increasing taxes. In a diagram from fiscal policy, this will cause the AD curve to shift inwards from AD_2 to AD_1 , reducing the price level and GDP.

Loose (expansionary) monetary policy is when inflation is expected to fall below the target. An attempt to increase aggregate demand by decreasing interest rates and/or increasing the money supply. In a diagram, this will cause the AD curve to shift outwards to AD_2 ; price level has risen and so has GDP.

Evaluation Points

- Commercial banks may not pass the change in the base rates on to consumers. If the Bank of England increases the base rate, but effectively, the interest rate has not changed and there is no change to economic activity.
- If confidence or expectations are out of sync with the economy, then economic agents may not respond in the same way regardless of the changing instruments.
- There can be time lags between when monetary policy is implemented and when it has an effect because it may take economic agents time to adjust their consumption and investment in response to changes in interest rates.
- There may be a credit crunch and commercial banks may not have the funds to lend to consumers.
- Tight (deflationary) monetary policy may reduce inflation but can create demand-pull inflation. If firms cut back production and the economy's growth rate begin to slow down, then unemployment may increase and demand-pull inflation may occur.

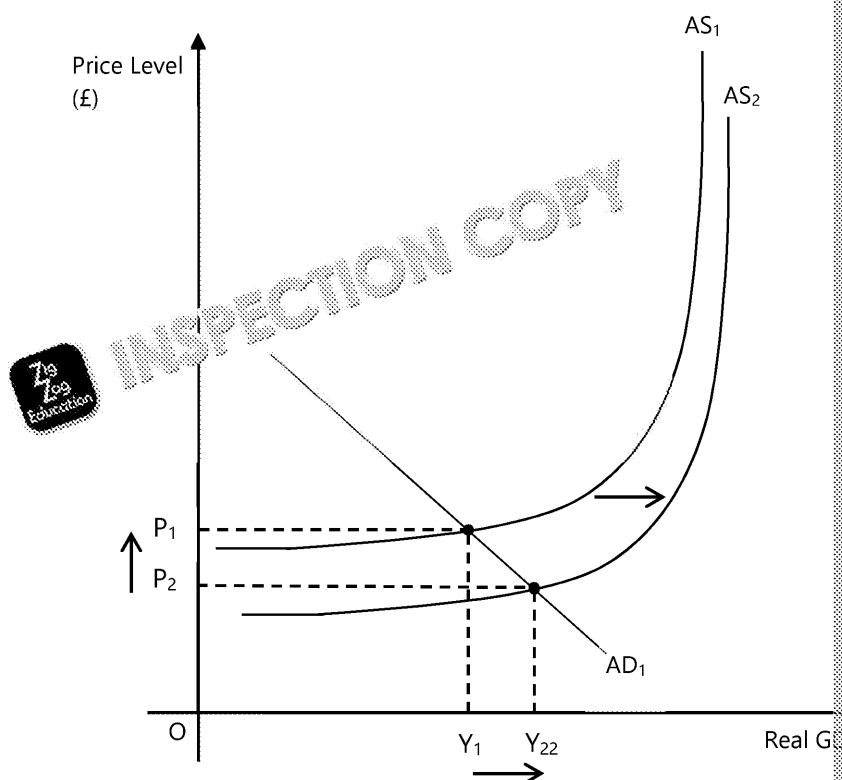
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Supply-side Policies

There is a wide range of things that affect the aggregate supply, none of which the government has direct control over as it does with demand-side policies instruments. The main way the government affects aggregate supply is through spending on supply-affecting investments or by changing some conditions which affect aggregate supply and explanations of how the government can affect those conditions.



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

Interventionist policies: Interventionist policies are the opposite of market-based policies. The government plays quite an active role within the economy. Its role is to intervene in order to correct market failures, generate and to guide an economy to a better equilibrium.

Different Policies

- Promote Competition**

If there are lots of producers in a market, there will be more competition between producers and an incentive to find ways to reduce production costs because then they can sell at a lower price, thereby gaining more customers. To do this, the government could give subsidies to firms, or reduce barriers to entry (obstacles that may prevent a firm from entering a market). Laws that prevent monopolies (large firms that others cannot compete against) or subsidies to small domestic firms, there will be an influx of foreign firms which will increase competition. By both reducing taxes on imports, allowing foreign firms to enter the market, and by giving subsidies to domestic firms, an economy can increase competition while still protecting its industries. This will boost LRAS because domestic production has not been replaced. As the competition drives the firms to become more productive, thereby pushing the LRAS curve to the right. The government can also boost competition. Governments are not worried about increasing profits; therefore, they aren't very competitive. By giving the business to the private sector, the government can increase competition, as the new owners will compete against other market players.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



• Reform Labour Market

Reforming the labour market refers to the quantity and quality of labour and the forces acting freely within this market. Structural unemployment is a result of labour. Trades unions are another barrier to the free-market system. Trades unions act to an individual worker by bringing individuals together as one large body. This gives them more power when it comes to negotiations over wages and working conditions. By increasing the economy can gain workers and thereby increase its ability to produce goods. On the supply side, laws around migration are supply-side policies. By increasing minimum wages, making people willing to work. Equally, by reducing unemployment benefits, this would disincentivise the benefit and encourage them to work. However, unemployment benefits are tied to their incomes and so there is a trade-off between protection and incentive.

• Quality of Workforce (Skills and Education)

If the government invested in schools by, for example, buying new learning technology, it would have a better education system, creating a more productive workforce. Equally, if the government gives an incentive for children to continue with higher education, more workers will also help to improve the human capital of an economy. This is part of the structural policy to improve an economy because it will help the mobility of workers.

• Infrastructure

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

To see what the government is spending on infrastructure now for the economy, visit:
<https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations>

• Quality of Capital and Production Processes

Investment into research and development will create a technological advance. New machines are invented and more efficient methods of production are created. This is because a more productive and efficient economy can produce more goods. This investment will indicate increased capital stock. Greater quantity of capital (more investment) leads to the possibility for more production.

Strengths and Weaknesses of...

Demand-side Policies

- + Although demand-side policies have a time lag of about a year, they are much more effective than supply-side policies and are therefore used to respond to changes in the economy.
- Classical economists believe any increase in aggregate demand will only cause inflation.
- Although the government can manage the economy, the global market has no control over it. The government policy is weak to external shocks.
- Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information provided to government is inaccurate and out of date, causing the government to react slowly and poorly.

Supply-side Policies

- + Shifting the aggregate supply curve outwards will not cause inflation, as it creates more output at the same price level through competition and improvements to production.
- + Increasing aggregate supply is an increase in production, as long as it is met by demand (movement along the AD curve). This indicates a rate of economic growth. Resources are generally improved or increased in the long term.
- + Increasing production and economic growth will mean there is job creation, which reduces the level of unemployment.
- + By improving the productive capacity of an economy and reducing the costs of production, the aggregate supply curve shifts outwards.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



become more competitive in the global market. This will mean that exports will improve.

- Supply-side policies have long time lags. Improving the quality of the workforce can take 13 years, as children start aged 4–5 and finish aged 17–18.
- These policies can be very costly, which would have a negative impact on the economy.
- Although the government can manipulate the economy, the global market has no control over. The government policy is weak to external shocks.
- Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information provided to government is inaccurate, but also out of date, causing the government to react slowly and poorly.

Exchange Rate Policies

Quick Recap

Check through Chapter 2.4.4 to refresh your memory on exchange rates.

Exchange Rate Systems:

• Floating

A floating exchange rate system simply means a country allows the value of its currency to be determined by the market forces of demand for its currency and (the somewhat controlled) supply. Decreases and increases in a country's currency are described as depreciates and appreciates under a floating exchange rate regime.

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

Depreciation is when a country's currency falls in value, e.g. the pound will have a 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 value of its currency in terms of another, at the same level. Revaluation and devaluation of a country's currency is 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. the pound sterling rate was £1=\$2 to £1=\$2.50

Devaluation is when a country's central bank decides to decrease the value of its currency, e.g. the pound sterling rate was £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 control a country's currency in terms of another.

Why Might the Government Want to Intervene in the Foreign-exchange Market?

• Current Account or the Balance of Payment

A devalued or depreciated currency will increase international competitiveness as domestic goods appear cheaper in relation to other countries. As a response, the demand for domestic goods will increase equally 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 lead to economic growth.

• 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 the country's goods.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



industries will increase production in order to meet this new demand, thereby increasing output 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, potentially leading 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 increase the costs of production for those firms that import raw materials, consequently push the price up, leading to inflation. Equally, the increase in demand for exports will also cause inflation.

If a country's currency appreciates, then it may experience a falling inflation rate, particularly if it is reliant on exports.

- **FDI Flows**

If the exchange rate falls, then it will be cheaper for foreign companies to invest in the UK, attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) into the economy. On the other hand, if the pound appreciates, then it would be more costly for foreign firms to invest. As a consequence, the UK may experience a fall in FDI.

- **Exchange Rate Stability**

Large fluctuations in the exchange rate can indicate economic instability. This can deter firms from investing and deter foreign investment. Equally, it is difficult for firms to perform their business if there is foreign market instability, especially for those firms that operate in the global market.

2.6.2. Questions

3. 'Supply-side policies are better for the economy than demand-side policies because they are not used is because the time lags mean politicians wait too long for elections.' To what extent do you agree with this statement?
4. How does fiscal policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.6.3 Potential Policy Conflicts and Trade-offs

There may be conflicts between macroeconomic objectives, i.e. in the process of improving one objective, another objective is impaired. The most famous trade-off is the one that is shown by the Phillips Curve.

Economic Growth and Negative Externalities

Pollution and environmental degradation is a social cost (remember negative externalities). The cost to the environment is not accounted for in the market system. Economies generally require growth which will use up more of the finite resources. With more production comes the increase in pollution. With the expansion of new factories, offices, hospitals, etc. comes the consumption of resources currently inhabited by nature. China is a clear example of the trade-off between high growth and their low levels of clean air and healthy environment. Countries are particularly damaged during their industrialisation stage, where environmental concerns are quickly forgotten in favour of high growth rates and switch to more capital-intensive forms of production.

Inflation Versus Unemployment (Phillips Curve)

In 1958, Bill Phillips hypothesised a relationship between unemployment and inflation. When there is high unemployment in an economy (spare resources), then firms could offer relatively low wages. This would be well below the market equilibrium income. Another way to look at this is in terms of competition for jobs. When competition within the labour market as the supply of jobs was low relative to the demand. Whereas, when the economy was near full employment, attempting to expand would require firms to offer wages that were higher than the market equilibrium in order to attract workers away from their current jobs. So, as unemployment fell, expanding production would lead to higher wages and prices would increase to compensate.

Long-run and Short-run Phillips Curve

The economy went through a period of stagflation in the 1970s that seemed to disprove the Phillips Curve. Stagflation is when the economy has both high levels of inflation and unemployment. It was instead theorised that expectations had adjusted to the new expectations of inflation were incorporated into wage negotiations. Equally, that at the time meant the market was restricted from adjusting to the market equilibrium level of unemployment (remember the Keynesian idea of sticky wages). With this idea, the short-run Phillips curve was created. The relationship in the short run remains true to Phillips' relationship. In the short run so that decreasing unemployment still results in increasing inflation. In the long run, however, it appears there is no such relationship and therefore the Phillips Curve is vertical. In the long run, it is believed that the long-run Phillips curve lies at the natural rate of unemployment. It is also known as the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment (NAIRU).



Further Your Economic Knowledge...

Natural Rate of Unemployment

The natural rate of unemployment is the level of unemployment that the labour market is in long-run equilibrium. Any attempts to decrease unemployment will be temporary as the economy will gravitate towards this level in the long run. Those who are willing and able to work at the current wage rate but are not working because they are waiting for a job at the wage level and those who are willing and able to work at the current wage rate but are not working because they do not have matching skills to the current structure.

Inflation will increase if unemployment is less than its natural rate. Equally, inflation will decrease if unemployment is greater than its natural rate. For this reason, the natural rate of unemployment is also called the non-accelerating inflation rate of unemployment (NAIRU).

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Issues From Managing the Macroeconomy

The economy is complex and hard to measure. It is difficult to determine where the cycle and the AS and AD curves. There are often a lot of uncertainties within economic policies are incompatible. An example of this this has been shown in the previous economics is a study of human and business behaviour and is therefore somewhat uncertainties can mean policymakers are unable to choose the best policy.

Equally, policymakers are usually politicians who have to consider public opinion. Sometimes an unpopular policy is the better option for the overall economy, and often the best policies have time lags that surpass those of election dates. These time lags can encourage poor policies for the long-run but have initial short-run advantages; for example, governments may pick policies that increase growth rates to reduce unemployment but create inflation.

Different Macroeconomic Perspectives

Economists and politicians have different views about the best way to run an economy about the extent to which the government should intervene in markets. In the US, the Republican Party favour much less government intervention than the Democratic Party. This stems from a belief in the efficiency of markets, and the ability of governments to intervene successfully.

In the UK, the aftermath of the financial crisis of 2008 has led to a fierce clash of views in the economy. As a recent example (2015), the Conservative Party plan to move to a lower wage, lower welfare system (with lower taxes and lower government spending, to contrast sharply with the Labour Party's approach under Jeremy Corbyn, which advocates spending to redistribute wealth more equitably.

Other contentious macroeconomic issues have included the debate on whether the government should tackle the recession through austerity measures or an alternative strategy, involving more gradual deficit reduction and less severe spending cuts.

Unintended Consequences

Often, policies are implemented using correctly collected data, strong theory, accurate intentions, but they can have unforeseen and unintended consequences. For example, governments suggest taxing petrol in order to account for the external cost on the environment. The tax is intended to encourage consumers to reduce their consumption of petrol or purchase more fuel-efficiently and are cleaner for the environment with, perhaps, the tax revenue being used for helpful policies. However, often it is cheap cars that use petrol inefficiently and are 'greener' cars are often expensive. The tax, therefore, is more likely to affect those who cannot afford to spend money on 'cleaner' cars. The implementation of this tax has the consequence of worsening uneven income distribution.

Another unintended consequence and policy problem is that of the minimum wage. A minimum wage, or increasing the minimum wage, is designed to ensure that people can afford to meet their basic needs. However, adding a minimum wage takes the market away from equilibrium, the wage rate at which the demand for labour from firms (the prices firms are willing to pay for the supply of labour from individuals) is equal to the price at which individuals are willing to work. At a minimum wage (which is above the market equilibrium), more individuals are tempted to work, and, therefore, the number of workers who are available for work increases. Equally, at a minimum wage, the market equilibrium to the minimum wage, the less willing firms are to pay the minimum wage, offering jobs for the workers (and instead employing capital, or simply just deciding not to hire) and more workers means there is a surplus of labour; this surplus is unemployment. While the intention to improve living standards and increase the wages of workers may instead increase unemployment, which affects the economy and also means there are some (those who are unemployed) who are unable to meet their basic needs.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



2.6.3. Questions

5. What are market-based policies?
6. What are interventionist policies?
7. a) What does the Phillips curve show in terms of meeting all the government's objectives?
b) Name and explain three conflicts that might arise in the government's objectives.

2.6 Keywords

Macroeconomics:	The branch of economics that looks at economies such as aggregate supply and demand, price levels and unemployment.
Fiscal policy:	The use of taxation and public spending by a government to influence the economy.
Monetary policy:	Policy that is used by governments or central banks affecting the cost of borrowing or money. Measures used include interest rates and quantitative easing.
Monetary policy committee:	A committee of the Bank of England that has responsibility for setting interest rates in the UK.
Trade-off:	The idea that something must be sacrificed in order to achieve a goal.
Positive externality:	A benefit that is enjoyed by a party or parties that is not reflected in the market price.
Negative externality:	A cost that is incurred by a party or parties that is not reflected in the market price.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Keyword Glossary

Add value:	When a business turns the sum of raw materials into a product that is worth more. Value added is calculated as: selling price of product minus the cost to create product/service.
Aggregate demand:	Total spending on all goods and services in an economy.
Aggregate supply:	Total output in an economy.
Branding:	This is the image that businesses create for a product/service.
Claimant count:	A measure of unemployment, the number of people claiming unemployment benefits.
Competitive advantage:	Characteristics that firms that positively distinguish themselves from the competition, or the edge, over their rivals.
Conglomerate integration:	Merging of multiple businesses that are all at different stages of the business cycle.
Deflation:	This occurs if the price level is falling.
Differentiation:	This involves the ways in which a company gains competitive advantage through branding, price, marketing and customer service.
Disinflation:	This occurs if the rate of inflation is falling.
Employment:	A term for those who are of working age and have a job.
Economic cycle:	A pattern of peaks and troughs in growth experienced by an economy.
Economic development:	A term used to describe actions by governments and businesses to improve living standards and economic health.
Efficiency:	How much a business can achieve through a minimum amount of resources.
Fiscal policy:	The use of taxation and public spending by a government to influence the economy.
Fixed exchange rate:	When a country's governing body or central bank keeps the value of its currency in terms of another, at the same level.
Floating exchange rate:	A system which allows the value of a currency to fluctuate according to the market forces of demand and supply.
GDP per capita:	A measure of national income divided by the population.
Globalisation:	A broad notion referring to the idea that the world is becoming increasingly interconnected.
Horizontal integration:	When two or more businesses merge at the same stage of the business cycle.
Human Development Index:	An index that ranks countries based on a measure of life expectancy, income and education.
Inflation:	An increase in the price level of goods and services over time.
Kaizen:	A Japanese term meaning continuous improvement. Employees are organised into groups (quality circles) that continuously analyse and improve the practice of their work.
Loyalty:	Brand loyalty (for a product, service or company) occurs when customers stay with a business and make repeat purchases.
Macroeconomics:	The branch of economics that looks at economies as a whole, including aggregate supply and demand, price levels, real growth and unemployment.
Managed exchange rate:	A system in which the government intervenes to minimise fluctuations in the exchange rate, possibly targeting a specific rate.
Monetary policy:	Policy that is used by governments or central banks to influence the economy by controlling the cost or supply of money. Measures used include raising interest rates, quantitative tightening and quantitative easing.
Monetary Policy Committee:	A committee of the Bank of England that has responsibility for setting the base rate in the UK.
Negative externality:	A cost that is incurred by a party or parties that is not reflected in the market price.
Nominal GDP:	Measurement of gross domestic product that has not been adjusted for inflation.
Objective:	A business's objectives are those goals/targets required for the business to succeed.
Overutilisation of capacity:	When a business produces more goods/services than it is designed to produce. This can cause stress on overworked staff and minimises the maintenance of equipment.
Positive externality:	A benefit that is enjoyed by a party or parties that is not reflected in the market price.
Productivity:	A company's hourly rate of output per each input.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Profitability:	How profitable a business is, comparing gross, operating and net revenue.
Promotion:	This is how businesses build awareness of a product/service through direct selling and online advertising.
Real GDP:	Measurement of gross domestic product that has been adjusted for inflation.
Sponsorship:	When a business supports another person/business in a particular way, such as the sponsorship of sporting events.
TQM:	Total Quality Management is a constant, company-wide culture of quality management.
Trade-off:	The idea that something must be sacrificed in order to achieve a goal.
Trading bloc:	A group of countries that have agreed to reduce or eliminate trade barriers between them.
Underutilisation of capacity:	When a business produces fewer goods/services than it is capable of, due to staff being underworked, which may demotivate them or mean employees they do not need.
Unique Selling Point (USP):	This is a feature that makes a product/service appear different from others.
Vertical integration:	When two or more businesses merge from different stages of the supply chain.
Unemployment:	The percentage of people in an economy who are not currently in employment.
Underemployment:	This occurs if a person is employed but does not work full-time, or do not fully utilise their skill set.



INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Answers

2.1. Answers

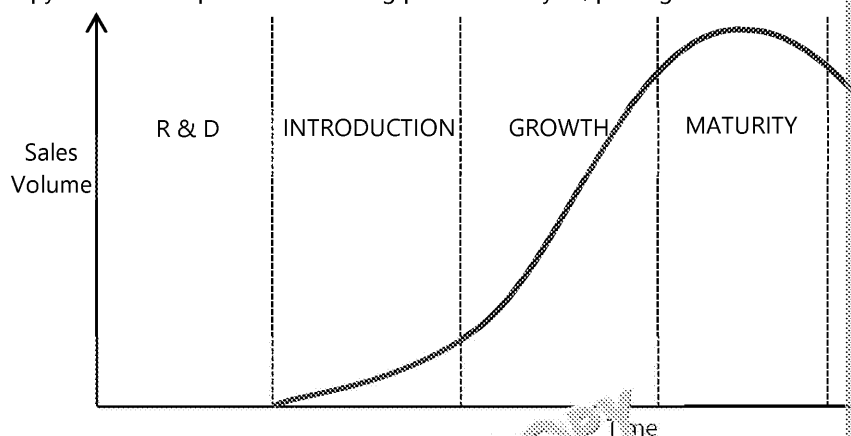
1. a) Explain how a business benefits when it successfully communicates its values with its employees.
Students should show an understanding of the advantages of a business sharing its values, such as providing a clear direction for the company and ensure that every employee works towards the same goal.
- b) i) Look up the UK branch of The Coca-Cola Company (www.cokecce.co.uk) and find its three core values.
Students should find The Coca-Cola Company's three core values at <http://www.cokecce.co.uk> under the 'About Us' tab.
- accountability
 - customer focus
 - being team driven
- ii) Explain how communicating these values to the public can benefit The Coca-Cola Company.
Students should show an understanding that members of the public are drawn to businesses that have clear and aligned values. The Coca-Cola Company's value of accountability is a key factor for a potential customer who considers sustainability of great importance. It also helps to attract potential employees who wish to work in a dynamic, competitive environment.
2. a) What is profitability?
Students should show an understanding that profitability describes not how much revenue a business has, but of the business's ability to turn revenue into profit.
- b) Identify and explain two ways in which a business can increase its profitability.
Answers might include:
- decreasing selling prices in order to increase sales overall
 - increasing brand awareness through advertising and promotion
 - producing a greater quantity of goods in order to spread costs and achieve economies of scale
 - by the same token, purchasing raw materials in bulk in order to spread costs
3. Monty Video Ltd is an online video-streaming service. The company serves 250,000 video subscribers throughout the UK.
- a) The company is looking to buy out one of its competitors. Identify whether this is horizontal, vertical or conglomerate integration.
This is horizontal integration, as Monty Video Ltd is looking to buy a firm that is at the same stage of the production process.
- b) Two directors at Monty Video Ltd wish for the business to grow organically rather than through acquisition. One reason why the directors may feel this way.
Students should show an understanding of the benefits of organic growth. These might include:
- slower than inorganic and, therefore, easier to manage
 - few cultural clashes
 - any increase in market power remains with the company rather than being shared with the acquirer
4. Copy out and complete the following sentences using the phrases *organic*, *inorganic*, *horizontal*, *vertical* and *conglomerate*.
When a business grows internally, we call this organic growth. A business experiencing inorganic growth is growing through the acquisition of other businesses. There are three forms of integration. An example of horizontal integration would be when one newspaper buys another. Vertical integration describes when one business buys up many different businesses in the same production process. An example of vertical integration would be if a greengrocer bought the land to grow the vegetables. Conglomerate integration describes when one business buys up many different businesses in different levels of the production process.

INSPECTION COPY

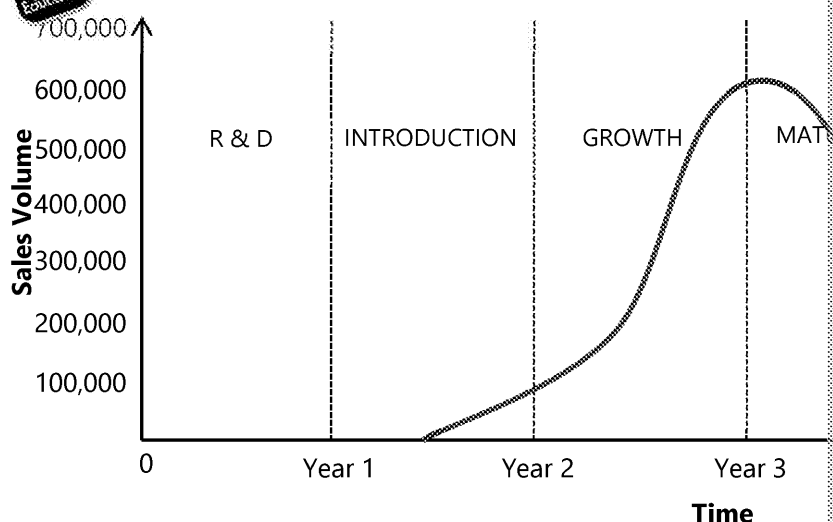
COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



5. a) Copy out and complete the following product life cycle, putting each section in the



- b) The soap manufacturer Squeaky Klean Soap began at the sales for one of its products after one and a half years of research and development. It was then introduced to the market. In the first year, sales were reaching 100,000. In the second year, the product was generating 600,000 sales but in the third year, sales of Squeaky Klean Soap continued to decrease and the product was finally put to rest. Complete the product life cycle below and complete it with a line to show the life cycle.



- 6) Explain one benefit and one drawback for governments offering funding to businesses.
Possible benefits include:

- By creating more jobs, an investment in the local economy is made.
- The funded business may put some of its earnings back into local infrastructure.
- An area with successful businesses can help to attract more successful businesses and skilled workers.

Possible drawbacks include:

- Offering grants is expensive.
- If the businesses are foreign, they may decide to send their earnings back to their home country rather than the local economy.
- Firms that do specialised work may not need their own specialised workers, bypassing the local labour market.

7. Jam and Banana is a growing business that specialises in the production of a wide variety of products (e.g. jam, banana bread, etc.). The company is owned and operated by three friends, who started Jam and Banana in 2008. Jam and Banana's products are handmade and so the company's consumer base is small.

- a) Identify one of the following graphs (Area A or Area B) where you think Jam and Banana should focus its efforts.

- b) Explain how Jam and Banana could potentially move itself into the other area of the graph. Students should show an understanding that in order to appear in Area A of the graph, the business should focus on only one or two products/services, rather than an array of items. By marketing its products more effectively, the company could significantly increase the quantity of sales it generated.

However, simply focusing on product will not be enough: the business will also need to ensure that enough consumers become aware of its brand. Once enough consumers are aware of the company, the company will have to manufacture many more products than it currently does. It will also look into cutting costs so that it can afford to produce the desired quantity.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



8. Which of the following digital elements has had the most effect on the consumer? Explain your answer.
- Price-comparison sites Viral marketing Social media

Students can choose any of the three digital elements as long as they make a logical argument.

Price-comparison sites:

- more power in the hand of the consumer
- word of mouth (i.e. customer reviews) holds more weight with people looking to buy
- businesses must keep up with price trends and so offer the most attractive deals

Viral marketing:

- a good story can create a chain reaction of sharing, which draws attention
- giving a brand a personality helps people relate to it

Social media:

- focuses on the user (i.e. the consumer), delivering a highly personal experience
- digital word of mouth through people sharing company websites
- brands can capitalise on current events via social media, which connects the consumer
- communication with the company is nearer in time

9. Identify how firms benefit from being small with regards to innovation, reputation and architecture. Explain each focus.

Students should show an understanding of how small businesses benefit with regards to innovation, reputation and architecture.

- a) *Innovation: may include product differentiation (as firms become experts in their niche, customers are more willing to pay high prices for niche items).*
- b) *Reputation: may include firms having a short chain of command (helping communication and relationship with stakeholders).*
- c) *Architecture: may include flexibility (firm's ability to react to consumer needs) or customer focused (more personal approach).*

10. Haverford West Caravans is a small business owned and operated by a young couple, who offer caravans to tourists for anywhere from one night to six months. They have experienced a significant increase in bookings over the last year and demand for their caravans has increased significantly.

John would like to expand the business by hiring more employees, while Nikolai believes it should remain small.

Decide who you think is correct in this situation and explain why this is.

Some students may decide that John's opinion on expanding the business is correct. If so, they may include reasons such as:

- economies of scale for Haverford West Caravans
- enhanced brand awareness
- revenue increase through higher number of sales
- spreading the fixed costs of the business across more consumer demand

Reasons to keep the business small could include:

- Better customer service
- Less risk of going bankrupt
- Easier to manage

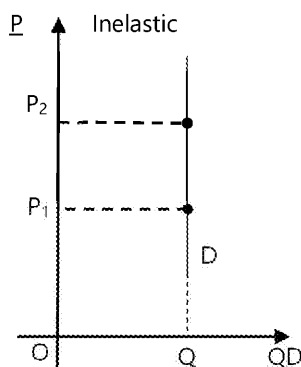
INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

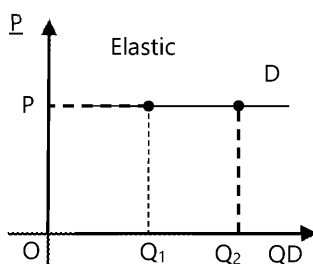


2.2. Answers

1. a) What is meant when a good has a relatively price-inelastic demand?
The change in price induces a relatively smaller change in quantity demanded.
- b) Draw a perfectly price-inelastic demand curve.



2. a) What is meant when a good has a relatively price-elastic demand?
A relatively small change in price can cause a relatively large change in quantity demanded.
- b) Draw a perfectly price-elastic demand curve.



3. The price of a fizzy drink has increased from £2 to £2.50, while the demand has fallen to 700 customers.

- a) What is the price elasticity of demand?

$$\% \text{ change in price} = \left[\frac{(\pounds 2.50 - \pounds 2.00)}{\pounds 2.00} \right] \times 100 = 25\% \quad \% \text{ change in QD} = \left[\frac{(700 - 1000)}{1000} \right] \times 100 = -30\%$$

$$PED = \frac{-30}{25} = -1.2$$

- b) Does this value indicate the good is price elastic or price inelastic?

The good is relatively elastic.

- c) What is the total revenue of the fizzy-drink company before and after the price increase?

Before: $TR = P \times Q \quad \pounds 2,000 = \pounds 2 \times 1000$

After: $TR = P \times Q \quad \pounds 1,750 = \pounds 2.50 \times 700$

- d) Does this indicate the fizzy drink company was at the top end or bottom of the demand curve?

At this point, a price decrease (going from £2.50 back to £2.00) would result in an increase in total revenue. The company is operating at the top end of the demand curve.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



4. Bill Oddity plans to open a birdseed shop. He has projected that he will sell 25,000 bags and like to charge a mark-up of 20%. Use the table below to calculate the price per unit (bag) to his customers.

a)

Total budgeted fixed costs	£1,500
Budgeted variable cost per unit	£0.25
Mark-up percentage	20%
Budgeted sales in units	25,000

Total cost:

= total fixed cost + total variable cost

= £1,500 + (£0.25 × 25,000)

= £1,500 + 6,250

= £ 7,750

Mark-up:

= total cost × mark-up percentage

= £7,750 × 0.20

= £1,550

Total cost + mark-up:

=

=

Budgeted selling price per unit

= (total cost + mark-up) ÷ budgeted sales in units

= £9,300 ÷ 25,000

= £0.37 (0.372 to 2 dp)

- b) What would happen to the price per unit if Bill increased the mark-up percentage? Would he still pay this price? Explain your answer.

If Bill increased the mark-up to 30%, the budgeted selling price would rise to £0.40. This is a 10% increase from the previous figure and so consumers will probably still pay this. Since, in general, it is likely to be price elastic. Due to this, Bill Oddity should do enough mark-up. He is not seriously overcharging in comparison to other retailers. If he does overcharge, consumers will move over a product as price elastic as bird seed.

5. Identify and explain two factors that can influence a business's pricing strategy.

Students can explain any of the following factors:

- Competitor businesses can affect the way consumers see a product/service
- The pricing objective of the business, e.g. looking to increase profits, market share, etc.
- Costs, i.e. how cheaply can a product be made?
- There may be a price war, meaning new businesses are unable to enter the market
- Who the business is selling to
- Where the business sits in the marketing mix, e.g. are they price leaders or price-takers?
- The price and income elasticity of demand can influence how much a business feels it can charge
- Where the product is in its life cycle can significantly affect a business's pricing decisions

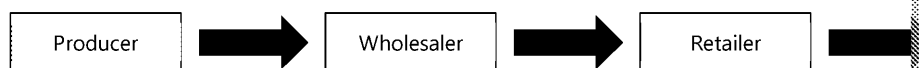
6. A beverage company wants to introduce a new fizzy drink to the market, but without advertising (newspapers, TV, radio, etc.). How else could the company promote their new product? *Alternative forms of promotion for the drink include public relations, sales promotions, sponsorships, etc. Learners should name possible activities that relate to each form of promotion (e.g. offering free in-store samples).*

7. Why are so many companies using social media as a way to advertise their brands? Do you think it is involved in the marketing mix? *Possible answers might include changes in communication and the popularity of the Internet. Social media is a key part of the marketing mix. It allows companies to take advantage of key events and generating user-created content that helps boost your brand. However, social media communication: consumers can say negative things about your brand and it might snowball. Therefore, social media communications also need thorough planning, just like any other medium, to prevent issues.*

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



8. There follows a four-stage distribution flow diagram.



Name an example for each stage of the flow diagram, e.g. producer = dairy farm

Example answers:

Producer = electronics manufacturer or dairy farm

Wholesaler = supplier to supermarkets or book warehouse

Retailer = high street shop or online store

Consumer = family buying produce or business needing machinery

9. An economy's average income rose from £25,000 to £32,500 a year while the quantity

These formulae are needed for the following parts of the question

$$\% \text{ change} = \left[\frac{(\text{New value} - \text{Old value})}{\text{Old value}} \right] \times 100 \quad \text{YED} = \frac{\% \text{ change in Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ change in Income}}$$

$$\% \text{ change in income} = \left[\frac{(32,500 - 25,000)}{25,000} \right] \times 100 = 30\%$$

- a) Good A rose from 180 to 190 units. What is the income elasticity of demand?

$$\% \text{ change in QD} = \left[\frac{(190 - 180)}{180} \right] \times 100 = 5.56\%$$

$$\text{YED} = \frac{5.56\%}{30\%} = 1.05$$

- b) Good B rose from 180 to 190 units. What is the income elasticity of demand?

$$\% \text{ change in QD} = \left[\frac{(190 - 180)}{180} \right] \times 100 = 5.56\%$$

$$\text{YED} = \frac{5.56\%}{30\%} = 0.19$$

- c) Good C fell from 230 to 200 units. What is the income elasticity of demand?

$$\% \text{ change in QD} = \left[\frac{(200 - 230)}{230} \right] \times 100 = -13\%$$

$$\text{YED} = \frac{-13\%}{30\%} = -0.43$$

- d) Which good(s) is a...

- i) Normal good

Goods A and B

- ii) Luxury

Good A

- iii) Inferior good

Good C

- iv) Necessity

Good B

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.3. Answers

1. Explain which of the following factors can have a positive influence on a business's productivity.
Students should show an understanding that the following can have a positive influence on productivity, with one correct answer:
- Increasing the responsibility of employees: with more responsibility, employees can be more motivated and so productivity is increased.
 - Purchasing equipment that is more suited to the production task: if the equipment is more efficient then this new equipment should make production more efficient and, therefore, increase productivity.
 - Reducing employee wages: improving the training process of new employees: this reduces the learning curve less steep for new employees, which keeps productivity at a steady state.
2. Identify and explain two ways in which productivity helps a business become more competitive.
Students should show an understanding of how productivity relates to competition and how it can be improved, including (but not limited to):
- High productivity allows businesses to reduce costs, which helps them to offer lower prices to consumers.
 - Reducing costs: increasing productivity, which helps a business stay price competitive with its competitors.
 - Reducing costs: increasing productivity, which helps a business stay price competitive with its competitors.
 - Efficiency of service: relates to consumer demands. Productivity helps businesses to provide a better service at any one time, which allows them to provide customers with a more efficient service.
3. Put the following statements into the correct categories.

Drawbacks of underutilisation	Drawbacks of overcapacity
The fewer goods a firm produces, the higher the fixed costs per unit.	Quality might be ignored as the focus is on quantity of products becoming too large.
Workforces lack motivation as there is little drive to over-achieve.	Maintenance of equipment is more difficult as there is simply not enough time to do it.
Firms are unable to meet sudden spikes in demand.	Motivation of employees is low as work is too intense.
	Firms are unable to meet sudden drops in demand.

4. Explain the difference between full capacity and spare capacity.
Students should show an understanding that full capacity describes how a business is using its resources in production. Spare capacity tells us that there is some capacity left over and so the business is not at full capacity.
5. Identify two differences between quality control and quality assurance.
Quality assurance is a proactive measure that involves managerial decisions. Businesses that best ensure their goods are produced to the highest quality. Quality control, on the other hand, is a reactive measure. It involves the correction of bugs in the production process before goods are made available on the market.
6. Explain one reason why a greengrocer might choose to implement the just-in-time method.
Students might explain any of (but not all) of the following:
- Time saver:** since most produce is perishable, the greengrocer does not have time to store goods. Just-in-time ensures that the business will need to produce for the very next day.
 - Minimises waste:** having too much stock on the shelves is wasteful and so this helps the business to reduce costs.
 - Attracts customers:** once consumers learn that the greengrocer's produce is fresher than other greengrocers, they can benefit from a positive reputation.
 - Less obsolescence:** the business needs only to sell the good for which there is demand.
 - Less risk to goods:** with fewer goods in storage, perishable items are less likely to go bad.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



7. Explain why businesses aim to decrease their average costs.
Students should show an understanding that, by reducing their average costs, businesses including (but not limited to):
- Fewer costs allow the business to generate more profit from the revenue for every unit sold.
 - As firms lower their costs, they can turn this into lower price tags, which may attract more customers and lead to higher profits overall.
 - By attracting more customers through low costs, the businesses stand to secure a greater market share.
 - The profits that companies make can be reinvested in order to improve product quality and enhance their reputation.
8. Smart Talkies Ltd is a manufacturer of smartphones and tablets. One of the company's products is a new range of mobile phones, which no other company currently offers. As a result, Smart Talkies Ltd is planning to react and so is planning to manufacture a more advanced version of the competitor's product. The current lead time for Smart Talkies Ltd (the time between making a business decision and the product being available) is nine months. Identify whether this lead time should be longer or shorter. Please explain your answer.
Students should show an understanding of the importance of short lead times. Naturally, businesses move slowly than others, but the smartphone industry is a rapidly changing one and so students should argue that nine months is too long. If the company wishes to compete with its rivals, it will need to reduce its lead time. If the company finally releases its answer to the competition, there could already be other products on the market. Students may also wish to point out that, if the business reduces its lead time, it may suffer from lower levels of quality.

INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.4. Answers

1. Explain how the following have contributed to globalisation in the last 50 years:
 - a) Information communication technology (ICT)
People are able to communicate far more easily than they could 50 years ago. Some can connect with someone on the other side – and often for free – and so our ability to communicate with another has very few limits.
 - b) Transportation
As transportation improves, people and businesses are able to move their resources and wish to take advantage of country specialisation, e.g. if one country is better at making a product, it may choose to base its production line there. It matters less than it did 50 years ago as to where the production line is, since transportation of goods is so much more convenient nowadays.
2. Copy out and complete the sentences below, using the following three phrases: *migration international trade investment flows*
 Globalisation is made up of three main characteristics:
 1. Rising *international trade* as countries export more of the product increases
 2. Increased *investment flows* which involves the buying and selling of business assets
 3. *Migration*, which is the movement of people and workers between nations
3. a) What is GDP?
Gross Domestic Product: the total value of goods and services produced in one economy
 b) How can GDP be adjusted to account for population size?
By dividing the total GDP of a country by the population, GDP can be calculated per person
4. How does GDP differ from HDI?
While GDP shows us the sum market value of all the goods and services produced by an economy, HDI uses three figures: education, health and real gross national income (GNI) per capita.
5. Why is international trade important for countries with an export-led growth approach?
Because countries that take this approach are relying on selling their exports to their foreign trading partners to get into the economy. Therefore, the economic situation of their trading partners and the 'climate' of the world market are important for these countries.
6. a) Explain when a country has an absolute advantage and when it has a comparative advantage.
A country has an absolute advantage over another when it can produce the goods and services more efficiently than another country has a comparative advantage over another when it is able to produce the goods and services at a lower opportunity cost than the other.
 b) 'Division of labour should always be used because it only has beneficial effects.'
Because workers haven't spent time switching between tasks, division of labour can be more efficient. Equally, workers will become better at their individual tasks as they repeat the same task more and more. However, repetitive tasks can mean that workers may make mistakes or become complacent.
7. a) Explain the meaning of 'exchange rate'.
This is the amount of money for which a currency can be exchanged – in other words, the value of one currency compared to another.
 b) Explain the meaning of 'depreciation'.
This is the decrease in the value of a currency in comparison to the currencies of other countries.
8. A Chinese consumer wants to buy a British good. Explain why this transaction, ceteris paribus, would lead to the Chinese yuan to depreciate.
In order to buy a British good, the Chinese buyer must convert their Chinese yuan into British pounds. This increases the demand for the British pound, and therefore its price too, while increasing the demand for the Chinese yuan, decreasing its value.

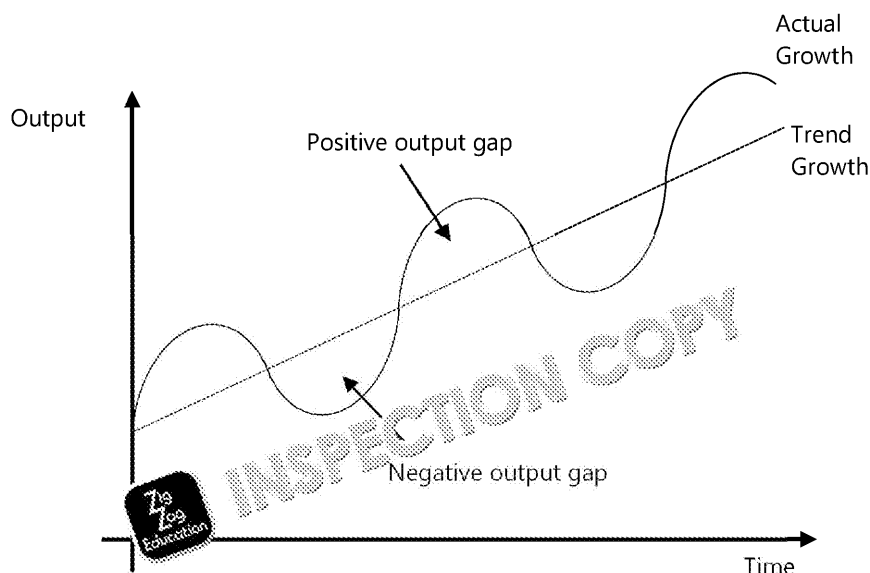
INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**

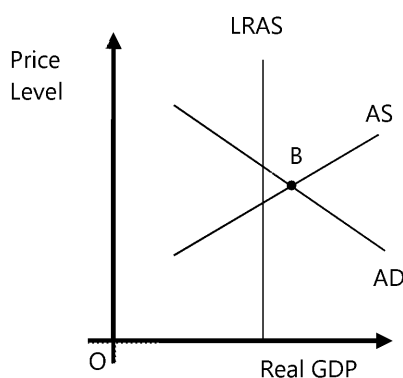


2.5. Answers

1. Draw an economic cycle diagram.
 - a) Label the positive output gap(s).



- b) Illustrate this gap / these gaps using an AS/AD diagram.



- c) Using the concept of capacity, explain what is happening within the economy.
There is very little capacity; if anything, the economy is producing beyond its capacity, producing beyond its PPF, and is overusing the resources it has to produce more goods than are currently able to produce.
 - d) What is happening to inflation, unemployment, confidence and the government budget?
As an economy enters a positive output gap, inflation rises and unemployment falls. As there is often a time lag with consumer confidence. Any government budget deficit will be reduced as consumption and employment increases tax revenue and falling unemployment means more tax revenue. At the height of a boom, inflation is very high, unemployment is very low and confidence is high. The government budget is likely in a surplus at this point.
As an economy leaves a boom and heads towards a recession, inflation will begin to fall. Unemployment will begin to rise. Confidence will be low. However, there is often a time lag with the government budget surplus will be reduced and become a deficit.
2. What are the effects of economic growth on consumers, firms, the government and living standards?
Consumers and workers:
Increased growth means the economy is expanding and there will be job creation, meaning more income and the negativities associated with unemployment will fall. This means people can increase their wealth or people will consume more goods. Economic growth indicates firms will enter the market for production, meaning there are more goods available for consumers with the potential of higher living standards.
Firms:
Economic growth indicates firms have increased production or new firms have entered the market for production, firms will gain more revenue and higher profits. This means they are more likely to be increasing capital and/or labour.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



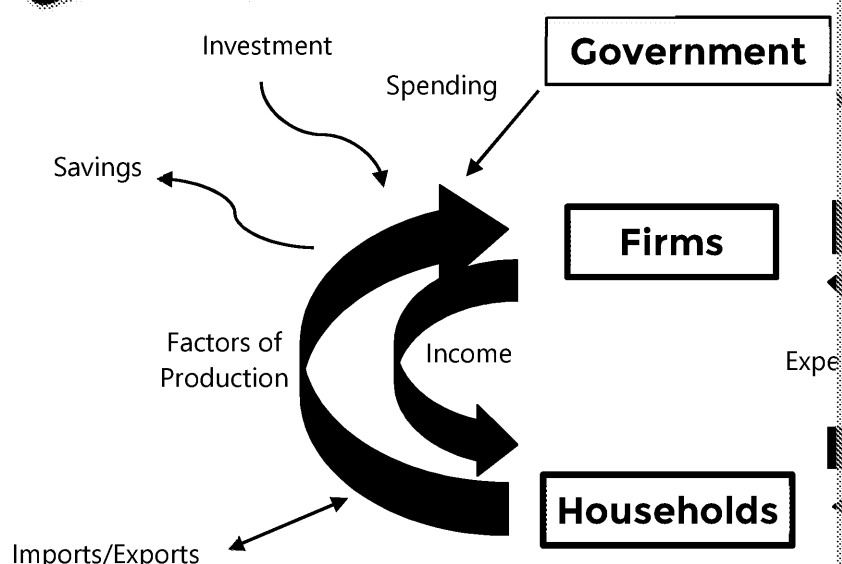
The government and economy:

Higher employment from the increased job creation means expenditure on benefits will fall. Higher employment also means that the government will receive more tax revenue from income tax and high levels of consumption mean the government will receive more revenue from sales of goods and services. Further to this, more firms or increased production means that the government will receive more tax revenue from profits. Expectations for the economy and confidence will rise, leading to more investment and consumption. Economic growth usually entails inflation. This means UK goods will be more expensive than foreign goods. UK exports will fall and imports will rise; this is likely to worsen the current account balance.

Living standards:

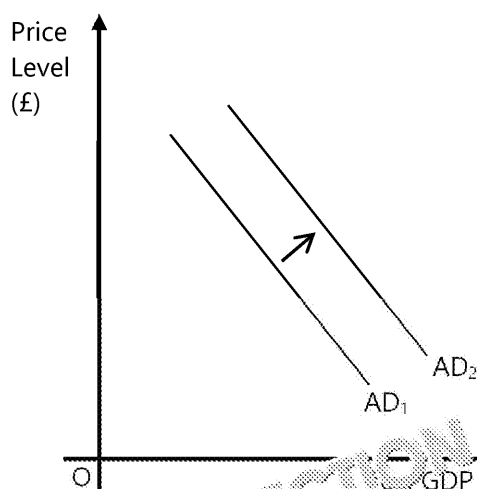
Economic growth is associated with improved living standards, although this is not always the case. Higher employment indicates higher employment which should decrease the level of poverty in an economy. However, economic growth can worsen inequality, depending on how the gains from growth are distributed.

3. a) What is an injection and what is a withdrawal?
An injection is money being added to the economy, whereas a withdrawal is money being taken out of the economy.
- b) List the six injections and withdrawals.
Injections: exports, investment, government spending
Withdrawals: imports, savings, tax
4. a) Draw a circular flow diagram with all the injections and withdrawals.



- b) Explain how income flows around the economy.
As firms purchase factors of production from households, they provide a wage/income. As households purchase goods and services from firms, they provide expenditure.
- c) What would happen if injections were bigger than withdrawals?
The income coming into the economy would be greater than the money leaving of the economy, so the economy would grow.
- d) What would happen if the government increased the tax rate?
The size of the withdrawals from the economy would be greater, so the economy would shrink.
5. a) For a firm, how are the short-run and long-run defined?
A firm is in the long-run when it is able to change all its factors of production. A firm in the short-run cannot change all its factors of production.
- b) What factors could affect long-run aggregate supply?
Technological advances, relative productivity, worker human capital, government policy and competition policy could all affect long-run aggregate supply.
- c) What factors could affect short-run aggregate supply?
The price of inputs (costs of production); for example, raw materials and energy, technology, and competition policy could all affect short-run aggregate supply.
6. Fill in the blanks:
 $AD = C + I + G + (X - M)$
That is: aggregate demand = consumption + investment + government spending + (exports - imports)

7. a) Complete this diagram showing aggregate demand by labelling the curves, the



- b) What has happened to this curve?

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

- c) i) List four main factors can shift the AD curve?

Changes in consumption, investment, government spending and net exports can shift the AD curve.

- ii) For each factor, explain two to three reasons the curve has made this shift.

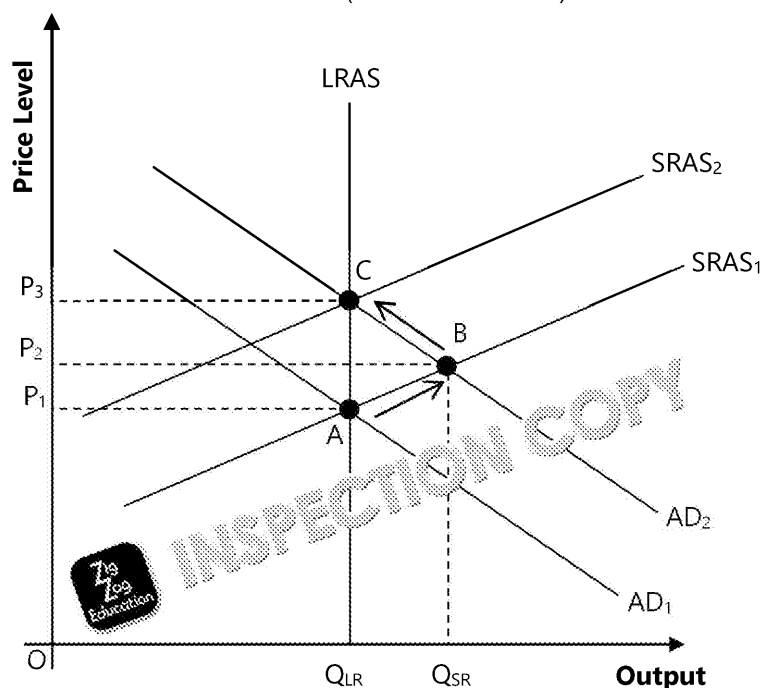
- **Consumption:** (1) If disposable income has increased, then people have more money to spend and increase consumption. (2) The government might have lowered interest rates, which reduces the opportunity cost of spending (saving). People are more likely to spend their money rather than save it and increases their ability to consume. (3) A rise in asset prices might result from an increase in asset or house price. If people are wealthier and are more likely to increase their spending. (4) If people are more confident in the economy, they will feel happier about spending their money and work. (5) If people are more likely to increase their consumption. Increased consumption (AD) and push the AD curve outwards.
- **Investment:** (1) Increasing economic growth will increase people's income and they are more likely to increase and there will be greater demand for firms' products. Firms are likely to expand their businesses in order to match their supply with the increased demand. (2) If exports have increased, perhaps because foreign consumers' incomes have increased, then exports will increase. Firms are likely to expand their businesses in order to match their supply with the increased demand. (3) If the central bank lowers interest rates, then the cost of borrowing (savings) have fallen. This will encourage firms to invest. (4) If there is greater access to credit, then it will be easier for firms to borrow. (5) If the government chooses to create regulations that encourage investment, then investment is likely to increase as a response, assuming the policies are effective.
- **Government expenditure:** (1) If the economy is in a recession then the government might increase its spending in order to stimulate the economy. (2) Alternatively, the government might reduce its spending to encourage economic activity.
- **Net trade:** (1) If UK incomes fall, then UK consumers are likely to decrease their spending. This could lead to a negative net trade. (2) If UK incomes rise, then UK goods will become more expensive in relation to foreign goods. Imports will increase and domestic produced goods, and exports will increase as well. (3) If there is a positive net trade and increased aggregate demand, then the economy will boom, then everybody's income will rise. Exports will increase and imports will decrease. (4) If the government implements protectionist measures on UK goods, then foreign consumers will purchase more UK goods. Alternatively, UK consumers will also be more likely to purchase foreign goods. This may outweigh the increase in exports. However, because the aggregate demand is increasing, this indicates that exports are greater than imports. (5) If the government implements protectionist measures on UK goods, then foreign consumers will purchase more UK goods. Increased exports will increase aggregate demand. (6) If the government implements protectionist measures on foreign goods, then the relative price will not matter as much since foreign consumers will purchase more UK goods. This will increase aggregate demand.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



8. Use a diagram to show how an outward shift in the AD curve will cause an increase in output that is sustainable if the LRAS shifts too (use a classical LRAS).



This is the diagram we're after. It shows how in the short term an increase in AD causes output to increase. In the long run, SRAS also shifts and output returns to Q_{LR} (but the price level is higher).

9. What is the difference between inflation, deflation and disinflation?
Inflation is a rise in general price level, whereas deflation is a fall in general price level. Disinflation means the general price level has increased, but the increase is less than it was previously.
10. How do real and nominal GDP differ?
Real GDP accounts for inflation, whereas nominal inflation is merely the value.
11. a) Name four possible causes of unemployment.
Answers could include: structural, occupational, geographical, technological, frictional, real-wage inflexibility
- b) Can you explain these causes?
Structural: This occurs when there is a major change in the industries of an economy, such as the steel industry. Workers may struggle to find suitable jobs if all their experience relates to that industry.
Occupational: When there is a mismatch between the skills required for the job and the skills of the worker, which is often linked to structural unemployment.
Geographical: When people cannot move locations to find a job.
Technological: When people's jobs are replaced by more efficient machines.
Frictional: This occurs as people change jobs.
Seasonal: If people are employed in seasonal work, then when the seasons change, they may become unemployed.
Demand-deficient: If the economy is in a recession, then firms will cut back on production, leading to a fall in demand for labour.
Real-wage inflexibility: If the real wage rate is below the market equilibrium, then firms will hire more labour.
12. a) What are the two main measures of unemployment?
ILO unemployment rate and claimant count
- b) How do these measures attempt to quantify unemployment?
ILO unemployment rate: The Labour Force Survey (required by the ILO) determines who is in/out of work and who are seeking work. From this, they are able to calculate an unemployment rate.
Claimant count: This counts the number of people who are claiming unemployment benefits from the working population.
- c) How accurate are these measures?
Neither measure is completely accurate as they only calculate the statistics from a sample. The claimant count generally underestimates the number of people in unemployment.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



2.6. Answers

1.
 - a) What are the economic objectives of the government?
Sustainable, positive economic growth; low unemployment; low and stable inflation; account equilibrium; balanced government budget; environmental protection; less income inequality.
 - b) Explain why each of these is an objective of government.
Sustainable positive economic growth can bring about greater living standards. Employment and help boost the economy through increased incomes, whereas unemployment wastes resources so the government aims to keep this value as low as possible. Inflation is bad as it diminishes people's savings and incomes while also increasing living costs. Therefore, this low and stable so firms and households can anticipate and plan for the price level. It is unsustainable as more money is leaving the economy than entering. The government aims to have more than it earns (tax revenue) and so aims to have a balanced budget. It's a moral imperative to protect the environment; equally, the UK can be fined by the EU if it doesn't do so. Good living standards and some economists argue that it can boost economic growth.
2.
 - a) What are the three types of macroeconomic policies?
Fiscal, monetary and supply-side policies.
 - b) What are the demand-side policy tools and how can each of these be changed in the future?
Fiscal policy:
 - **Government taxation:** Tax is a withdrawal from the circular flow of economy and reduces disposable income, aggregate demand, inflation and growth.
 - **Government spending:** The government can inject money into the economy and stimulate an economy out of recession.**Monetary policy:**
 - **Interest rates:** The Bank of England is able to set interest rates to control inflation and investment.
 - **Quantitative easing:** Banks are unlikely to lend to people if they do not have cash. Quantitative easing helps liquidity traps and enables greater ease of borrowing, increasing consumption and investment.**Supply-side policy:**
 - There is a variety of things a government can invest in in order to boost aggregate supply, such as reducing income tax or lowering tariffs on imports.
 - c) Who is in charge of the three policies?
The government is in charge of fiscal policy and supply-side policy, whereas the Bank of England is in charge of monetary policy.
3. 'Supply-side policies are better for the economy than demand-side policies. The only reason demand-side policies are used is because the time lags mean politicians won't see results in time for elections.' To what extent do you agree?
Unlike demand-side policies, which can cause inflation, shifting the aggregate supply curve to the right increases output on prices through competition and improvements to production. This indicates a rate of economic growth that is sustained as resources are generally improved or increased in the long term. Equally, increased economic growth will mean there is job creation, which will help reduce the level of unemployment. Improving the capacity of an economy and reducing the costs of production, an economy will become more competitive in the market. This will mean exports will increase and any trade deficit will be improved.
However, supply-side policies have long time lags; improving the quality of the workforce takes 13 years. Data collection is slow and long-winded. The information provided to governments is often out of date, causing the government to react slowly and possibly incorrectly. Furthermore, while governments can manipulate the economy, the global economy has some influences that the government cannot control. Government policy is weak against natural shocks. Supply-side policies can also be very costly and have a significant impact on the government's budget.
In addition, supply-side policies cannot solve economic crises caused by a lack of demand. Demand-side policies are needed to solve them.
4. How does fiscal policy conflict with other policies and the government's objectives?
Increased government spending may help to boost an economy out of a recession; however, it may also result in increased taxes in the future. This tax increase not only conflicts with any future economic growth incentives to work and could worsen income distribution depending on how the tax is increased. Furthermore, increased government spending may mean cutting benefits or reducing investment in schools or hospitals, which has a negative impact on the living standards within an economy. After the 2008 recession, the government tried to reduce government debt by cutting spending; however, this was met with outrage by the public due to the adverse effect on education quality. Cutting benefits also has the potential to worsen income inequality for those who may need the benefits for survival.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



5. What are market-based policies?

Market-based policies aim to work alongside market forces to manipulate the economy.

6. What are interventionist policies?

The government has a direct role with interventionist policies and intervenes to make decisions.

7. a) What does the Phillips curve show in terms of meeting all the government's objectives?
The Phillips curve shows that an economy cannot have both low inflation and low unemployment between the two.

- b) Name and explain three conflicts that might arise in the government's objectives.
There is a conflict between economic growth and inflation. Economic growth usually increases aggregate demand. An increase in aggregate demand not only increases growth but also increases inflation. Therefore, as an economy grows, it will tend to see growing rates of inflation, too. One way of increasing prices is to increase aggregate supply; classical economists believe this is not possible in the long run because without moving the LRAS curve, any increase in aggregate demand will only lead to higher inflation in the long run.

There is also a conflict between economic growth and the current account. As the economy grows, people will spend more on imports. As imports rise this could worsen a trade deficit. As the economy grows and inflation rises, domestic goods will appear more expensive than foreign goods. Therefore, exports will fall. Falling exports and rising imports could create a negative current account balance. Economic growth also conflicts with the government's environmental objectives. Pollution and environmental degradation is a social cost. Pollution is not accounted for in the market system. Economies generally require more inputs as the economy grows. As the economy grows, the finite resources are used up. With more production comes the increased use of fossil fuels and other resources. Factories, offices, hospitals, etc. comes the consumption of space, which may currently be used for other purposes. A clear example of the trade-off between high rates of economic growth and low levels of environmental protection. Countries are particularly damaging to the environment during their early stages of growth. Environmental concerns are quickly forgotten with the rapid rise in growth rates, and the intensive forms of production.

Other conflicts of objectives are possible, including the Phillips curve trade-off (unemployment vs inflation) and the potential trade-off between growth and inequality.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED

